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THE  
LONDON ENCYCLOPÆDIA.

VOL. VII.

CUTLERY TO ELASTICITY.



THE  
**LONDON ENCYCLOPÆDIA,**  
OR  
**UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY**  
OF  
**SCIENCE, ART, LITERATURE, AND PRACTICAL MECHANICS,**

COMPRISING A  
**POPULAR VIEW OF THE PRESENT STATE OF KNOWLEDGE.**

ILLUSTRATED BY  
**NUMEROUS ENGRAVINGS, A GENERAL ATLAS,  
AND APPROPRIATE DIAGRAM.**

---

*Sic oportet ad librum, præsertim miscellanei generis, legendum accedere lectorem, ut solet ad convivium conviva civibus. Convivator amicitia omnibus satisfacere; et tamen si quid apponitur, quod hujus aut illius palato non respondet, et hic et ille urbane dissimulant, et alia fœcula probant, ne quid contristent convivorum.*

*Erasmus.*

*A reader should sit down to a book, especially of the miscellaneous kind, as a well-behaved visitor does to a banquet. The master of the feast exerts himself to satisfy his guests; but if, after all his care and pains, something should appear on the table that does not suit this or that person's taste, they politely pass it over without notice, and commend other dishes, that they may not distress a kind host.*

*Translation.*

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**BY THE ORIGINAL EDITOR OF THE ENCYCLOPÆDIA METROPOLITANA,**  
ASSISTED BY EMINENT PROFESSIONAL AND OTHER GENTLEMEN.

**IN TWENTY-TWO VOLUMES.**

**VOL. VII.**

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# THE LONDON ENCYCLOPÆDIA.

**CUSTOM-HOUSE**, an office established by the authority of the king, in maritime cities, or port-towns, for the receipt and management of the customs and duties of importation and exportation, imposed on merchandise, and regulated by a books of rates. An edifice with considerable pretensions to grandeur, on the score of external decoration, was erected for the purpose of transacting public business, in 1826. Its site was well chosen from its proximity to the Tower; but, unfortunately, the piles on which the building rested, being exposed to the action of the Thames, speedily decayed, and the whole of the interior of the edifice sunk to the ground. It has since been rebuilt.

**CUSTOS BREVIUM**, the principal clerk belonging to the court of common pleas, whose business it is to receive and keep all the writs made returnable in that court, filing every return by itself; and, at the end of each term, to receive prothonotaries of all the records of the nisi prius, called the postea. The postea are first brought in by the clerks of assize, of every circuit, to that prothonotary who entered the issue in the causes, in order to enter judgment; and after the prothonotary has entered the verdict and judgment into the rolls of the court, he delivers them over to the custos brevium, who binds them into a bundle. The custos brevium also makes entries of writs of covenant, and the concord upon every line; he likewise makes out exemplifications and copies of all writs and records in his office, and of all fines levied, which, being engrossed, are divided between him and the chirographer, which last keeps the writ of covenant and the note, and the former the concord and foot of the fine. The custos brevium is appointed by the king's letters patent.

**CUSTOS ROTULORUM**, an officer who has the custody of the rolls and records of the sessions of peace, and also of the commission of the peace itself. He is usually a nobleman, and always a justice of the peace, of the quorum, in the county where he is appointed. This officer is appointed by writing under the king's sign manual, being the lord chancellor's warrant to put them in commission. He may execute his office by a deputy, and is empowered to appoint the clerk of the peace; but he is prohibited from selling his office, under divers penalties.

**CUSTOS SPIRITUALIUM**, he that exercises the spiritual jurisdiction of a diocese, during the vacancy of any see, which, by the canon law, belongs to the dean and chapter; but at present, in England, to the archbishop of the province by prescription.

**CUSTOS TEMPORALIUM**, the person to whom a vacant see or abbey was given by the king as supreme lord. His office was, as steward of the

goods and profits, to give an account to the escheator, who did the like to the exchequer.

**CUSTREL**, *n. s.* Fr. *coustillier*. A buckler-bearer; a vessel for holding wine. The word is sometimes written coistrel.

Every one had an archer, a demi-lance, and a custrel.  
*Lord Herbert.*

**CUSTRIN**, a fortified town of Prussia, the capital of the New Mark of Brandenburg, is situated in a plain at the junction of the Wartha and the Oder. The town though small has spacious suburbs, and contains 4500 inhabitants. It is encompassed by extensive morasses, which add to its strength; a fortified dike also commences at one of the suburbs, and is continued for the space of three miles by means of thirty-six bridges, across a succession of marshy ground. In the month of August, 1758, this place was bombarded and laid in ashes by the Russians, but afterwards rebuilt in a style of great regularity. It is forty-eight miles east of Berlin.

CUT, <i>v. a., v. n. &amp; n. s.</i>	<i>Fr. couper, cou- teau; Sans. ku- tan. West Goth. kota, κοττω.— Few words have more shades of meaning than to cut, but in all of them division, producing, in some way or other, a solution of continuity, is expressed or implied. To cut is, to penetrate with a sharp instrument; to hew; to sculpture; to form by cutting; to divide by passing through; to pierce with an uneasy sen- sation; to divide packs of cards; to intersect; to castrate; to avoid a person, or pretend not to see or know him; to make way by dividing; to perform the operation of lithotomy. It obtains many additional meanings from its conjunction with down, off, out, short, up, and in. To cut down is, to fell; to level with the earth by a blow from a sharp instrument; to diminish the amount of any demand; to excel; to overpower. To cut off is, to separate by cutting; to extirpate; to bring to an untimely death; to rescind; to take away; to intercept; to put an end to; to obviate; to withhold; to preclude; to interrupt; to abbreviate. To cut out is, to shape; to scheme; to adopt; to debar; to excel. To cut short is, to interrupt; to abridge. To cut up is, to divide an animal, or some article of animal food, into convenient parts; to eradicate. To cut in is a phrase used in card-playing, parti- cularly at whist, when the cut made by the par- ties determines who are to be the players. To cut a caper is to dance. The meanings of the noun are also numerous. It denotes the action of a sharp instrument; the separation made by</i>
CUTTER, <i>n. s.</i>	
CUTTING, <i>n. s.</i>	
CUTTER-OFF, <i>n. s.</i>	
CUT-THROAT, <i>n. s. &amp; adj.</i>	

CUT-PURSE, *n. s.*



such an instrument; an incised wound; an artificial channel; a part cut off from the rest; a small particle; a lot made by cutting into unequal portions, a stick, straw, or bit of paper, which portions are held between the finger and thumb, while another draws the lot; a near passage, which saves distance, by cutting off an angle; an impression taken from an engraving on wood or copper; the plate on which the drawing is engraved; the dividing of a pack of cards; anciently, a fool or cully; a gelding. Cut and long tail is a proverbial expression for all kinds of men. The participial adjective, cut, signifies prepared for use, in which case it is joined with *dry*; rather the worse for liquor; hurt in the feeling. Cut and come again is a trivial expression, denoting that there is an abundance. Cutter is the agent that cuts anything; a small swift-going vessel; the incisores, or cutting teeth; an officer in the exchequer; a ruffian. Cutter off means a destroyer. Cutting is, a piece cut off; an incision; a caper, but this is obsolete; division, as of a pack of cards. Cut-purse is a thief; cut-throat a murderer; a butcher of men; the animal which is sometimes miscalled a hero. For CUTLERY, see the article.

And they did beat the gold into thin plates, and cut it into wires. *Exod. xxxix. 3.*

And they caught him, and cut off his thumbs.

*Jud. i. 6.*

Thy servants can skill to cut timber in Lebanon.

*2 Chron. ii.*

Who cut up mallows by the bushes and juniper-roots for their meat.

*Job xxx. 4.*

A bowe in honde and arowis had she,  
Her clothis cuttid were unto the kne.

*Chaucer. The Legende of Dido.*

Right as a sword forcutteth and forkerveth  
An arme atwo, my dere son! right so  
A tonge cutteth friendship all atwo.

*Id. Cant. Tales.*

Now draweth cutte or that ye forther twinne;  
He which that hath the shortest shal beginne.

*Id. Prolog. Cant. Tales.*

The cotelere dwellith in this town that made the  
same kuyff,  
And for to prove the throwith he shall be here as  
blyve.

*Id. Cant. Tales.*

Either with nimble wings to cut the skies,  
When he them on his messages doth send,  
Or on his own dred presence to attend.

*Spenser. Hymn on Heavenly Love*

But that same squire to whom she was more dere  
Whenas he saw she should be cut in twaine,  
Did yield she rather should with him remaine  
Alive then to himself be shared dead.

*Id. Faerie Queene.*

Eftsoones her shallow ship away did slide  
More swift than swallow sheres the liquid skye,  
Withouten oare or pilot it to guide,  
Or winged canvas with the wind to fly:  
Only she turn'd a pin, and by and by  
It cut away upon the yielding wave.

*Id.*

All Spain was first conquered by the Romans, and  
filled with colonies from them, which were still in-  
creased, and the native Spaniards still cut off.

*Id. On Ireland.*

It hath a number of short cuts or shreadings, which  
may be better called wishes than prayers. *Hooker.*

My lady Zelmane and my daughter Mopsa may  
draw cuts, and the shortest cut speak first. *Sidney.*

Why should a man, whose blood is warm within,  
Sit like his grandsire cut in alabaster? *Shakespeare.*

Ah, cut my lace asunder,  
That my great heart may have some scope to bear,  
Or else I swoon with this dead killing news.

*Id. Richard III.*

He that cuts off twenty years of life,  
Cuts off so many years of fearing death.

*Id. Julius Caesar.*

By the pattern of mine own thoughts I cut out the  
purity of his.

*Id. Winter's Tale.*

To have an open ear, a quick eye, and a nimble  
hand, is necessary for a cutpurse.

*Id.*

Send her money, knight, if thou hast her not in  
the end, call me cut.

*Id. Twelfth Night.*

Their clothes are after such a Pagan cut too,  
That, sure, they've worn out Christendom.

*Id. Henry VIII.*

A paultry ring  
That she did give, whose poesy was  
For all the world like cutler's poetry  
Upon a knife: love me, and leave me not.

*Shakespeare.*

At quintin he,

In honour of this bridalltee,  
Hath challenged either wide countee:  
Come cut and long tail; for there be  
Six bachelors as bold as he.

*Ben Jonson. Underwood.*

Nor can good Myfon wear on his left hand  
A signet ring of Bristol diamond,  
But he must cut his glove to shew his pride,  
That his trim jewel might be better spyd.

*Hall.*

The king of this island, a wise man and a great  
warrior, handled the matter so, as he cut off their  
land forces from their ships.

*Bacon.*

It is no grace to a judge to shew quickness of con-  
ceit in cutting off evidence or counsel too short.

*Id.*

I, for my part, do not like Images cut out in juniper,  
or other garden-stuff: they be for children.

*Id.*

The burning of the cuttings of vines, and casting  
them upon land, doth much good.

*Id.*

All the timber whereof was cut down in the moun-  
tains of Cilicia.

*Knolles.*

This great cut or ditch Sesostris the rich king of  
Egypt, and long after him Ptolemus Philadelphus,  
purposed to have made a great deal wider and deeper,  
and thereby to have let the Red Sea into the Medi-  
terranean.

*Id.*

CUTTING is particularly used in heraldry,  
where the shield is divided into two equal parts,  
from right to left, parallel to the horizon, or in  
the fesse way. The word is also applied to the  
honorable ordinaries, and even to animals and  
moveables, when they are divided equally the  
same way; so however, as that one moiety is  
color, the other metal. The ordinaries are said  
to be cut, coupéd, when they do not come full  
to the extremities of the shield.

CUTTING, in painting, the laying one strong  
lively color over another, without any shade or  
softening. The cutting of colors has always a  
disagreeable effect.

CUTTING, in surgery, denotes the operation of  
extracting the stone out of the bladder by the  
knife. See LITHOTOMY.



**CUTTING**, in the manege, is when the horse's feet interfere; or when with the shoe of one foot he beats off the skin from the pastern joints of another foot. This is more frequent in the hind feet than the fore: the cause is commonly bad shoeing.

**CUTTING IN WOOD** is a particular kind of sculpture or engraving; the invention of which, as well as that in copper, is ascribed to a goldsmith of Florence: but it is to Albert Durer and Lucas they are both indebted for their perfection. See **ENGRAVING** and **PRINTING**. Hugo da Carpi invented a manner of cutting in wood, by means of which the prints appeared as if painted in clair-obscur.

**CUTTINGS**, or slips, in gardening, the branches or sprigs of trees or plants, cut or slipped off to set again; which is done in any moist fine earth. The best season is from August to April; but care is to be taken, when it is done, that the sap be not too much in the top, lest the cut die before that part in the earth have root enough to support it: nor must it be too dry or scanty; the sap in the branches assisting it to take root. In providing the cuttings, such branches as have joints, knots, or burrs, are to be cut off two or three inches beneath them, and the leaves to be stripped off so far as they are set in the earth. Small top branches, of two or three years' growth, are fittest for this operation.

**CUTCH**, an extensive province of the south-western part of Hindostan, situated principally between the twenty-third and twenty-fourth degrees of north latitude. It is bounded to the north by a sandy desert and the province of Sindy; to the south by the gulf of Cutch; to the east by Gujrat, and to the west by Tatta, from which it is separated by the most eastern branch of the Indus. Its limits northward are not accurately defined, but it may be estimated at 110 miles in length, by seventy the average breadth. The greater part of the province is composed of woods and uncultivated plains; where a number of very fine horses are bred, superior camels, and black cattle. Other parts produce grain and cotton. It is chiefly possessed by various independent chiefs, who are often connected with the pirates of the coast: the inhabitants are principally Mahomedans. The chief towns are Boojee, Luckput, Bundar, and Mandavie.

**CUTCH GUNDAVA**, a district of Baloochistan, in Persia, situated at the bottom of the mountains south-east of Kelat, and about 150 miles in length, by forty-five in breadth. The soil is black and rich, growing every species of grain, together with cotton, madder, and indigo. The rains are in June, July, August, and in the spring months, during the summer, the simoom, or pestilential wind, is frequent and very destructive. The climate is otherwise good, and the soil excellent, producing a large revenue to the khan of Kelat. Great quantities of grain are exported to the sea-ports of Corachie and Soomeany. To the northward of Cutch Gundava lies Anund Divil.

**CUTCHWARA**, a district in the province of Malwah, Hindostan, situated about the twenty-fifth degree of north latitude, and mostly tributary to the Malwah Mahrattas. It is intersected

by the Gillysinde river. The chief towns are Dewagur and Soonel.

**CUTH**, signifies knowledge or skill. So Cuthwin is a knowing conqueror; Cuthred, a knowing counsellor; Cuthbert, famous for skill. Much of the same nature are Sophocles and Sophianus.

**CUTH**, or **CUTHAH**, a province of Assyria, on the Araxes, the same with Cush; but others take it to be the country which the Greeks called Susiana, and which to this day, says Dr. Wells, is by the inhabitants called Chusistan. Calmet is of opinion that Cuthah and Scythia are the same place, and that the Cuthites who were removed into Samaria by Salmaneser (2 Kings xvii. 24), came from Cush or Cuth, mentioned in Gen. ii. 13. They worshipped the idol Nergal, id. ibid. 30. He adds that they came from Cush, or Cutha upon the Araxes; and that their first settlement was in the cities of the Medes, subdued by Salmaneser and the kings of Syria, his predecessors. The Scriptures inform us, that the Cuthites, upon their arrival in this new country, continued to worship the gods formerly adored by them beyond the Euphrates. Esarhaddon, king of Assyria, who succeeded Sennacherib, appointed an Israelitish priest to go thither, and instruct them in the religion of the Hebrews. But these people thought they might reconcile their old superstition with the worship of the true God. They therefore framed particular gods for themselves, which they placed in the several cities where they dwelt. But afterwards they gave up idolatry, and adhered solely to the law of Moses. The Samaritans were their descendants.

**CUTICLE**, *n. s.* } Lat. *cuticula*. The out-  
**CUTICULAR**, *adj.* } ward skin of the body; a  
**CUTA'NEOUS**, *adj.* } thin skin formed on the  
surface of any liquor. Belonging or relating to the skin.

This serous, nutritious mass is more readily circulated into the *cutaneous* or remotest parts of the body.  
*Floyer on Humours.*

When any saline liquor is evaporated to *cuticle* and let cool, the salt concretes in regular figures, which argues that the particles of the salt, before they concreted, floated in the liquor at equal distances in rank and file.  
*Newton's Opticks.*

Some sorts of *cutaneous* eruptions are occasioned by feeding much on acid unripe fruits and farinaceous substances.  
*Arbuthnot.*

In each of the very fingers there are bones and gristles, and ligaments and membranes, and muscles, and tendons, and nerves and arteries, and veins and skin, and *cuticle* and nail.  
*Bentley's Sermons.*

Where the spontaneous adhesive electric atmospheres are employed to charge plates of air, as in the Galvanic pile, or probably to charge their animal membranes or *cuticles*, as perhaps in the shock given by the torpedo or gymnotus, it seems necessary that the intervening non-conducting plate must be extremely thin.  
*Darwin.*

Those parts of our system which are in health excited into perpetual action, give us pain when they are not excited into action: thus, when the hands are



for a time immersed in snow, an inaction of the cutaneous capillaries is induced, as is seen from the paleness of the skin, which is attended with the pain of coldness. *Id.*

CUTICLE. See ANATOMY.

CUTLASS, *n. s.* Fr. *coutelas*. This word is written sometimes cutlase, sometimes cutleax; in Shakspeare, curtleax; and in Pope, cutlash. A broad cutting sword: the word is much in use among the seamen.

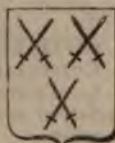
Were 't not better  
That I did suit me all points like a man?  
A gallant curtleax upon my thigh,  
A boar spear in my hand?

*Shakspeare. As You Like It.*

Mores, in his curious dissertation on letter founders, calls a *cutlass*, as it seems, a *courtclasse*, among the antique typographic ornaments. *Warton.*

CUTLER (Sir John), bart. and citizen of London, was a great benefactor to the grocers' company, and contributed largely to the rebuilding of the college of physicians in Warwick-lane. After his death, however, in 1699, his executors claimed the sum which he had advanced, with interest, amounting in all to £7000. They finally compromised the claim for £2000. Pope commemorates this circumstance in some well-known verses; describing our baronet as a perfect miser. It appears, however, that he liberally subscribed to many charities, and built at his own charge the north gallery of his parish-church, St. Margaret's, Westminster. He had two daughters, who were respectively married to John, earl of Radnor, and Sir William Portman, bart. His funeral it is said cost the sum of £7666.

CUTLERS, COMPANY OF. This company was incorporated in 1413 by Henry V.; their arms are *gules*, six daggers in three crosses saltire *argent*, banded and hilted *or*; the crest an elephant with a castle.



CUTLERY, in connection with the mechanical arts, will embrace all kinds of edged and sharp tools, of iron or steel, and the modes of their manufacture.

It might be expected, that in no department of the arts of a country, would the progress of civilisation be more distinctly marked, than in the degree of excellence attained in this manufacture. A knife will purchase half the lands of a village from a barbarous tribe; and Great Britain has well sustained her superiority among civilised nations in the general quality of her cutlery goods.

But in other, and far less civilised countries, a superior steel has been manufactured for ages. It is a little remarkable, that none of our modern discoveries in chemistry have enabled us to imitate, successfully, the sword and sabre blades of Damascus; and that, within a very few years, in 1795, we believe, a new kind of foreign steel, the wootz of India, has been introduced into this country, and been found superior to any thing manufactured here for the blades of pen-knives.

The Damascene blades are supposed, by European cutlers, to be constructed of fine iron and steel-wire welded together in alternate layers;

the wave or water being given to them by sulphate of alumina applied to the final surface. Other accounts state them to be hardened by repeated immersions, when red-hot, in goat's blood. But the real process has never been accurately known in this country; and it is not improbable, that the iron ore of Syria may possess some peculiarity which is the foundation of this excellence in its manufactured steel.

Such a conjecture has been offered by Mr. Stodart, with regard to the ores out of which the wootz of India is formed. For the introduction of it into this country, we are indebted to the late distinguished naturalist, Sir Joseph Banks, who first procured a pen-knife to be made from a cake of it, in the year above-mentioned. The forging was attended with some difficulty, owing to the unequal fusion of the metal, some parts being overcharged with the steely principle, and others being as much deficient in it. But the pen-knife made was excellent. The Indian method of making wootz has been described as follows: forged iron, in pieces, is enclosed in a crucible, and heated in a furnace with wood. Two or three pairs of bellows are employed to augment the heat, until the wood is completely charred, and the iron fused and converted into steel. The chief peculiarity of the process seems to be the use of uncharred wood. A variety of cutting instruments have been manufactured from this steel with great success.

Those articles of cutlery which do not require a fine polish, and are of low price, are made from what is called blistered steel, or that which has not undergone fusion. See our article STEEL. Those which require the edge to possess considerable tenacity, but in which superior hardness is not required, are made from sheer steel. The finer kinds of cutlery are made from steel which has been in a state of fusion, and which is termed cast-steel, no other kinds being susceptible of a fine polish. Table-knives are mostly made of sheer-steel, the tang and shoulder being of iron, and the blade being attached, by giving them a welding heat. The knives, after forging, are hardened, by heating them red-hot, and plunging them into water; they are afterwards heated over the fire, till they become blue, and then ground. Forks are made, almost altogether, by the aid of the stamp and appropriate dies. The prongs only are hardened and tempered. Razors are made of cast-steel, the edge of a razor requiring the combined advantages of great hardness and tenacity. After the razor-blade is forged into its proper shape, by the aid of a convex-faced hammer and anvil, it is hardened, by gradually heating it to a bright red heat, and plunging it into cold water. It is tempered by heating it afterwards until a brightened part appears of a straw color. This would be more equally effected by the use of sand, or, what is still better, by hot oil, or a fusible mixture, consisting of eight parts of bismuth, five of lead, and three of tin; a thermometer being placed in the liquid at the time the razors are immersed, for the purpose of indicating the proper temperature, which is about 500° of Fahrenheit. After the razor has been ground into its proper shape, it is finished by polishing.



The glazer, used in polishing, is formed of wood, faced with an alloy of lead and tin; after its face is turned to the proper form and size, it is filled with notches, which are filled up with emery and tallow. This instrument gives the razor a smooth and uniform surface and a fine edge. The polisher consists of a piece of circular wood, running upon an axis, like that of the stone or the glazer. It is coated with leather, having its surface covered with crocus martis. The handles of razors and knives are made of ivory and tortoise-shell, bone, or other materials, directed by fashion, or the use for which they are designed. The horn of razor-handles is commonly cut into pieces, and placed between two dies, having a recess of the shape of the handle. By this process it admits of considerable extension, and is dyed black by means of logwood and green vitriol. The clear horn-handles are sometimes stained, so as to imitate tortoise-shell, by being coated with a composition of three parts of potash, one of minium, ten of quick-lime, and as much water as will reduce the whole into a pulpy mass. Those parts of the handle requiring darker shades are more thickly covered, and the stains are dried in before the fire.

The manufacture of pen-knives is divided into three departments; the first is the forging of the blades, the spring, and the iron scales; the second, the grinding and polishing of the blades; and the third, the handling, which consists in fitting up all the parts, and finishing the knife. The blades are made of the best cast-steel, and hardened and tempered to about the same degree with that of razors. In grinding they are made a little more concave on one side than the other, in other respects they are treated in a similar way to razors. The handles are covered with horn, ivory, and sometimes wood; but the most durable are those of stags-horn. The general fault in pen-knives is that of being too soft. The temper ought to be not higher than a straw color, as it seldom happens that a pen-knife is so hard as to snap on the edge.

The beauty and elegance of polished steel is never displayed to more advantage than in the manufacture of the finer kinds of scissors. The steel employed for this purpose should be of the choicest description; it must possess hardness and uniformity of texture for the sake of securing a fine polish, and great tenacity, when hot, for the purpose of forming the bow or ring of the scissor, which requires to be extended from a solid piece, having a hole previously punched through it. It ought also to be very tenacious when cold, to allow that delicacy of form observed in ladies' scissors. After they are forged as near to the same size as the eye of the workman can ascertain, they are paired. The bows and some other parts are filed to their intended form: the blades are also roughly ground, and the two sides properly adjusted to each other, after being bound together with wire, and hardened up to the bows. They are afterwards heated till they become of a purple color, which indicates their proper temper. Almost all the remaining part of the work is performed at the grinding mill, with the stone, the lap, the po-

lisher, and the brush; the last being used to polish those parts which have been filed, and which the lap and the polisher cannot touch. Previous to screwing the scissors finally together, they are rubbed over with the powder of quick-lime, and afterwards cleaned with soft sheep leather. The quick-lime absorbs the moisture from the surface. Scissors are ornamented by bluing and gilding; also with studs of gold or polished steel. Very large scissors are manufactured partly of iron and partly of steel; the shanks and bows being of the former. These, as well as those all of steel, which are not hardened all over, cannot be polished: an inferior sort of lustre, however, is given to them by means of a burnish of hardened polished steel, which is very easily distinguished from the real polish, by the irregularity of the surface. Having entered into these particulars, relating to the manufacture of the usual articles found in cutlers' shops, we shall now enter upon some of the more general principles that are applicable to the finer articles of cutlery.

Cutlers do not use any coating to their work at the hardening heat, as the file-cutters do; indeed, it seems evidently unnecessary when the article is intended to be tempered and ground. The best rule is to harden as little as possible above the state intended to be produced by tempering. Work which has been overheated has a crumbly edge, and will not afford the wire hereafter to be described. The proper heat is a cherry-red, visible by day-light. No advantage is obtained from the use of salt in the water, or cooling that fluid, or from using mercury instead of water; but it may be remarked, that questions respecting the fluid are, properly speaking, applicable only to files, gravers, and such tools as are intended to be left at the extreme of hardness.

While Mr. Stodart does not seem to attach much value to peculiarities in the process of hardening, he mentions it as the observation of one of his best workmen, that the charcoal fire should be made up with shavings of leather: and that he never had a razor crack in the hardening since he had used this method. It appears from a consideration of other facts, that this process is likely to prove advantageous. When brittle substances crack in cooling, it arises from the outside contracting and becoming too small to contain the interior parts. But it is known, that hard steel occupies more space than soft, and it may be easily inferred, that the nearer the steel approaches to the state of iron, the less will be this increase of dimensions. If, then, we suppose a razor, or any other piece of steel, to be heated in an open fire with a current of air passing through it, the external part will, by the loss of carbon, become less steely than before; and when the whole piece comes to be hardened, the inside will be too large for the external part, which will probably crack. But if the piece of steel be wrapped up in the cementing mixture, or if the fire itself contain animal coal, and is put together so as to operate in the manner of that mixture, the external surface, instead of being degraded by this heat, will be more carbonated than the internal part, in consequence of which



it will be so far from splitting or bursting during its cooling, that it will be acted upon in a contrary direction, tending to render it more dense and solid.

One of the greatest difficulties in hardening steel-works of any considerable extent, more especially such articles as are formed of thin plates, or have a variety of parts of different sizes, consists in the apparent impracticability of heating the thicker parts before the slighter are burned away; besides which, even for a piece of uniform figure, it is no easy matter to make up a fire which shall give a speedy heat, and be nearly of the same intensity throughout. 'This difficulty,' says Mr. Nicholson, 'formed a very considerable impediment to my success in a course of delicate steel-work, in which I was engaged about seven years ago; but, after various unsuccessful experiments, I succeeded in removing it by the use of a bath of melted lead, which, for very justifiable reasons, has been kept a secret till now. Pure lead, that is to say, lead containing little or no tin, is ignited to a moderate redness, and then well stirred: into this the piece is plunged for a few seconds; that is to say, until when brought near the surface, that part does not appear less luminous than the rest. The piece is then speedily stirred about in the bath, suddenly drawn out, and plunged into a large mass of water. In this manner, a plate of steel may be hardened so as to be perfectly brittle, and yet continue so sound as to ring like a bell; an effect which I never could produce in any other way. Mr. Stodart has lately made trial of this method, and considers it to be a great acquisition to the art, as, in fact, I found it.'

The letting down, or tempering of hard steel, is considered as absolutely necessary for the production of a fine and durable edge. It has been usual to do this by heating the hardened steel till its bright surface exhibits some known color by oxidation. The first is a very faint straw color, becoming deeper and deeper, by increase of heat, to a fine deep golden-yellow, which changes irregularly to a purple, then to an uniform blue, succeeded by white and several successive faint repetitions of these series. It is well known, that the hardest state of tempered instruments, such as razors and surgeons' instruments, is indicated by this straw color; that a deeper color is required for leather-cutters' knives, and other tools, that require the edge to be turned on one side; that the blue, which indicates a good temper for springs, is almost too soft for any cutting instrument, except saws, and such tools as are sharpened with a file, and that the lower states of hardness are not at all adapted to this use. But it is of considerable importance, that the letting down, or tempering, as well as the hardening, should be effected by heat equally applied, and that the temperatures, especially at the lower heats, where greater hardness is to be left, should be more precisely ascertained than can be done by the different shades of oxidation. Mr. Hartley first practised the method of immersing hard steel in heated oil, or the fusible compound of lead five parts, tin three, and bismuth eight. The temperature

of either of these fluids may be ascertained in the usual manner, when it does not exceed the point at which mercury boils; and, by this contrivance, the same advantages are obtained in lowering the temperature of a whole instrument, or any number of them at once, as have already been stated in favor of my method of hardening. Oil is preferable to the fusible mixture for several reasons. It is cheaper; it admits of the work being seen during the immersion, by reason of its transparency; and there is no occasion for any contrivance to prevent the work from floating.

Mr. Nicholson requested Mr. Stodart to favor him with an account of the temperatures at which the several colors make their appearance upon hardened steel; in compliance with which he made a series of experiments upon surgeons' needles, hardened, highly polished, and exposed to a gradual heat, while floating at the surface of the fusible mixture. The appearances are as follow: No. 1, taken out at 430° of Fahrenheit. This temperature leaves the steel in the most excellent state for razors and scalpels. The tarnish, or faint yellowish tinge, it produces, is too evanescent to be observed, without comparison with another piece of polished steel. Instruments, in this state, retain their edge much longer than those upon which the actual straw color has been brought, as is the common practice. Mr. S. informs me, says Mr. Nicholson, that 430° is the lowest temperature for letting down, and that the lower degrees will not afford a firm edge. No. 2, at 440°, and 3, at 450°. These needles differ so little in their appearance from No. 1, that it is not easy to arrange them with certainty when misplaced. No. 4 has the evident tinge, which workmen call pale straw color. It was taken out at 460°, and has the usual temper of penknives, razors, and other fine edge-tools. It is much softer than No. 1, as Mr. Stodart assures me, and this difference exhibits a valuable proof of the advantages of this method of tempering. Nos. 2, 6, 7, and 8, exhibit successive deeper shades of color, having been respectively taken out at the temperatures 470°, 480°, 490°, and 500°. The last is of a bright brownish metallic yellow, very slightly inclining to purple. No. 9 obtained an uniform deep blue at the temperature of 580°. The intermediate shades produced on steel, by heats between 500° and 580°, are yellow, brown, red, and purple, which are exhibited irregularly on different parts of the surface. As I had before seen this irregularity, particularly on the surface of a razor of wootz, and had found, in my own experience, that the colors on different kinds of steel do not correspond with like degrees of temper, and probably of temperature in their production, I was desirous that some experiments might be made upon it by the same skilful artist. Four beautifully polished blades were, therefore, exposed to heat on the fusible metal. The first was taken up when it had acquired the fine yellow, or uniform deep straw color. The second remained on the mixture, till the part nearest the stem had become purplish; at which period, a number of small round spots, of a purplish color, appeared in the clear yellow of the blade. The third was left till the thicker parts of the blade were of a deep



reddy purple; but the concave face still continued yellow. This also acquired spots like the other, and a slight cloudiness. These three blades were of cast-steel; the fourth, which was made out of a piece called Styrian steel, was left upon the mixture till the red tinge had pervaded almost the whole of its concave face. Two or three spots appeared upon this blade; but the greater part of its surface was variegated with blue clouds, disposed in such a manner, as to produce those waving lines which, in Damascus steel, are called 'the water.' Two results are more immediately suggested by these facts: first, that the irregular production of a deep color upon the surface of brightened steel, may serve to indicate the want of uniformity in its composition; and, secondly, that the deep color, being observed to come on first at the thickest parts, Mr. Stodart was disposed to think, that its more speedy appearance was owing to those parts not having been hardened. See STEEL.

An ingenious method of hardening delicate steel-work was some time since communicated to Mr. Stodart by Dr. Wollaston. The steel enclosed in a tube is surrounded by the fusible alloy of eight parts lead, two tin, and five bismuth. The tube, with its contents, is then heated in a furnace to redness, and plunged into a cooling fluid. It is afterwards thrown into boiling water, by which the alloy is fused, and the steel is left perfectly hardened and unaltered by twisting or cracking.

Suppose our cutting instrument to be forged, hardened, and let down or tempered; it remains to be ground, polished, and set. The grinding of fine cutlery is performed upon a grind-stone of a fine close grit, called a Bilston grind-stone, and sold at the tool shops in London at a moderate price. The cutlers use water, and do not seem generally to know any thing of the use of tallow. The face of the work is rendered finer by subsequent grinding upon mahogany cylinders, with emery of different fineness, or upon cylinders faced with hard pewter, called laps, which are preferable to those with a wooden face. The last polish is given upon a cylinder faced with buff leather, to which crocus, or the red oxide of iron, is applied with water. This last operation is attended with considerable danger of heating the work, and almost instantly reducing its temper along the thin edge, which at the same time acquires the colors of oxidation.

The setting now remains to be performed, which is a work of much delicacy and skill: so much so, indeed, that Mr. Stodart says, he cannot produce the most exquisite and perfect edge if interrupted by conversation, or even by noises in the street. The tool is first whetted upon a hone with oil, by rubbing it backwards and forwards. In all the processes of grinding or wearing down the edge, but more especially in the setting, the artist appears to prefer that stroke which leads the edge according to the action of cutting, instead of making the back run first along the stone: for if there be any lump or particle of stone or other substance lying upon the face of the grinder, and the back of the tool be first run over it, it will proceed beneath the edge and lift it up, at the same time

producing a notch. But on the other hand, if the edge be made to move foremost and meet such particle, it will slide beneath it, and suffer no injury. Another precaution in whetting is, that the hand should not bear heavy; because it is evident, that the same stone must produce a more uniform edge if the steel be worn away by many, than by few strokes. It is also of essential importance that the hone itself should be of a fine texture, or that its silicious particles should be very minute.

The grind-stone leaves a ragged edge, which it is the first effect of whetting to reduce so thin that it may be bent backwards and forwards. This flexible part is called the wire, and if the whetting were to be continued too long it would break off in pieces without regularity, leaving a finer though still very imperfect edge, and tending to produce accident while lying on the face of the stone. The wire is taken off by raising the face of the knife to an angle of about fifty degrees with the surface of the stone, and giving a light stroke edge foremost, alternately towards each end of the stone. These strokes produce an edge, the faces of which are inclined to each other in an angle of about 100 degrees, and to which the wire is so slightly adherent that it may often be taken away entire, and is easily removed by lightly drawing the edge along the finger nail. The edge thus cleared, is generally very even: but it is too thick, and must again be reduced by whetting. A finer wire is by this means produced, which will require to be again taken off, if, for want of judgment or delicacy of hand, the artist should have carried it too far. But we will suppose the obtuse edge to be very even, and the second wire to be scarcely perceptible. In this case the last edge will be very acute, but neither so even nor so strong as to be durably useful. The finish is given by two or more alternate light strokes with the edge slanting foremost, and the blade of the knife raised, so that its plane forms an angle of about twenty-eight degrees with the face of the stone. This is the angle which by careful observation and measurement Mr. Stodart habitually uses for the finest surgeons' instruments, and which he considers as the best for razors, and other keen cutting tools. The angle of edge is therefore about fifty-six degrees. The excellence and uniformity of a fine edge may be ascertained, by its mode of operation when lightly drawn along the surface of the skin, or leather, or any organised soft substance. Lancets are tried by suffering the point to drop gently through a piece of thin soft leather. If the edge be exquisite, it will not only pass with facility, but there will not be the least noise produced, any more than if it had dropped into water. This kind of edge cannot be produced, but by performing the last two or more strokes on the green hone. The operation of strapping is similar to that of grinding or whetting, and is performed by means of the angular particle of fine crocus, or other material bedded in the face of the strap. It requires less skill than the operation of setting, and is very apt, from the elasticity of the strap, to enlarge the angle of the edge or round it too much. The chief manufactories of cutlery in



England, are at Sheffield and in London. At the former by the local advantages of coal, &c. on the spot, and the greater division of labor, cutlery in general is afforded at much lower prices than in the metropolis, where the finer descriptions of this important manufacture are more attended to, and surgical instruments, in particular, are made with the greatest skill.

**CUTLET**, *n. s.* [Fr. *cotelette*. A steak; strictly, it means a rib.

So mutton *cutlets*, prime of meat.

*Swift.*

**CUTTACK**, a considerable district of Orissa, Hindostan, situated between the twentieth and twenty-second degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by Midnapoor and Mohurbunge; on the south by the Circars; on the east by the Bay of Bengal; and on the west by several small states of the interior. Its length is about 150 miles, and breadth about sixty, containing a population of 1,200,000 souls. Between Gaintee and Bamori the country is richly productive, and is inhabited by weavers, who manufacture muslins in pieces for turbans. From Arickpoor to Cuttack the land is chiefly arable, but interspersed with bushes, and not thoroughly cultivated. The Mahanuddy River, in passing through this country, often changes its name, according to the vicinity of different towns and villages. It is also watered by other considerable streams. The rents are chiefly paid in cowries.

The holy land of Juggernaut extends about fifteen miles on each side of the temple of Juggernaut, to the north and south. Its occupants have from time immemorial been exempt from the taxes which Hindoos pay for access to the temple, except during the ruth and dole jattries, when they also are liable to a small impost.

The chief towns are Cuttack, Juggernaut, Buddruck, and Balasore. This district is mentioned by the Mohammedan historians as early as the year 1212, under the title of Jagapore, or Jehazpore. It was then subject to a Hindoo prince, who resided at Jagapore; it was subdued by and annexed to Bengal in the reign of Solymann Kerang, 1569. Thus it remained till the year 1751, when it was ceded by the nuwah Alyverdy Khan to the Nagpore Mahrattas, who, in 1803, were again compelled to resign it to the victorious arms of the British, and it is now managed by a civil establishment of judge, collector, &c.

**CUTTACK**, the capital of the above district, called also Cuttack Benares, formerly Saringgur, was once fortified, and a highly respectable town; but, during the period it was governed by the Mahrattas, it fell to decay. In the year 1592 it withstood the Mogul arms for nearly a month, and is naturally strong, but the climate is unhealthy. It is at present the residence of the gentlemen of the civil establishment, and has a cantonment for a corps of native infantry.

**CUTTER**, a small vessel, commonly navigated in the channel of England. It is furnished with one mast, and rigged as a sloop. Many of these vessels are used in an illicit trade, and others are employed by government to take them; the latter of which are either under the direction of the admiralty, or custom-house.

**CUTTLE**. Ang.-Sax. *cutele*. A fish, which, when pursued, darkens the water with an inky substance; a foul-mouthed fellow; a knife.

Away, you cutpurse rascal; you filthy bung, away; by this wine, I'll thrust my knife in your mouldy chaps, if you play the saucy cuttle with me.

*Shakspeare. Henry IV.*

It is somewhat strange, that the blood of all birds and beasts, and fishes, should be of a red colour, and only the blood of the cuttle should be as black as ink.

*Bacon.*

He that uses many words for the explaining any subject, doth, like the cuttle fish, hide himself for the most part in his own ink.

*Ray on the Creation.*

**CUTTLE-FISH**. See **SEPIA**.

**CUTTS** (John lord), was son of Richard Cutts, esq. of Matching in Essex; where the family were settled about the time of Henry VI., and had a large estate. He entered early into the service of the duke of Monmouth, was aide-de-camp to the duke of Lorraine in Hungary, and signalised himself in a very extraordinary manner at the taking of Buda by the imperialists in 1686; which important place had been for near a century and a half in the hands of the Turks. Returning to England at the Revolution, he obtained a regiment of foot; was created baron Gowran in Ireland, December 6th, 1690; appointed governor of the Isle of Wight, April 14th, 1693; was made a major-general; and, when the assassination project was discovered, 1695-6, was captain of the king's guard. He was colonel of the Coldstream guards in 1701; when Mr. Steele, who was indebted to his interest for a military commission, inscribed to him his first work, *The Christian Hero*. On the accession of queen Anne, he was made a lieutenant-general of the forces in Holland; commander in chief of the forces in Ireland, under the duke of Ormond, March 23d, 1704-5; and afterwards one of the lords justices of that kingdom. He died at Dublin January 26th, 1706-7, and was buried there in the cathedral of Christ Church. He wrote a poem on the death of queen Mary, and published, in 1687, *Poetical Exercises*, written upon several occasions, and dedicated to her royal highness Mary, princess of Orange. One of his songs is quoted by Steele in his *Tatler*; but his *Muse Cavalier* is erroneously ascribed by Walpole to lord Peterborough.

**CUT-WATER**, the sharp part of the head of a ship below the beak, so called because it cuts or divides the water before it comes to the bow, that it may not come too suddenly to the breadth of the ship, which would retard it.

**CUT-WORK**, *n. s.* Embroidered work.

**CUVIER** (George Leopold Christian Frederic Dagobert), baron and peer; born Aug. 25, 1769, at Montbéliard, in the duchy of Wurtemberg. His brilliant talents early excited great expectations. His father was an officer. As the son's health did not allow him to become a soldier, he resolved to be a clergyman, and was obliged to pass an examination for the stipend, by the help of which he expected to study at Tubingen. A malicious examiner rejected him. The affair, however, was marked by so much injustice, that prince Frederic, brother of the duke, and governor of the district, thought it his duty to



compensate Cuvier by a place in the Charles Academy at Stuttgart, where he gave up his intention of becoming a clergyman. In Stuttgart he studied law, although fond of natural history, and to this period of his life he is indebted for his accurate knowledge of the German language and literature. The narrow circumstances of his parents compelled him to accept the office of tutor in the family of count D'Hericy, in Normandy, where he devoted his leisure to natural science. Cuvier soon perceived that zoology was far from that perfection to which Linnæus had carried botany, and to which mineralogy had been carried by the united labors of the philosophers of Germany and France. The first desideratum was a careful observation of all the organs of animals, in order to ascertain their mutual dependence, and their influence on animal life; then a confutation of the fanciful systems which had obscured rather than illustrated the study. Examinations of the marine productions, with which the neighbouring ocean abundantly supplied him, served him as a suitable preparation. A natural classification of the numerous classes of *vermes* (Linn.) was his first labour, and the clearness with which he gave an account of his observations and ingenious views, procured him an acquaintance with all the naturalists of Paris. Geoffroy St. Hilaire invited him to Paris, opened to him the collections of natural history, over which he presided, took part with him in the publication of several works on the classification of the *mammalia*, and placed him at the central school in Paris, May, 1795. The institute, being re-established the same year, received him as a member of the first class. For the use of the central school, he wrote his *Tableau Élémentaire de l'Histoire Naturelle des Animaux* (1798), by which he laid the foundation of his future fame. From this time he was considered one of the first zoologists of Europe. He soon after displayed his brilliant talents as professor of comparative anatomy. His profound knowledge was not less remarkable than his elevated views, and the elegance with which he illustrated them before a mixed audience. In the lecture-room of the Lycée, where he lectured several years on natural history, was assembled all the accomplished society of Paris, attracted by the ingenuity of his classifications, and by his extensive surveys of all the kingdoms of nature. In January, 1800, he justly received the place formerly occupied by D'Aubenton, in the Collège de France. Nor did his merits escape the sagacity of Napoleon. In the department of public instruction, in which, one after another, he filled the most important offices, he exercised much influence by his useful improvements and indefatigable activity. He delivered a report very honorable to Germany, in 1811, when he returned from a journey in Holland and Germany, as superintendent of instruction. He was accompanied in his journey by Noël. In 1813 the emperor appointed him *Maître des Requêtes* to the council of state, and committed to his care the most important affairs in Mentz. Louis XVIII. confirmed him in his former offices, and raised him to the rank of counsellor. As such, he belonged at first to the committee of legisla-

tion, and afterwards to that of the interior. As a politician, he drew upon himself the reproaches of the liberals. In general, the political course of Cuvier forms a contrast to his scientific one, and is, besides, of little importance. The measures of the abbé Frayssinous, then chancellor of the university of Paris, determined him to resign the office of university-counsellor, in December, 1822. The principal of his works are, *Recherches sur les Ossements Fossiles*, 5 vols., 4to., with plates (the classical introduction to this work is printed separately); *Discours sur les Révolutions de la Surface du Globe, et sur les Changemens qu'elles ont produit dans le Règne animal* (Paris, 1825); also, *Le Règne animal* (1817, 4 vols.); *Leçons d'Anatomie Comparée, recueillies par Duméril et Duvernoy* (1805, 5 vols.); *Recherches anatomiques sur les Reptiles regardés encore comme douteux* (1807, 4to.); *Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire de l'Anatomie des Mollusques* (1816, 4to.). As perpetual secretary, &c., of the academy, in the class of physical sciences, he pronounced éloges on the deceased members of the institute. The *Recueil d'Eloges Historiques* (Paris, 1819, 2 vols.), contains models worthy of imitation. The French academy received him, in consequence, among their forty members, and almost all the learned societies of the world sent him honorary diplomas. France is indebted to him for the establishment of a cabinet of comparative anatomy, which is the finest osteological collection in Europe. Cuvier may be said to have created the science of natural history, having, by his extraordinary and almost instinctive perception of the organic analogies, as traced in the fossil remains which had previously been considered as the mere ornaments of a cabinet of curiosities, thrown a light on the universal system of creation, of which those formed in previous schools could not have even the remotest idea. In the political changes which France underwent, the estimation in which he was held continued unaffected. King Louis Philippe conferred upon him the rank of peer, his title of baron being merely nominal. Cuvier expired on the 13th of May, 1832, in the 63rd year of his age, leaving no property but his library and cabinet of natural history, both which were purchased by the French government for 72,000 francs. The French king, also, as a testimony of his regard for the learning and abilities of the deceased naturalist, conferred a pension of 6000 francs on his widow, with the enjoyment of the apartments in the Jardin des Plants, occupied by her late husband.

CUXHAVEN, a sea-port of Germany, in the duchy of Bremen, situated on the left bank of the Elbe, at its embouchure. The harbour, being very large and commodious, is much frequented, and vessels generally take in pilots here, in order to ascend the river to Hamburg. A yacht is stationed out at sea, near the outermost buoy, with pilots ready to conduct any vessel that may demand them. The town and bailiwick belong to the corporation of Hamburg, who have held them ever since the fourteenth century. During the late revolutionary wars Cuxhaven became a place of great importance as an entrepôt of



British goods. On the fall of Hamburg in 1806, it came into the possession of the French, and remained under their domination above seven years. When, at the close of the war, the French defended Hamburg, Cuxhaven was the scene of some severe fighting. It is sixty miles north-west of Hamburg, and the light-house is in long.  $8^{\circ} 43' 1''$  E., lat.  $53^{\circ} 52' 21''$  N.

CUYO, or Cuzo, an extensive province of Peru, and a portion of the former vice-royalty of Buenos Ayres, is bounded on the north by Tucuman, on the east by the Pampas deserts, on the south by deserts, and on the west by the Andes.

CYANOMETER, a contrivance, invented by Saussure, to ascertain a comparable specimen of the shade of blue of the sky at different times and in different places.

CYATHUS, *κυθος*, from *χυω*, to pour out, was a common measure among the Greeks and Romans, both of the liquid and dry kind. It was equal to an ounce, or the twelfth part of a pint, and was made with a handle like our punch-ladle. The Romans frequently drank as many cyathi as there were muses, i. e. nine; or as many as there were letters in their patron's name. The cyathus of the Greeks is said by Galen and others to have weighed ten drachms; elsewhere he says, that a cyathus contains twelve drachms of oil, thirteen drachms and one scruple of wine, water, or vinegar, and eighteen drachms of honey. Among the Veterinarii, the cyathus contained two ounces.

CYAXARES I., son of Phraortes, king of Media and Persia. He bravely defended his kingdom against the Scythians; made war against Alyattes, king of Lydia; and subjected to his power all Asia, beyond the river Halys. He died after a reign of forty years, in the year of Rome 160.

CYAXARES II. is supposed by Dr. Prideaux and others to be the same as Darius the Mede, the son of Astyages, king of Media. He added seven provinces to his father's dominions, and made war against the Assyrians, whom Cyrus favored.

CYBELE, in Pagan mythology, the daughter of Cœlus and Terra, wife of Saturn, and mother of Jupiter, Neptune, Pluto, &c. She is also colled Rhea, Ops, Vesta, Bona Mater, Magna Mater, Berecynthia, Dindymene, &c., and by some is reckoned the same with Ceres: but most mythologists make these two distinct goddesses. According to Diodorus, she was the daughter of a Lydian prince, and, as soon as she was born, she was exposed on a mountain. She was preserved by sucking some of the wild beasts of the forest, and received the name of Cybele from the mountain where her life had been preserved. When she returned to her father's court, she had an intrigue with Atys, a beautiful youth, whom her father mutilated, &c. Most of the mythologists mention the amours of Atys and Cybele. In Phrygia the festivals of Cybele were observed with the greatest solemnity. Her priests, called Corybantes, Curetes, Galli, &c., it is said were not admitted to the service of the goddess without a previous mutilation. In the celebration of the festivals, they imitated the manners of madmen, and filled the air with shrieks and howlings,

mixed with the confused noise of drums, tabrets, bucklers, and spears. This was in commemoration of the sorrow of Cybele for the loss of her favorite Atys. The goddess was generally represented as a robust woman, far advanced in pregnancy, to imitate the fecundity of the earth. She held keys in her hand, and her head was crowned with rising turrets, or with leaves of oak. She sometimes appears riding in a chariot, drawn by two tame lions: Atys follows by her side, carrying a ball in his hand, and supporting himself upon a fir-tree, which is sacred to the goddess. She is also represented with a sceptre in her hand, and with many breasts, to show that the earth gives aliments to all living creatures; and she generally carries two lions under her arms. From Phrygia the worship of Cybele passed into Greece, and was solemnly established at Eleusis under the name of the Eleusinian mysteries of Ceres. The Romans, by order of the Sibylline books, brought the statue of the goddess from Pessinus into Italy; and when the ship which carried it had run on a shallow bank of the Tiber, the virtue of Claudia was said to have been vindicated, by removing it with her girdle. It is supposed that the mysteries of Cybele were first known about 257 years before the Trojan war, or 1580 years before the Augustan age. The Romans were particularly superstitious in washing, every year on the 6th of the kalends of April, the shrine of this goddess in the waters of the river Almon. Many obscenities prevailed in the observation of the festivals; and the priests themselves were the most eager to use indecent expressions, and to show their unbounded licentiousness.

CYBELICUM MARMOR, a name given by the ancients to a species of marble dug in the mountain Cybele. It was of an extremely bright white, with broad veins of bluish-black.

CYCAS, in botany, a genus of plants of the monœcia class, and polygamia order. The fruit is a dry plum, with a bivalved kernel. There is but one species described by Linnæus, viz. the circinalis; but professor Thunberg mentions another, viz. 1. *C. caffra*, broad broom, or broad tree of the Hottentots. This plant, discovered by professor Thunberg, is described in the *Nova Acta Reg. Soc. Scient. Ups.* vol. ii. p. 283, tab. V. The pith, or medulla, which abounds in the trunk of this little palm, Mr. Sparman informs us, is collected and tied up in dressed calf or sheep skins, and then buried in the earth for the space of several weeks, till it becomes sufficiently mellow and tender to be kneaded up with water into a paste, of which they afterwards make small loaves or cakes, and bake them under the ashes. 2. *C. circinalis*, or sago-tree, which grows spontaneously in the East Indies, and particularly on the coast of Malabar. It runs up with a straight trunk to upwards of forty feet in height, having many circles the whole length, occasioned by the old leaves falling off; for standing in a circular order round the stem, and embracing it with their base, whenever they drop, they leave the marks of their adhesion. The leaves are pinnated, and grow to the length of seven or eight feet. The pinnæ or lobes are long, narrow entire, of a shining green, all the way of a



breadth, lance-shaped at the point, closely crowded together, and stand at right angles on each side the mid-rib, like the teeth of a comb. The flowers are produced in long bunches at the foot-stalks of the leaves, and are succeeded by oval fruit, about the size of large plums, of a red color when ripe, and a sweet flavor. Each contains a hard brown nut, enclosing a white meat which tastes like a chestnut. This is a valuable tree to the inhabitants of India, as it not only furnishes a considerable part of their constant bread, but also supplies them with a large article of trade. See SAGO.

**CYCEON**, from *κυκεων*, to mix, a name given by the ancient poets and physicians to a mixture of meal and water, and sometimes of other ingredients. These constituted the two kinds of cyceon; the coarser being of the water and meal alone; the richer and more delicate composed of wine, honey, flour, water, and cheese. Homer, in the 11th Iliad, speaks of cyceon made with cheese, and the meal of barley mixed with wine, but without any mention either of honey or water; and Ovid, describing the draught of cyceon given by the old woman of Athens to Ceres, mentions only flour and water. Dioscorides understood the word in both these senses; but extolled it most in the coarse and simple kind: he says, when prepared with water alone, it refrigerates and nourishes greatly.

**CYCINNIS**, a Grecian dance, so called from its supposed inventor, one of the satyrs belonging to Bacchus. It consisted of a combination of grave and gay movements.

**CYCLADES**, in ancient geography, islands so called, as Pliny informs us, from the Cyclus or orb in which they lie; beginning from the promontory Geraestum of Eubœa, and lying round the island Delos. Their situation and number is not so generally agreed upon. Strabo says, they were first reckoned twelve, but that many others were added: yet most of them lie to the south of Delos, and but few to the north, so that the middle or centre, ascribed to Delos, is to be taken in a loose, not in a geometrical sense. Strabo recites them, after Artemidorus, as follows: Helena, Ceos, Cynthus, Seriphus, Melos, Siphnus, Cimolus, Prepesinthus, Olearus, Naxos, Paros, Syrus, Myconos, Tenos, Andros, Gyarus; but he excludes from the number, Prepesinthus, Olearus, and Gyarus.

**CYCLADES, GREAT.** See HEBRIDES, NEW.

**CYCLAMEN**, sowbread, a genus of the monocotyledon order, and pentandria class of plants: natural order twenty-first, *precix*. cor. verticillated, with the tube very short, and the throat prominent: the berry is covered with the capsule. There are but two species, which, however, produce many beautiful varieties. They are low, herbaceous, flowery perennials, of the tuberous rooted kind, with numerous, angular, heart-shaped, spotted, marbled leaves; and many fleshy foot-stalks six inches high, carrying monopetalous, five-parted, reflexed flowers, of various colors.

**CYCLE**, *n. s.*

**CYCLOMETRY**, *n. s.* } Lat. *cycclus*; *κυκλος*. } A circle; a round of time; a space in which the same revolutions begin again; a method, or account of a method till the same course begins again; imaginary

orbs; a circle in the heavens. Cyclometry is the art of measuring cycles.

How build, unbuild, contrive

To save appearances; how gird the sphere

With centrick, and excentrick, scribbled o'er

Cycle and epicycle, orb in orb! Milton.

We do more commonly use these words, so as to style a lesser space a *cycle*, and a greater by the name of period; and you may not improperly call the beginning of a large period the epocha thereof.

Holder on Time.

We thought we should not attempt an unacceptable work, if here we endeavoured to present our gardeners with a complete *cycle* of what is requisite to be done throughout every month of the year.

Ecclyn's Kalendar.

Chained to one centre whirled the kindred spheres,  
And marked with lunar cycles solar years. Darwin.

I must tell you that Sir H. Savile had confuted Joseph Scaliger's *cyclometry*. Wallis.

**CYCLE OF EASTER.** See CHRONOLOGY.

**CYCLE OF THE MOON.** See CHRONOLOGY. It is called also the golden number, and the Metonic cycle, from its inventor Meton the Athenian. At the time of the council of Nice, when the method of finding the time for observing the feast of Easter was established, the numbers of the lunar cycle were inserted in the kalendar, which, upon the account of their use, were set in golden letters, and the year of the cycle called the golden number of that year.

**CYCLE OF THE SUN.** See CHRONOLOGY.

**CYCLISUS**, in surgery, an instrument in the form of a half moon, used in scraping the scull, in cases of fractures of that part.

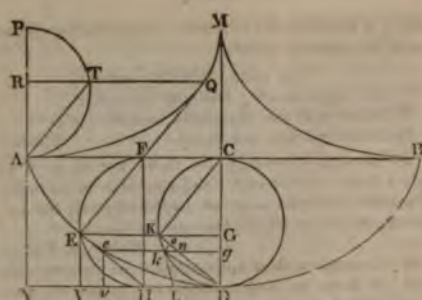
**CYCLOID**, *n. s.* } *Κυκλοειδης*. A geome-

**CYCLOIDAL**, *adj.* } trical curve, of which the genesis may be conceived by imagining a nail in the circumference of a wheel: the line which the nail describes in the air, while the wheel revolves in a right line, is the cycloid. Relating to a cycloid; as the cycloidal space is the space contained between the cycloid and its substance.

A man may frame to himself the notion of a parabola, or a *cycloid*, from the mathematical definition of those figures. Reid.

**CYCLOID**, or **TROCHOID**, a mechanical or transcendental curve, which is thus generated:—Suppose a circle FEH to roll along the straight line AB, so that all the parts of its circumference be applied to the straight line in succession; the point E, that was in contact with AB at A, will, by a motion thus compounded of a circular and rectilinear motion, describe a certain curve line A, to EDB, which is called a cycloid. The straight line AB is called the base, and the line CD perpendicular to AB, bisecting it at C, and meeting the curve in D, is called the axis of the cycloid. The circle by whose revolution the curve is described is called the generating circle. The following are some of the most remarkable properties of this curve.—1. The base AB is equal to the circumference of the generating circle. 2. The axis CD is equal to the diameter of the generating circle. These two properties are obvious from the definition of the curve. 3. Let the generating circle CKD be described on the axis CD as a diameter, and let GKE be perpendicular to the axis, meeting the circle in K,





and the cycloid in E. The straight line EG is equal to the sum of the circular arc DK, and its sine KG. Let the generating circle FEH pass through E and touch the base AB at F; join EF and KC, and draw the diameter FH. The chords FE and CK are evidently equal and parallel, therefore  $FC = EK$ ; now  $AC = \text{semi-circumference } FEH$ , and  $AF = \text{arc } FE$  which has quitted it, therefore  $FC = \text{arc } EH$ , or  $EK = \text{arc } DK$ , and  $EG = \text{arc } DK + \text{sine } KG$ . 4. If EH be drawn touching the cycloid at E, it is parallel to KD the chord of the generating circle. Draw  $ekg$  parallel and indefinitely near to EKG, meeting the chord KD in  $n$ . Draw KL, DL, touching the generating circle. The triangles KLD, Kkn are similar, and  $KL = LD$ , therefore  $Kk = kn$ ; now arc  $DK = EK$ , and arc  $Dk = ek$ , therefore  $Kk$ , or  $kn = EK - ek$ , and, adding  $ek$  to each of these equals,  $EK = en$ , therefore the indefinitely small part of the cycloidal arc Ee, which coincides with the tangent, is parallel to Kn, therefore the tangent EH is parallel to the chord KD. 5. The arc DE of the cycloid is equal to twice the chord DK of the generating circle. Join Dk and draw  $ko$  perpendicular to Kn, then Ko is the indefinitely small increment of the chord kD, and Kk has been proved equal to  $kn$  (4), therefore Kn is bisected in o; but  $Kn = Ee$  (4) therefore Ee the increment of the cycloidal arc De is always double Ko the corresponding increment of the chord Dk, therefore the whole arc DE must be double the chord DK. *Corollary.* The whole cycloid ADB is equal to four times the axis CD, or four times the diameter of the generating circle. 6. If CD is produced to M, so that  $CM = CD$ , and if the half of the cycloid BD be placed in the position AM, and the other half AD in the position MB, then, if a thread MQE = MQA be unfolded from the arc MA, the extremity E of this thread will describe the cycloid ADB. Make AP equal and parallel to CM, and on AP describe the semicircle ATP. Let the thread touch the curve at Q; draw QR perpendicular to AP, cutting the circle in T, and join AT. Then FQ is parallel to AT (4) and therefore equal to it; now EQ is equal to the arc AQ which is double AT (5) or FQ, therefore  $EF = FQ = AT$ , if therefore EKG be drawn perpendicular to CD, CG is equal to AR, and arc  $CK = \text{arc } AT$ , also the chord KC is equal and parallel to the chord AT, which is parallel to EF, therefore  $FC = EK$ ; now AF or TQ = arc AT (3). Therefore FC or EK = arc TP =

arc DK: therefore E is a point in the cycloid ABD. 7. Let DV be drawn parallel to AC, and EV perpendicular to DV, the area contained by the straight lines EV, VD, and ED, the arc of the cycloid, is equal to the area contained by the circular arc DK, and the straight lines DG, GK. Draw  $ev$  parallel to EV, and let  $ge$  meet EV in  $x$ .

by similar triangles (4)  $Ex :: xe :: DG : GK$ , that is  $Gg :: Vv :: EV : GK$ , therefore the rectangle GK Gg = rectangle EV.Vv, that is, the contemporaneous increments of the circular area Dkg and cycloidal area Dve are equal, therefore the circular area DKG is equal to the cycloidal area DVE. *Cor.* The area contained by the base AB and the arc of the cycloid ADB is equal to three times the area of the generating circle. For complete the rectangle DCAY, and the space DEAY is equal to the semicircle DKC, therefore the rectangle DYAC is equal to the cycloidal area DEAC together with the semicircle DKC; but the rectangle DYAC is contained by DC the diameter of the circle and AC which is half its circumference, it is therefore four times the area of the semicircle, therefore three times the area of the semicircle is equal to the cycloidal area DEAC. See farther relating to the cycloid under PENDULUM.

CYCLOPÆDIA, or  $\lambda \kappa \upsilon \lambda \omicron \varsigma$ , a circle, and CYCLOPÆDE,  $\eta. \varsigma.$   $\lambda \pi \alpha \delta \epsilon \iota \alpha$ . A circle of knowledge; a course of the sciences.

The tedious and unedifying commentaries on Peter Lombard's scholastic *cyclopede* of divinity. *Warton.*

CYCLOPÆDIA, or ENCYCLOPÆDIA, a term which, in modern times, has been appropriated, from the Greek, to express those useful and superior Dictionaries of Science and Literature, of which we hope to furnish a favorable specimen. Under the term ENCYCLOPÆDIA, which is the more common, we shall give some account of the principal works of this kind which have appeared in our language.

CYCLOPE'AN, *adj.* } From the Cyclops.  
CYCLO'PICK, *adj.* } Vast; inspiring terror;  
furious; savage.

The *cyclopean* furnace of all wicked fashions, the heart. *Bishop Hall.*

*Cyclopick* monsters, who daily seem to fight against heaven. *Bishop Taylor.*

CYCLOPS, in fabulous history, the sons of Neptune and Amphitrite: the principal of whom were Polyphemus, Brontes, Steropes, and Pyracmon; but their whole number amounted to above 100. Jupiter threw them into Tartarus as soon as they were born; but they were delivered at the intercession of Tellus, and became the assistants of Vulcan. They were of prodigious stature, and had each only one eye, which was placed in the middle of the forehead. Some mythologists say, that the cyclops signify the vapors raised in the air, which occasion thunder and lightning; on which account they are represented as forging the thunderbolts of Jupiter. Others represent them as the first inhabitants of Sicily, who were cruel, of a gigantic form, and dwelt round mount Ætna.



**CLOPTERUS**, the sucker, in ichthyology, as belonging to the order of amphibia.

The head is obtuse, and furnished with eth: there are four rays in the gills, and the fins are connected together in an orbiform. There are ten species. The chief 1. *C. liparis*, or the sea snail, so called for the soft and unctuous texture of its body, resembling that of the land snail. It is almost a rent, and soon dissolves and melts away, found in the sea near the mouths of great rivers, and has been seen full of spawn in January. The length is five inches; the color a pale yellow, sometimes finely streaked with a darker. The throat is a round depression of a color like the impression of a seal, surrounded by twelve small pale yellow tubercles, by which it probably adheres to the stones like the limpet. 2. *C. lumpus*, the lump fish, cock fish, or sea owl, grows to the length of nine inches, and weighs seven pounds. The shape of the body is like that of the bream, deep and thick, and it swims edgeways. The dorsal fin is sharp and elevated: the belly flat, of a crimson color. Along the body there run rows of sharp bony tubercles, and the skin is covered with small ones. The pectoral fins are large and broad, almost uniting at the base. Beneath these is the part by which it rests to the rocks, &c. It consists of an entire, surrounded with a fleshy, muscular, and a soft substance, edged with many branched appendages, which concur as so aspersers. The tail and vent fins are purplish. This fish is sometimes eaten in England, stewed like carp: but is both flabby and

**CYDER**, *n. s.* A fermented drink, made of juice of apples. See CIDER.

Propensity to these diseases is certainly hereditary; perhaps not the diseases themselves; but the quantity of ale, cyder, wine, or spirit, will the gout and dropsy in those constitutions arent have been intemperate in the use of

*Darwin.*

in rural economy, is particularly used for liquor expressed and prepared by fermentation from the juice of apples. It has been in this country from a very early period. In Huntingdon, in describing a quarrel between the two sons of earl Godwin, represents them as departing in a rage to Hereford, (not far from this beverage) where his brother had a royal banquet to be prepared. He seized his brother's attendants, and cut off their heads and limbs, he placed the vessels of wine, mead, ale, pigment, and cyder.' Henry Hunt., vol. vi. p. 367. The art of preparing it has never been improved with much attention, nor improved by it is principally, to this day, in the hands of the growers of the fruit. We shall give the reader with the best practical directions have been given to the public on the subject, viz. by Messrs. Marshall, Crocker, and

serve the different methods of preparing it. This may be divided into three processes:—I. Preparing the fruit. II. Grinding and expressing the juice from it. III. Fermenting and bottling.

I. In preparing the fruit, care must be taken both as to its peculiar quality, and its stage of ripeness, or the season at which it is gathered. Few apples are ready for gathering before Michaelmas; though they are sometimes manufactured before that time. For sale-cyder, and keeping-drink, they are allowed to remain on the trees till fully ripe; and in general the middle of October is considered a proper time for gathering the store apples. The ripeness of the fruit is judged of by its falling from the tree; and Mr. Marshall, as well as Mr. Crocker, thinks that the forcing it away before that time robs it of some of its most valuable properties. 'The harvesting of fruit,' says the former, 'is widely different in this respect from the harvesting of grain, which has the entire plant to feed it after the separation from the soil; while fruit, after it is severed from the tree, is cut off from all possibility of a further supply of nourishment, and, although it may have reached its wonted size, some of its more essential particles are undoubtedly left behind in the tree. Fruits which are late in ripening, however, will sometimes hang on the tree until spoiled by frost, and particularly the weak watery fruits. The general practice of beating them down with poles is much disapproved of by Mr. Marshall, because the fruit must thus be unequally ripe, the apples on the same tree not ripening all at the same time; and thus part of the richness and flavor of the fruit is entirely lost: besides, if the fermentation is interrupted or rendered complex by a mixture of ripe and unripe fruits, and the liquor is not, at first, sufficiently purged from its feculencies, it will be difficult to clear it afterwards. To avoid these inconveniences, arising from the unequal ripening of the fruit, the trees ought to be gone over first with a hook when the fruit begins to fall naturally, and the trees may be afterwards cleared with the poles when it is all sufficiently ripened, or when the winter is likely to set in. Mr. Marshall observes, that the due degree of maturation of fruit for liquor is a subject about which men differ much in their ideas. The prevailing practice of gathering it into heaps until the ripest begin to rot, is wasting the best of the fruit, and is by no means an accurate criterion. Some shake the fruit, and judge by the rattling of the kernels; others cut through the middle, and judge by their blackness: but none of these appear to be a proper test. It is not the state of the kernels, but of the flesh; not of a few individuals, but of the greater part of the prime fruit, which renders the collective body fit or unfit to be sent to the mill. The most rational test of the ripeness of the fruit is, that of the flesh having acquired such a degree of mellow-ness, and its texture such a degree of tenderness, as to yield to moderate pressure; thus, when the knuckle or the end of the thumb can with moderate exertion be forced into the pulp of the fruit, it is deemed in a fit state for grinding.

Mr. Marshall is of opinion that one of the grand secrets of cyder-making is the skilful sepa-



ration of the ripe and unripe fruit, before sending it to the mill; and as by various accidents they may be confounded, the most effectual method of distinguishing them is by the hand. He also seems to think that the practice of mixing fruits for liquor is improper, because the finer liquors are made from select fruits; and observes, that it might be better to mix liquors after they are made, than to put together the crude fruits.

Mr. Crocker recommends making three distinct gatherings of the crop, and keeping each by itself. The prime cyder will then be made from the first, and the latter gathering and wind-falls make a fair common article. According to Mr. Knight, the merit of cyder will always depend much on the proper mixture, or rather on the proper separation of the fruits. Those whose rinds and pulp are tinged with green or red, without any mixture of yellow, as that color will disappear in the first stages of fermentation, should be carefully kept apart from such as are yellow, or yellow intermixed with red. The latter kinds, which should remain on the trees till ripe enough to fall without being much shaken, are, as we have noticed, alone capable of making fine cyder. Each kind should be collected separately, as noticed above, and kept till it becomes perfectly mellow. For this purpose, in the common practice of the country, they are placed in heaps of ten inches or a foot thick, and exposed to the sun and air, and rain; not being overcovered except in very severe frosts. The strength and flavor of the future liquor are, however, he says, increased by keeping the fruit under cover some time before it is ground; but unless a situation can be afforded it, in which it is exposed to a free current of air, and where it can be spread very thin, it is apt to contract an unpleasant smell, which will much affect the cyder produced from it. Few farms are provided with proper buildings for this purpose on a large scale, and the improvement of the liquor will not nearly pay the expense of erecting them. It may reasonably be supposed that much water is absorbed by the fruit in a rainy season; but the quantity of juice yielded by any given quantity of fruit will be found to diminish as it becomes more mellow; even in very wet weather, provided it be ground when thoroughly dry. The advantages, therefore, of covering the fruit, will probably be much less than may at first sight be expected. No criterion appears, the writer says, to be known, by which the most proper point of maturity in the fruit can be ascertained with accuracy; but he has good reason to believe that it improves as long as it continues to acquire a deeper shade of yellow. Each heap should be examined prior to its being ground, and any decayed or green fruit carefully taken away. The expense of this will, he observes, be very small, and will be amply repaid by the excellence of the liquor, and the care with which too great a degree of fermentation may be prevented in the process of making it into cyder. In seasons ordinarily favorable half a hogshead of cyder may be expected from the fruit of each tree of an orchard in full bearing. As the number of trees on the acre varies from ten to forty,

the quantity of cyder must vary in the same proportion, that is, from five to twenty hogsheads. Pear trees, in equally good bearing, yield fully one-third more liquor: therefore, although the liquor extracted from pears sells at a lower price than that produced from apples, yet the value by the acre, when the number of trees is equal, is nearly the same.

II. *Of grinding the fruit, &c.*—The cyder-makers in Herefordshire generally agree in considering it necessary towards the perfection of the cyder, to grind the rinds and seeds of the fruit, as well as the fleshy part, to a pulp; but Mr. Marshall complains, that the mills are often very imperfectly finished, and little indebted to the operation of the square and chisel. As perfectly smooth rollers, however, would not lay hold of the fruit sufficiently to force it through, it might be proper, he suggests, to grind the fruit first in the mill to a certain degree, and afterwards put it between two smoother rollers to finish the operation. A bag, containing four corn bushels, is the usual quantity with which they charge a middle-sized mill; and this should yield an equal quantity when ground. After the fruit is ground, it generally remains some time before pressing, that the rind and seeds may communicate their virtues to the liquor; and for this reason Mr. Marshall reprobates the practice of pressing the pulp of the fruit whenever the grinding is finished. The ordinary cyder mill is exhibited on the right hand of our plate CYDER PRESS, &c., and will be further described at the close of this article.

A difference of opinion exists as to the propriety of pressing the fruit immediately after it is ground. Mr. Knight, an able writer on the apple and pear, contends that it should remain at least twenty-four hours before it is taken to the press. Others recommend two days; but many take it at once from the mill to the press when the grinding is finished. Mr. Crocker thinks both extremes wrong. There is an analogy, he observes between the making of cyder from apples, and wine from grapes; and the method which the wine-maker pursues ought to be followed by the cyder-maker. When the pulp of the grapes has lain some time in the vats, the vintager thrusts his hand into the pulp, and takes some from the middle of the mass; and when he perceives, by the smell, that the luscious sweetness is gone off, and that his nose is affected with a slight piquancy, he immediately carries it to the press, and by a light pressure expresses his prime juice. In like manner, should the cyderist determine the time when his pulp should be carried to the press. If he carry it immediately from the mill to the press, he may lose some small advantage which may be expected from the rind and kernels, and his liquor may be of lower color than he might wish. If he suffer it to remain too long unpressed, he will find to his cost that the acetous fermentation will come on before the vinous is perfected, especially in the early part of the cyder-making season. He will generally find that his pulp is in a fit state for pressing in about twelve or sixteen hours. If he must of necessity keep it in that state longer, he will find a sensible heat therein, which will engender a prema-



ture fermentation; and he must not delay turning it over, thereby to expose the middle of the mass to the influence of the atmosphere.

In order to press the fruit, or pommage as it is now called, it is folded up in pieces of hair-cloth, or placed between layers of clean, sweet straw or reed, and piled up in a square frame or mould: the press is then pulled down and squeezes out the juice, forming the matter into thin and almost dry cakes. Care ought to be taken to keep the straw, reed, or hair-cloths sweet, or the ill effects of their acidity will be communicated to the cyder. The first runnings come off foul and muddy, but the last, particularly in perry, will be as clear and fine as if filtered through paper. The refuse is generally thrown away as useless, or, when dry, used as fuel; if it has not been thoroughly squeezed, the pigs will sometimes eat it; and some people grind it a second time with water, and press it for an inferior liquor for family use. As long as a drop can be drawn, Mr. Marshall recommends to continue the pressure. Even breaking the cakes of the refuse with the hands only, he says, gives the press fresh power over it: regrinding them has a still greater effect: in this state of the materials, the mill gains a degree of power over the more rigid parts of the fruit, which in the first grinding it could not reach. The most eligible management in this stage of the process appears to be this: grind one pressful a-day; press, and regrind the residuum in the evening; infuse the reduced matter all night among part of the first runnings, and in the morning repress while the next pressful is grinding.

**III. Of fermentation and bottling.**—In the fermentation of the liquor, the common practice is to have it put into casks or hogsheads, immediately from the press, and to fill them quite full; when the casks are put into airy sheds, where the warmth differs little from the open atmosphere. They are sometimes even exposed to the open air without any covering but a piece of tile or flat stone, propped up over the bung-hole to carry off the rain. It would seem, from Mr. Marshall's account, that the time with cyder, when the fermentation begins, is quite uncertain, in general varying from one day to a month after it is tunned; though liquor taken immediately from the press, if much agitated, will sometimes pass directly into a state of fermentation. If the commencement of the fermentation is uncertain, its continuance is no less so; liquors that have been agitated will frequently go through it in one day; but otherwise, when allowed to rest, it will take from two to six days. The appearance of the liquor also varies according to the ripeness of the fruit: if the fruit has been properly matured, a thick scum is generally thrown up, resembling that of malt liquor. After the liquor has remained some time in the fermenting vessels it is racked off from the lees, and put into fresh casks. But as a fresh fermentation frequently takes place after racking, when this becomes violent, the liquor must be racked again; and sometimes, before the fermentation is checked, the racking must be repeated five or six times; but when there is only a small degree of fermentation, called fretting, the liquor is suffered to remain in the same cask; this degree,

however, is also very undetermined. The best informed cyder-makers are said to repeat the rackings until the liquor appears quiet or nearly so; and when this cannot be accomplished by the ordinary methods of fermentation, they have recourse to fumigating the casks with sulphur, which is called *stooming* or *stumping*. For this purpose a match made of thick linen cloth, about ten inches long and an inch broad, well coated with brimstone for about three-fourths of its length, is lighted and hung in at the bung-hole of the cask (which has been previously well seasoned, and every other vent stopped), and, while the match burns briskly, the bung is driven in, keeping the uncoated end of the match by its side. The match thus suspended, burns as long as the air contained in the cask will supply the fire; and when it dies the bung is taken out with the remnant of the match, after which the cask is allowed to remain two or three hours, more or less, according to the degree of power the sulphur ought to have, before it is filled with liquor. A smell of the sulphureous acid is thus communicated to the liquor, but it goes off in a short time. Mr. Crocker says, when the fermentation ceases, and the liquor appears tolerably clear to the eye, it has also a piquant vinous sharpness upon the tongue, and if in this state the least hissing noise be heard in the fermenting liquor, the room is too warm, and atmospheric air must be let in at the doors and windows. 'Now,' he continues, 'is the critical moment, which the cyderist must not lose sight of; for if he would have a strong, generous, and pleasant liquor, all further sensible fermentation must be stopped. This is best done by racking off the pure part into open vessels, which must be placed in a more cool situation for a day or two; after which it may again be barrelled, and placed in some moderately cool situation for the winter.'

It is advisable in racking, that the stream from the racking-cock be small, and that the receiving-tub be but a small depth below the cock, lest, by exciting a violent motion of the parts of the liquor, another fermentation be brought up. The feculence of the cyder may be strained through a filtering-bag, and placed among the second-rate cyders, but it must not be returned to the liquor designed for prime cyder.

It is observed by Mr. Knight, that 'after the fermentation has ceased, and the liquor is become clear and bright, it should instantly be drawn off, and not suffered on any account again to mingle with its lees; for these possess much the same properties as yeast, and would inevitably bring on a second fermentation. The best criterion to judge of the proper moment to rack off will be, he says, the brightness of the liquor; and this is always attended with external marks, which serve as guides to the cyder-maker. The discharge of fixed air, which always attends the progress of fermentation, has entirely ceased; and a thick crust, formed of fragments of the reduced pulp raised by the buoyant air it contains, is collected on the surface. The clear liquor being drawn off into another cask, the lees are put, he says, into small bags, similar to those used for jellies, being made, as noticed above; through these, whatever liquor the lees contain gradually



filtrates, becoming perfectly bright; and it is then returned to that in the cask, in which it has the effect, in some measure, of preventing a second fermentation, as already hinted. It appears, he says, to have undergone a considerable change in the process of filtration. The color is remarkably deep, its taste harsh and flat, and it has a strong tendency to become acetous; probably by having given out fixed, and absorbed vital air. Should it become acetous, which it will frequently do in forty-eight hours, it must not on any account, he says, be put into the cask. If however, the cyder, after being racked off, remains bright and quiet, nothing more is to be done to it till the succeeding spring; but if a scum collects on the surface, it must immediately be racked off into another cask; as this would produce bad effects if suffered to sink. If a disposition to ferment with violence again appears, it will be necessary, he thinks, to rack off from one cask to another, as often as a hissing noise is heard. The strength of cyder is much reduced, he says, as noticed above, by being frequently racked off; but this, he supposes, arises only from a large portion of sugar remaining unchanged, which adds to the sweetness, at the expense of the other quality. The juice of the fruits which produce very strong cyders, often remains muddy during the whole winter, and much attention must frequently be paid, to prevent an excess of fermentation.

'The casks into which the liquor is put, whenever racked off, should always have been thoroughly scalded, and dried again; and each should want several gallons of being full, to expose a larger surface to the air of the atmosphere.' 'But,' he adds, 'should the cyder-maker neglect the above precautions, the inevitable consequence will be this: another fermentation will quickly succeed, and convert the fine vincus liquor he was possessed of into a sort of vinegar.' 'But,' he adds, 'should the cyder-maker neglect the above precautions, the inevitable consequence will be this: another fermentation will quickly succeed, and convert the fine vincus liquor he was possessed of into a sort of vinegar; and all the art he is master of will never restore it to its former richness and purity.'

He suggests, however, the following correctives:—A bottle of French brandy, half a gallon of spirit extracted from the lees of cyder, or a pail full of old cyder, poured into the hogshead soon after the acetous fermentation is begun; but no wonder, continues he, if all these should fail, if the cyder be still continued in a close warm cellar. To give effect to either, it is necessary that the liquor be as much exposed to a cooler air as conveniently may be, and that for a considerable length of time. By such means it is possible fermentation may, in a great measure, be repressed: and if a cask of prime cyder cannot from thence be obtained, a cask of tolerable second-rate kind may. These remedies are innocent; but if the farmer or cyder-merchant attempt to cover the accident, occasioned by negligence or inattention, by applying any preparation of lead, let him reflect that he is about to commit an absolute and unqualified murder on those whose lot it may be to drink his poisonous draught. Such means should, therefore, on no account be ever had recourse to.

The time of bottling depends greatly on the quality of the liquors themselves: good cyder can seldom be bottled with propriety until a year old, and sometimes not till two years. It is

stated by the writer just mentioned, that in the month of April the cyder, in general, will be in a fit state for this operation; but that the critical time for this process is, when the liquor has acquired in the cask its highest degree of perfection: then, when the weather is fair, the barometer high, and the wind in some northerly point, let the bottles be filled, setting them by uncorked until the morning; then let the corks be driven very tightly into the necks of the bottles, tied down with small strong twine or wire, and well secured with melted rosin, or other material of the same nature.

Mr. Knight thinks, that cyders which have been made from good fruits, and have been properly manufactured, will retain a considerable portion of sweetness, in the cask, to the end of three or four years; but that the saccharine part, on which alone their sweetness depends, gradually disappears, probably by a decomposition and discharge of fixed air, similar to that which takes place in the earlier stages of their fermentation.

The premises of a cider manufacturer consist of a mill-house, mill, press, vat, and cask, with their appurtenances. The mill-house is generally one end of an out-building; or perhaps a shed, under which straw or small implements are occasionally laid up. The smallest dimensions, to render it any way convenient, are twenty-four feet by twenty; a floor thrown over it, at seven feet high; a door in the middle of the front, and a window opposite; with the mill on one side, the press on the other side of the window; as much room being left in front, towards the door, for fruit and utensils, as the nature of the mill and the press will allow. It consists of two beams supported by uprights with strong braces of wood. The apples being introduced between the pressing surfaces, the juice exudes. To produce this effect the more rapidly, a roller is previously employed, very similar to that used for crushing gypsum, in the manufacture of plaster of Paris; and the cohesive fibre of the fruit is by this means broken down. When a screw-press is substituted for this instrument, a spur wheel should be added, and the whole apparatus may then be erected for about £10. We mention this circumstance the more particularly as, while we are now writing, the whole of the duty has been taken off this valuable and healthy beverage, so that it bids fair to be more generally made than heretofore.

The apple-mill does not differ essentially from that of a common tanner's mill for grinding bark; and consists of a mill-stone from two feet and a half to four and a half in diameter, running on its edge in a circular stone trough, from nine to twelve inches in thickness, and from one to two tons in weight: the bottom of the trough in which the stone runs is somewhat wider than the thickness of the stone itself; the inner side of the groove rises perpendicularly, but the outer is levelled in such a manner as to make the top of the trough six or eight inches wider than the bottom, by which means there is room for the stone to run freely, and likewise for putting in the fruit, and stirring it up while grinding. The bed of a middle sized mill is about nine feet, some ten, and some twelve, the whole being composed of two, three, or four stones, bound



together with cramps of iron, and finished after being cramped in this manner. The best stones are found in the forest of Dean, generally a dark reddish gritstone, not calcareous; for if the stone was of a calcareous quality, the acid juice of the fruit would act upon it and spoil the liquor; a clean-grained grindstone grit is the fittest for the purpose. The runner is moved by means of an axle passing through the centre with a long arm reaching without the bed of the mill, for a horse to draw by; on the other side is a shorter arm, passing through the centre of the stone. An iron bolt, with a large head, passes through an eye in the lower part of the swivel, on which the stone turns into the end of the inner arm of the axis; and thus the double motion of it is obtained, and the stone kept perfectly upright. There ought also to be fixed on the inner arm of the axis, about a foot from the runner, a cogged wheel, working in a circle of cogs fixed upon the bed of the mill; these not only prevent the runner from sliding, which it is apt to do, when the mill is full; but likewise make the work more easy for the horse.

The bottom of the press ought to be made entirely of wood or of stone; the practice of covering it with lead being now well known to be pernicious. A few inches within its outer edges a channel is cut to catch the liquor as it is expressed, and convey it to a lip formed by a projection on that side of the bed opposite the mill; having under it a stone trough or wooden vessel, sunk within the ground, when the bed is fixed low to receive it. The press is worked with levers of different lengths, first a short, and then a longer one, both worked by the hand; and afterwards a bar, eight or nine feet in length, worked by a windlass. Mr. Marshall computes the expense of fitting up a mill-house at about £20 or £25, or on a small scale at £10 or £15, but if the stone has to be brought from a distance, the carriage will make a difference.

'Where iron-mills have been tried, this metal has been found to be soluble in the acid of apples, to which it communicates a brown color, and an unpleasant taste. No combination has been ascertained to take place between this acid and lead; but as the calx of this metal readily dissolves in, and communicates an extremely poisonous quality to, the acetous juice of the apple, it should never be suffered to come into contact with the fruit or liquor.' *Knight on the Apple and Pear*,—which may justly be considered as one of the most valuable treatises on this important subject.

There is a cyder-mill in use in the south of France, worked on a circular platform of boards, and, instead of stone, the wheel or conical roller is of cast-iron. The fruit is thinly spread over the platform, and the roller moved round by one man or woman. From the rollers covering more breadth than the narrow wheels in use in England, more fruit is crushed in a short time by this sort of mill.

Another and very convenient cyder-mill sometimes consists, in its simplest form, of two toothed or indented wooden cylinders of about nine inches in diameter, each being enclosed in the manner of other mills, having a feeder at the top; and

being made so as to be turned by the hand. The cylinders are so arranged as to be capable of being removed to a greater or less distance from each other, and thus the business advances in a regular progressive manner, from the first cutting of the fruit until the cylinders are brought so close together that a kernel cannot pass without being bruised; if a second pair of finer toothed cylinders be made to work under these, the pulp will be brought into a perfect state of fineness. It is with difficulty that the same degree of fineness can be effected by the horse-mill.

A hand-mill, where cyder is only made for private use, sometimes consists of a pair of fluted rollers working into each other. They are of cast-iron, hollow, about nine inches diameter, with flutes or teeth, about an inch wide, and nearly as much deep: two men work them by hand against each other. The fruit passes between them twice; the rollers being first set wide, to break it into fragments, and afterwards closer to reduce the fragments and the seeds.

Cyder-vats are vessels for receiving the pomage, or the cyder before it is racked off into the cask. They should be made of wood, as, where lead is employed, it is liable to be corroded by the acid. Of the casks we have already spoken.

Mr. Crocker observes that, in the districts of Hereford and Worcester, the following are considered as the best liquor fruits: the bennet apple, captain Nurse's kernel, Elton's yellow, Normandy apple, and the yellow or forest stire. And that, in the county of Somerset, the Jersey, the white sour, the margill, vallis apple, barn's-door, crab red-streak, Du-ann, Jack Every, cocagee, Clark's primo, Buckland, Pit crab, Slater's pearmain, Slater's No. 19, Slater's No. 20, Slater's No. 21, castle pippin, saw-pit, and the pomme apis, are supposed most valuable. But that in Devonshire, the most esteemed fruits are; the Seaverton red-streak, the sweet broady, the lemon bitter sweet, josey, Orcheton pippin, wine apple, marygold spice-apple, Ludbrook red-streak, green Cornish, the butter-box, red Cornish, broad-nosed pippin, cat's head, brandy-apple, Pine's red-streak, winter red, sweet pomme roi, and the Bickley red-streak. Marshall mentions the stire-apple, hagloe crab, the golden pippin, the old red-streak, and the woodcock, as favorite old cyder fruits, now on the decline. It was during the reign of Charles I. that the plantations of Herefordshire acquired the peculiar eminence which they yet retain, when by the spirited exertions of lord Scudamore, and other gentlemen of the county, Herefordshire 'became, in a manner, one entire orchard.' The principal markets for the fruit liquors of this county, are those of London and Bristol, whence great quantities are sent to Ireland, to the East and West Indies, and to other foreign markets, in bottles. The price of the common cyder is generally fixed once a year by a meeting of the dealers at Hereford fair, on the 20th of October.

CYDER SPIRIT, is a spirituous liquor drawn from cyder by distillation, in the same manner as brandy from wine. Its flavor is not agree-



able, but it may be entirely divested of it, and rendered perfectly pure by rectification. The traders in spirituous liquors are well acquainted with the value of such a spirit as this: they can give it the flavors of some other kinds, and sell it under their names, or mix it in large proportion with foreign brandy, rum, and arrack, in the sale, without danger of detection.

**CYDER WINE**, a kind of wine made from the juice of apples taken from the press and boiled, and which being kept three or four years is said to resemble Rhenish. The method of preparing it according to Dr. Rush of America, where it is much practised, consists in evaporating in a brewing copper the fresh apple juice till half of it be consumed. The remainder is then immediately conveyed into a wooden cooler, and afterwards put into a proper cask with an addition of yeast, and fermented in the ordinary way. The process is evidently borrowed from what has long been practised on the recent juice of the grape, under the term of *vin cuit*, or boiled wine, in Italy, and the islands of the Archipelago. This process has often become an object of imitation in the cyder counties, and particularly in the west of England. Dr. Fothergill made a variety of experiments to ascertain whether or not the liquor acquires any noxious quality from the copper in which it is boiled, and the result seemed to afford a strong presumption that the wine does contain a minute impregnation of copper. It is a curious chemical fact, he observes, that acid liquors, while kept boiling in copper vessels, acquire little or no impregnation from the metal, but presently begin to act upon it when left to stand in the cold.

**CYDIAS**, an ancient Greek painter who made a painting of the Argonauts in the eleventh Olympiad. This celebrated piece was bought by the orator Hortensius for 164 talents.

**CYDNUS**, in ancient geography, a river of Cilicia; rising in Mount Taurus, or rather in Antitaurus, north of Tarsus, through whose middle it ran, in a very clear and cold stream; falling into the sea at a place called Rhegma, a breach, the sea breaking in there, and affording the people of Tarsus a station or port for their ships. The water of the Cydnus is commended by Strabo, as of service in nervous disorders and the gout; it was so cold, however, that bathing in it had almost proved fatal to Alexander.

**CYDONIA**, or **CYDON**, in ancient geography, one of the three most illustrious cities of Crete, situated in the north-west of the island, with a port walled round. Stephen of Byzantium says, that it was first named Apollonia from Cydon the son of Apollo. Pausanias ascribes the founding of it to Cydon the son of Tegetus, who travelled into Crete. Herodotus affirms, that it was founded by the Samians, and that its temples were erected by them. Alexander, in the first book of the *Cretans*, informs us, that it received its name from Cydon the son of Mercury. Cydon was the largest city in the island; and was enabled to hold the balance between her contending neighbours. Phaleucus, general of the Phœceans, making an expedition into Crete with a fleet and a numerous army, invested Cydon both by sea and land; but, lost his army and his life

before its walls. In succeeding times, when Metellus subdued the island, he assailed Cydon with all his forces; and, after combating an obstinate resistance, subjected it to the power of Rome. Cydon occupied the present situation of Canea; only extending half a league further towards St. Odeiro.

**CY'GNET**, *n. s.* Lat. from *cygnus*. A young swan.

I am the *cygnet* to this pale faint swan,  
Who chaunts a doleful hymn to his own death.  
*Shakespeare. King John.*

So doth the swan her downy *cygnets* save,  
Keeping them prisoners underneath her wings.  
*Id. Henry VI.*

*Cygnets*, from grey, turn white.  
*Barron's Natural History.*

Young *cygnets* are good meat, if fattened with oats;  
but, fed with weeds, they taste fishy.  
*Mortimer's Husbandry.*

Next the changed god a *cygnet's* form assumes,  
And playful Leda smooths his glossy plumes.  
*Darwin.*

And she bent o'er him, and he lay beneath,  
Hushed as the babe upon its mother's breast,  
Drooped as the willow when no winds can breathe,  
Lulled like the depth of ocean when at rest,  
Fair as the crowning rose of the whole wreath,  
Soft as the callow *cygnet* in its nest.  
*Byron. Don Juan.*

**CYLINDER**, *n. s.* } *Κυλινδρος*. A circular  
**CYLINDRICAL**, *adj.* } body terminated by two  
**CYLINDRICK**, *adj.* } flat surfaces. Partaking  
**CYLINDROID**, *n. s.* } of the nature of a cylinder;  
having the form of a cylinder. A cylind-  
roid is a body approaching to the figure of a  
cylinder.

The square will make you ready for all manner of  
compartments, bases, pedestals, plots, and buildings;  
your *cylinder*, for vaulted turrets, and round build-  
ings.  
*Peacham.*

The quantity of water which every revolution does  
carry, according to any inclination of the *cylinder*,  
may be easily found.  
*Wilkins.*

Minera ferri stalactitia, when several of the *cylind-  
rick* stræ are contiguous, and grow to ether into one  
sheaf, is called brush iron ore.  
*Woodward's Natural History.*

Obstructions must be most incident to such parts of  
the body where the circulation and the elastick fibres  
are both smallest, and those glands, which are the  
extremities of arteries formed into *cylindrical* canals.  
*Arbuthnot on Aliment.*

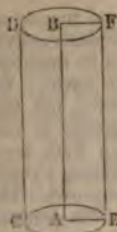
Nymphs! your fine hands ethereal floods amass  
From the warm cushion, and the whirling glass;  
Beard the bright *cylinder* with golden wire,  
And circumscribe the gravitating fire.  
*Darwin.*

Pent in dark chambers of *cylindric* brass,  
Slumbers in grim repose the sooty mass. *Id.*

This knob or corner of a cloud in being attracted by  
the earth will become nearly *cylindrical*, as loose wool  
would do when drawn out into a thread, and will  
strike the earth with a stream of electricity, perhaps  
two or ten yards in diameter. *Id.*



**CYLINDER**, in geometry, a solid body, supposed to be generated by the rotation of a rectangle about one of its sides, as the figure CDEF generated by the revolution of the parallelogram AB EF round its side AB, which is the axis of the cylinder. See **GEOMETRY**.



**CYLINDROID**, in geometry, a solid body, approaching to the figure of a cylinder, but differing from it in some respects, as having the bases elliptical, but parallel and equal.

**CYMAR**, *n. s.* Properly written *simar*. A slight covering; a scarf.

Her comely limbs composed with decent care,  
Her body shaded with a slight *cymar*,  
Her bosom to the view was only bare. *Dryden*.

**CYMATIUM**, *n. s.* Lat. from *κυμάτων*, a little wave. A member of architecture, whereof one half is convex, and the other concave. There are two sorts, of which one is hollow below, as the other is above.

In a cornice, the gola, or *cymatum* of the corona: the coping, the modillions, or dentelli, make a noble show by their graceful projections. *Spectator*.

**CYMBAL**, *n. s.* Lat. *cymbalum*. A musical instrument.

The trumpets, sackbuts, psalteries, and fifes,  
Tabors, and *cymbals*, and the shouting Romans,  
Make the sun dance. *Shakespeare. Coriolanus*.

If mirth should fail, I'll busy her with cares,  
Silence her clamorous voice with louder wars;  
Trumpets and drums shall fright her from the throne,  
As sounding *cymbals* aid the lab'ring moon.

*Dryden's Aurengzebe*.

Ah! tinkling *cymbal*, and high sounding brass,  
Smitten in vain! such music cannot charm  
The eclipse, that intercepts truth's heavenly beam,  
And chills and darkens a wide-wandering soul.

*Cowper*.

A dolphin now his sportive limbs he laves,  
And bears the sportive damsel on the waves;  
She strikes the *cymbal* as he moves along,  
And wondering ocean listens to the song. *Darwin*.

Others their hands applause beat,  
Like *cymbals* sounding as they meet. *Sheridan*.

Her large black eyes, that flashed through her long hair

As it streamed o'er her; her blue veins that rose  
Along her most transparent brow; her nostril  
Dilated from its symmetry; her lips  
Apart; her voice that clove through all the din,  
As a lute's pierce through the *cymbal's* clash,  
Jarred but not drowned by the loud brattling.

*Byron. Sardanapalus*.

**CYMBALS, ANCIENT**, Gr. *κυμαλον*. The *cymbal* was much used among the ancients. It was made of brass like our kettle drums, and, as some think, in their form, but smaller, and of different use. Ovid gives *cymbals* the epithet of *genialia*, because they were used at weddings and other diversions. Cassiodorus and Isidore call this instrument *acetalabulum*, the name of a cup or cavity of a bone wherein another is articulated; and Xenophon compares it to a horse's hoof;

whence it must have been hollow: which appears, too, from the figure of several other things denominated from it; as a basin, caldron, goblet, cask, and even a shoe, such as those of Empedocles, which were of brass. The ancient *cymbals* appear to have been very different from our kettle drums, and their use of another kind. To their exterior cavity was fastened a handle, whence Pliny compares them to the upper part of the thigh, and Rabanus to phials. They were struck against one another in cadence, and made a very acute sound. The invention of them was attributed to Cybele; whence their use in feasts and sacrifices; setting aside this occasion, they were seldom used but by dissolute and effeminate people. M. Lampe attributes the invention to the Curetes, who, as well as the Corybantes, were reputed to excel in the music of the *cymbal*. The Jews had their *cymbals*, or at least instruments which translators render *cymbals*; but as to their material and form, critics are not agreed.

**CYMBALS, MODERN**. The modern *cymbal* has been sometimes defined as a mean instrument, chiefly in use among vagrants, gypsies, &c. It consists of steel wire in a triangular form, whereon are passed rings, which are touched and shifted along the triangle with an iron rod held in the left hand, while it is supported in the right by a ring. Durandus says, that the monks sometimes use the word *cymbal* for the cloister-bell, which called them to the refectory. It is clear that our translators, at least, 1 Cor. xiii. 1, had this small kind of 'tinkling' instruments in view when they contrast *χαλκος ηχων*, sonorous brass, perhaps the sound of the trumpet, with *κυμαλον αλαζον*, a tinkling *cymbal*.

But modern times have witnessed the extensive introduction of a very different *cymbal* amongst the military instruments of Europe. It is an instrument of loud percussion, adopted by us immediately from the east, and resembling the celebrated *cymbals* of Bacchus, which were evidently struck one against another, and would produce a sharp clamorous sound. They are employed as being useful for the loudness of their music in marking the due time and military step of a march. But the sounds produced are said to be inappreciable to the ear; this however is not the fact.

**CYME**, or **CUMA**, in ancient geography, a city built by Pelops on his return from Greece. Cyme the Amazon gave it name, on expelling the inhabitants, according to Mela. Livy, Mela, Nepos, Pliny, and Tacitus use the Greek name Cyme, in preference to Cuma. It stood in Æolia, between the Myrina and Phocæa, and in Pentinger's map is set down nine miles from Myrina. From this place was the Sybilla Cumæa, called also Erythræa, from Erythræ, a neighbouring place. It was the country of Ephorus. Hesiod was a Cumean originally; his father coming to settle at Ascræ in Boëtia.

**CYMENE**, in botany, a name given by the ancient Greeks to a plant with which they used to dye woollen stuffs yellow; and with which the women used also to tinge their hair; yellow being the favorite color in those ages. It is the same plant with the *latea herba* of the Latins; or what we call dyer's weed.



**CYNÆGIRUS**, an Athenian, celebrated for his extraordinary courage. He was brother to the poet Æschylus. After the battle of Marathon, he pursued the flying Persians to their ships, and seized one of their vessels with his right hand, which was immediately severed by the enemy. Upon this he seized the vessel with his left hand, and when he had lost that also, he still kept his hold with his teeth.

**CYNANCHE**, a species of quinsy, in which the tongue is inflamed and swelled, so that it hangs out beyond the teeth. Dr Cullen distinguishes five species of this disease; viz. 1. cynanche maligna; 2. cynanche parotidæa; 3. cynanche pharyngæa; 4. cynanche tonsillaris; and 5. cynanche trachealis. See **MEDICINE**.

**CYNANCHUM**, bastard dogbane, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, and pentandria class of plants; natural order thirtieth, contortæ. The nectarium is cylindrical and quinquedentate. There are six species; of which the following are the most remarkable: viz. 1. *C. acutum*, commonly called Montpelier scammony; and 2. *C. Monseliacum*, the round-leaved Montpelier scammony. They abound with a milky juice like the spurge; which issues out wherever they are broken; and this milky juice when concentered has frequently been sold for scammony. These plants propagate so fast by their creeping roots, that few people care to admit them into their gardens.

**CYNANTHROPY**, *n. s.* *Κυνων κυνος*, and *ανθρωπος*. A species of madness in which men have the qualities of dogs.

**CYNARA**, the artichoke, in botany, a genus of the polygamia æqualis order, and syngenesia class of plants: *cal.* dilated, imbricated with carnosous squamæ, and emarginated with a sharp point. Of this genus there are eight species; of which only two are cultivated for use: viz. 1. *C. cardunculus*, the cardoon, greatly resembles the artichoke, but is of larger and more regular growth: the leaves being more upright, taller, broader, and more regularly divided: the stalks of the leaves blanched are the only edible parts of the plant. This is a very hardy plant, and prospers in the open quarters of the kitchen garden. It is propagated by seed sown annually in the full ground in March; either in a bed for transplantation, or in the place where they are designed to remain. 2. *C. scolymus*, the garden artichoke, has large, thick, perennial roots, crowned by a considerable cluster of large pennatifid, erect leaves, two or three feet long. In the middle are upright stalks rising a yard high, on the top of which is a large round scaly head, composed of numerous, oval, calycinal scales, enclosing the florets, sitting on a broad fleshy receptacle, which, with the fleshy base of the scales, is the eatable part of the plant. The varieties of this species are, 1. The conical green-headed French artichoke, having the small leaves terminated by spines, a tall stalk, the head somewhat conical, and of a light green color, with the scales pointed at top, opening and turning outward. 2. The globular-headed red Dutch artichoke, having leaves without spines, a strong stalk, the head large, globular, a little compressed at top, and of a reddish green color; broad obtuse scales emarginated at top, growing close,

and turning inward. Of these varieties the last is deservedly the most esteemed, both on account of its superiority in size and the agreeableness of its flavor. Both varieties are perennial in their root; but the leaves and fruit-stem die to the ground in winter; and the roots remaining, send up fresh leaves and stems every summer, producing a supply of artichokes for twenty years if required. The flowers and seed of all the plants of this genus are produced in the centre of the head; the scales of which are the proper calyx of the flower, which consists of numerous small bluish florets, succeeded by downy seeds sitting naked on the receptacle. Both the varieties of the artichoke are propagated by slips or suckers, arising annually from the stool or root of the old plants in spring, which are to be taken from good plants of any present plantation in March or the beginning of April, and planted in the open quarter of the kitchen garden, in rows five feet asunder; and they will produce artichokes the same year in autumn. It should however be remarked, that, though artichokes are of many years duration, the annual produce of their fruit will gradually lessen in the size of the eatable parts after the third or fourth year, so that a fresh plantation should be made every three or four years.

**CYNARCTOMACHY**. *Κυνων, αρκτος, μαχη*. A word coined by Butler, to denote bear-baiting with a dog.

That some occult design doth lie  
In bloody cynarctomachy,  
Is plain enough to him that knows  
How saints lead brothers by the nose.

*Hudibras.*

**CYNEAS**, or **CINEAS**, the friend of Pyrrhus and scholar of Demosthenes, who flourished A. A. C. 275. Pyrrhus and he wrote a treatise of War, quoted by Tully.

**CYNEGETICKS**, *n. s.* *Κυνεγητικα*. The art of hunting; the art of training and hunting with dogs.

There are extant, in Greek, four books of *cynageticæ*, or venation. *Brounne's Vulgar Errors.*

**CY'NICK**, *n. s. & adj.* } *Κυνικός*. A philosopher of the snarling or currish sort; a rude man; a snarler; a misanthrope. Having currish qualities; brutal; snarling; satirical.

How vilely doth this cynick rhyme!—  
Get you hence, sirrah; saucy fellow, hence.

*Shakespeare.*

Or been the manes of that Cynic spright  
Clothed with some stubborn clay and led to light?  
Or do the relic ashes of his grave  
Revive and rise from their forsaken cave? *Hall.*

He doth believe that some new-fangled wit (it is his cynical phrase) will some time or other find out his art. *Wilkins.*

Without these precautions the man degenerates into a cynick, the woman into a coquette; the man grows sullen and morose, the woman impertinent and fantastical. *Addison.*

The *Cynics* of old, and some of the Stoics, maintained, that in words there is no indelicacy; that there can be no harm in speaking of any thing that is



naturai; and that, if we may speak without blame of any one crime, or any one part or function of the human body, we may, in like manner, of any other. But this is vile sophistry, tending to the utter debasement of man, and founded in the grossest ignorance of human nature and human language. *Beattie.*

**CYNICS**, a sect of ancient philosophers, who valued themselves upon their contempt of riches and of pomp, of the arts and sciences, and of every thing in short except virtue and morality. The cynic philosophers owe their origin and institution to Antisthenes of Athens, a disciple of Socrates; who being asked of what use his philosophy had been to him, replied, 'It enables me to live with myself.' Diogenes was the most famous of his disciples, in whose character the system of this philosophy appears in its greatest perfection. See **DIODEGENES**. These sages are said to have regarded chastity and modesty as weaknesses; and coarseness, even to indelicacy, was certainly one of their characteristics. They argued that what was right to be done, might be done at all times and in all places. Their chief principle, indeed, in common with that of the stoics, was, that we should follow nature. But the stoics clearly included the government of reason, in the rule of nature, which the cynics, for the greater part, rejected.

**CYNIPS**, in zoology, a genus of insects belonging to the hymenoptera order. The mouth is armed with jaws, but has no proboscis: the sting is spiral, and mostly concealed within the body. There are many species. We can only mention two:

1. *C. quercus folii*, or oak-leaf cynips, is of a burnished shining brown color. The antennæ are black; the legs and feet of a chestnut brown; and the wings white, but void of marginal spots. It is in the little smooth, round, hard galls, found under the oak leaves, generally fastened to the fibres, that this insect is produced, a single one in each gall. These latter are ligneous, of a hard compact substance, formed like the rest, by the extravasation of the sap of the leaf, occasioned by the puncture of the gall fly when it deposits its eggs. Sometimes, instead of the cynips, there is seen to proceed from the gall a larger insect, of a brown color, which is an ichneumon. This ichneumon is not the real inmate of the gall, or he that formed it.

2. *C. quercus gemmæ*, or oak bud cynips, is of a very dark green, slightly gilded: its antennæ and feet are of a dun color, rather deep. It deposits its eggs in the oak buds, which produce one of the finest galls, leafed like a rosebud beginning to blow. When the gall is small, that great quantity of leaves is compressed, and they are set one upon another like the tiles of a roof. In the centre of the gall there is a kind of ligneous kernel, in the middle of which is a cavity; and in that is found the little larva, which feeds there, takes its growth, undergoes its metamorphosis, and breaks through the enclosure of that kind of cocoon in order to get out. The whole gall is often near an inch in diameter, sometimes more when dried and displayed; and it holds to a branch by a pedicle.

**CYNOBELINE**, a king of the South Britons, who flourished in the reign of Claudius, and

fought several battles with the Romans under Plautius, the prætor; about A. D. 43-46.

**CYNOGLOSSUM**, hound's tongue, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, pentandria class of plants; natural order forty-first, asperifolia: cor. funnel-shaped, with its throat closed up by little arches formed in it; the seeds depressed, and affixed to the style or receptacle only on their inner side. There are eight species, not remarkable for beauty. *C. officinale*, the common greater hound's tongue, was formerly used in medicine, and its root supposed to possess narcotic virtues; but it is discarded from the present practice. The smell of the whole plant is very disagreeable. Goats eat it: sheep, horses, and swine refuse it.

**CYNOMETRA**, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order and decandria class of plants; cal. tetraphyllous: anth. bifid at top; the legumen carnosous, crescent-shaped, and monospermous. Species two, Indian trees.

**CYNOMORIUM**, in botany, a genus of the monandria order and monœcia class of plants; natural order fiftieth, amentaceæ: cal. imbricated catkin: cor. none: one style; and one roundish seed. Species one only.

**CYNOPHONTIS**, in antiquity, a festival observed in the dog-days at Argos, and so called *απο της κυνας φονιν*, i. e. from killing dogs; because it was usual on this day to kill all the dogs they met with.

**CYNOSARGES**, a place in the suburbs of Athens, named from a white or swift dog, who snatched away part of the sacrifice offering to Hercules. It had a gymnasium, in which strangers or those of the half blood performed their exercises; the case of Hercules, to whom the place was consecrated. It had also a court of judicature, to try illegitimacy, and to examine whether persons were Athenians of the whole or half blood.

**CYNOSCEPHALÆ**, in ancient geography, a place in Thessaly, near Scotussa; where the Romans, under Q. Flaminius, gained a great victory over Philip, son of Demetrius king of Macedon. These Cynoscephalæ were small tops of several equal eminences; named from their resemblance to dogs' heads, according to Plutarch.

**CYNOSSEMA**, the tomb of Hecuba, on the promontory Mastusia, over against Sigeum, in the south of the Chersonesus Thracica; named either from the figure of a dog, to which she was fabled to have been changed, or from her sad reverse of fortune.

**CYNOSURA**, in astronomy, a denomination given by the Greeks to ursa minor, or the little bear, from *κυνουρα*, the dog's tail. This is the constellation next our pole, consisting of seven stars: four of which are disposed like the four wheels of a chariot, and three lengthways representing the beam; whence some give it the name of the chariot, or Charles's wain. See **CYNOSURE**.

**CYNOSURA**, in mythology, a nymph of Ida, in Crete, said to have nursed Jupiter, who changed her into a star.

**CYNOSURA**, **CYNOSURÆ**, or **CYNOSURIS**, in ancient geography, a place in Laconia; but whether maritime or inland, is uncertain. Here Æsculapius was buried.



**CYNOSURE**, *n. s.* From *κύων* *οὐρα*. The star near the north pole, by which sailors steer.

Towers and battlements it sees  
Bosomed high in tufted trees,  
Where perhaps some beauty lies,  
The cynosure of neighbouring eyes. *Milton.*

**CYNOSURUS**, in botany, dog-tail grass; a genus of the digynia order and triandria class of plants; natural order fourth, graminæ: *cal.* bivalved and multiflorous; the receptacle proper, unilateral, and foliaceous. There are ten species, four of which are natives of Britain, viz. the cristatus, or crested dog-tail grass; the echinatus, or rough dog-tail grass; the cæruleus, or blue dog-tail grass; and the paniceus or bearded dog-tail grass.

**CYNTHUS**, in ancient geography, a mountain of the island Delos, so high as to overshadow the whole island. On this mountain Latona was fabled to have brought forth Apollo and Diana; hence called Cynthius and Cynthia.

**CYNURIA**, or **CYNURUS AGER**, in ancient geography, a district of Laconia, on the confines of Argolis, that proved a perpetual bone of contention between the Argives and Spartans.

**CYON**. See **CION**.

Gather cyons for garbs before the buds sprout.  
*Evelyn.*

**CYPERUS**, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order and triandria class of plants; natural order third, calamariæ. The glumes are paleaceous, and imbricated towards each side; the corolla is wanting, and there is one naked seed. There are thirty species; the only remarkable are,

1. *C. longus*, the English, Flemish, or long sweet cyperus, grows in the water, and along banks and river sides. Its root is as thick as an olive, full of little knots or specks, of an oblong figure, gray color, sweet and somewhat sharp taste, and almost without smell when it is newly taken out of the ground. It is much used by perfumers and glovers.

2. *C. rotundus*, the round cyperus, is a native of the East Indies, and grows by the sides of rivulets and ditches. The root is knotty, wrapped round with fibrous strings, not easy to break, of a brown color without any gray within; of a pleasant scent, especially when fresh and well dried; the leaves are green, and resemble those of the reed and leek. The roots of both species are esteemed cordial, diuretic, cephalic, resisters of poisons, and expellers of wind.

**CYPHER**. See **CIPHER**.

**CYPHERING**, *n. s.* Skill in arithmetic; the art of arithmetic.

Is a fine clerk, and has his cyphering perfect.  
*Ben Jonson.*

**CYPHON**, in antiquity, a kind of punishment used by the Athenians. It was a collar made of wood; so called because it constrained the criminal to bow down his head.

**CYPHONISM**, **CYPHONISMUS**, from *κυφών*, derived from *κύρως*, crooked, a kind of torture or punishment in use among the ancients. The learned are at a loss to determine what it was. Some suppose it to be that mentioned by St. Jerome, in his Life of Paul the Hermit, chap. 2,

which consisted in smearing the body over with honey, and thus exposing the person, with his hands tied, to the warm sun, to invite the flies and other vermin to torment him.

**CYPREÆA**, the gowrie, in zoology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of vermes testacea. It is an animal of the limax or snail kind; the shell is one involuted, subovated, obtuse, smooth valve. The aperture on each side is linear, longitudinal, and toothed. There are forty-four species, distinguished by the form of their shells. This genus is called *cyprea* and *venerea* from its being peculiarly dedicated to Venus; who is fabled to have endowed a shell of this genus with the powers of a remora, so as to impede the course of the ship which was sent by Perander, tyrant of Corinth, with orders to mutilate the young nobility of Corcyra.

**CYPRESS-TREE**, *n. s.* Lat. *Cupressus*. A tree anciently used in funerals; thence, poetically, the emblem of mourning. See **CUPRESSUS**.

He taketh the cypress and the oak, which he strengtheneth for himself among the trees of the forest.  
*Isaiah xlv. 14.*

The aspine, good for staves, the cypress funeral.  
*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

In ivory coffers I have stuffed my crowns;  
In cypress chests my arras counterpanes.

*Shakespeare.*

Poison be their drink,  
Their sweetest shade a grove of cypress trees.  
*Id. Henry VI.*

Bind ye my brows with mourning cyperise,  
And palish twigs of deadlie poplar tree. *Hall.*

Poplars and alders ever-quivering played,  
And nodding cypress formed a fragrant shade.  
*Pope's Odyssey.*

Long aisles of cypress waved their deepened glooms,  
And quivering spectres grinned amid the tombs.

*Darwin.*  
Though no funeral cypress shade thy tomb,  
For thee the wreaths of Paradise shall bloom.  
*Huddesford.*

Oh, snatched away in beauty's bloom,  
On thee shall press no ponderous tomb;  
But on thy turf shall roses rear  
Their leaves, the earliest of the year;  
And the wild cypress wave in tender gloom.  
*Byron. Hebrew Melodies.*

**CYPRESS**. See **CUPRESSUS**.

**CYPRIANUS** (Thascius-Cæcilius), a father of the church, born at Carthage, about the end of the second or beginning of the third century. His parents were heathen; and he himself continued such till the last twelve years of his life. Applying early to the study of oratory, he taught rhetoric in Carthage with the highest applause. His conversion is fixed by Pearson, A. D. 246, at Carthage, where, as St. Jerome observes, he had often employed his rhetoric in the defence of paganism. Cyprian, although a married man, as soon as he was converted, resolved upon a state of continence, which was then thought a high degree of piety. He wrote ably in defence of Christianity, and addressed to Donatus his first production *De Gratia Dei*. He next composed a piece *De Idolorum Vanitate*, upon the vanity of idols. Cyprian was now ordained priest, and, when the bishop of Carthage died,



none was judged so proper to succeed him as Cyprian. His first episcopal engagement was to draw up a piece *De Habitu Virginum*, on the dress of young females; in which he inculcates many lessons of modesty and sobriety. In 249 Decius issued very severe edicts against the Christians; and in 250 the heathens, in the circus and amphitheatre of Carthage, insisted upon Cyprian's being thrown to the lions. Upon this he withdrew from Carthage, and wrote, in his retreat, some excellent letters to the Libellatici, or those pusillanimous Christians, who procured certificates of the heathen magistrates, to show that they had complied with the emperor's orders, in sacrificing to idols. At his return to Carthage he held several councils on the repentance of those who had fallen off during this persecution, and other points of discipline; he opposed the schemes of Novatus and Novatianus; and contended for the rebaptising of those who had been baptised by heretics. At last he died a martyr in the persecution under Valerian and Gallienus, in 258. Cyprian wrote eighty-one letters, and several treatises. The best editions of his works are those of Pamelius in 1568; of Rigaltius in 1648; and of Oxford in 1682.

CYPRINUS, in ichthyology, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of abdoiminales. The month is toothless; there are three rays in the gills; the body is smooth and white; and the belly fins have frequently nine rays. There are thirty-one species, principally distinguished by the number of rays in the vent-fin. The most remarkable are 1. *C. alburnus*, the bleak. These fish keep together in large shoals. At certain seasons they seem to be in great agonies; they tumble about near the surface of the water, and are incapable of swimming far from the place; but in about two hours they recover and disappear. Fish thus affected, the Thames fishermen call mad bleaks. They seem to be troubled with a species of Gordius, or hair worm, which torments them so, that they often rise to the surface and die. The bleak seldom exceeds five or six inches in length. Artificial pearls are made of the scales of this fish, and probably also with those of the dace. They are beaten into a fine powder, then diluted with water, and introduced into a thin glass bubble, which is afterwards filled with wax. The French were the inventors of this art. 2. *C. auratus*, the golden fish, a small fish domesticated by the Chinese, and generally kept for ornament in their courts and gardens. They breed them in small ponds made for the purpose, in basins, and even in porcelain vessels. This fish is no larger than our perchard. The male is of a bright red color from the top of the head to the middle of the body: the rest is of a gold color; but it is so bright and splendid, that the finest gilding cannot approach it. The female is white: but its tail and half of its body resemble the lustre of silver. F. du Halde, however, observes, that a red and white color are not always the distinguishing marks of the male and female; but that the females are known by several white spots which are seen round the orifices that serve them as organs of hearing, and the males, by having these spots much brighter. Gold fish are light and lively; they love to sport on the

surface of the water, soon become familiarised, and may even be accustomed to come and receive their food on sounding a small rattle. Great care is necessary to preserve them; for they are extremely delicate, and sensible of the least injuries of the air: a loud noise, such as that of thunder or cannons, a strong smell, a violent shaking of the vessel, or a single touch, will oft-times destroy them. These fish live with little nourishment: those small worms which are engendered in the water, or the earthy particles that are mixed with it, being sufficient for their food. In winter they are removed from the court to a warm chamber, where they are kept, generally shut up in a porcelain vessel. During that season they receive no nourishment; however, in spring, when they are carried back to their former basin, they sport and play with the same strength and liveliness as they did the preceding year. In warm countries these fish multiply fast, provided care be taken to collect their spawn, which floats on the water, and which they almost entirely devour. This spawn is put into a particular vessel exposed to the sun, and preserved there until vivified by the heat: gold-fish, however, seldom multiply when they are kept in close vases, because they are then too much confined. In order to render them fruitful, they must be put into reservoirs of considerable depth, in some places at least, and which are constantly supplied with fresh water. They were first introduced into England about A. D. 1691; but were not generally known till 1728, when a great number were brought over, and presented to Sir Matthew Dekker, and by him circulated round the neighbourhood of London, from whence they have been distributed to most parts of the country. 3. *C. brama*, the bream, is an inhabitant of lakes, or the deep parts of still rivers. It is a fish that is very little esteemed, being extremely insipid. 4. *C. carpio*, the carp. This was introduced into England about 1514, by Leonard Maschal. Russia wants these fish at this day. Sweden has them only in the ponds of people of fashion. They chiefly abound in the rivers and lakes of Polish Prussia, where they are sometimes taken of a vast size. They are there a great article of commerce, and sent in well-boats to Sweden and Russia. The merchants purchase them out of the waters of the noblesse of the country, who draw a good revenue from this article. They grow also to a very great size: some authors speak of carp 200 lbs. in weight, and five feet in length. They are prodigious breeders: the quantity of roe has been sometimes found so great, that when taken out and weighed against the fish itself, the former has been found to preponderate. From the spawn of this fish caviare is made for the Jews, who hold the sturgeon in abhorrence. The carp is extremely cunning, and is sometimes styled the river fox. They will sometimes leap over the nets, and escape that way; at other times they will immerse themselves so deep in the mud, as to let the net pass over them. They are also very shy of taking a bait; yet at the spawning time they are so simple as to suffer themselves to be tickled, handled, and caught by any body that will attempt it. This fish is apt to mix its milt with the roe of other fish; from



which is produced a spurious breed. 5. *C. cephalus*, the chub, is a very coarse fish and full of bones. It frequents the deep holes of rivers; and in summer commonly lies on the surface, beneath the shade of some tree or bush. It is very timid, sinking to the bottom on the least alarm, even at the passing of a shadow, but soon resumes its former situation. It feeds on worms, caterpillars, grasshoppers, and other coleopterous insects that happen to fall into the water; and it will even feed on cray-fish. It will rise to fly. Some of this kind have been known to weigh eight or nine lbs. 6. *C. barbus*, the barbel, a common inhabitant of most fresh waters in Europe, and easily distinguished from the other species of cyprinus, by the upper jaw being advanced far beyond the lower one, and in having the four beards appendant, from which the appropriate name of barbus or harbel is derived. This fish, during the summer, prefers the rapid currents and shallows of rivers, and retires at the approach of winter to the more full and deeper places. They live in societies; lurking in holes along the sides of the water under shelter of the steepest banks, and feed on smaller fish, and worms and flesh of all kinds, for which they dig in the banks like swine. In the day-time they love to lurk occasionally among weeds, and between the stones in retired parts of the river, and wander out at night in search of prey. They spawn in April, and begin to be in season in May and June. The flesh of the barbel was never in great esteem for the table. Mr. Pennant quotes a passage in Ausonius, which, as he observes, is no panegyric on its excellence, for he lets us know it loves deep waters, and that, when it grows old, it is not absolutely bad:

*Laxos exercebat barbe natatus  
Tu melior pejore revo, tibi contigit uni  
Spirantum ex numero non inlaudata senectus.*

And he adds himself, that 'they are the worst and coarsest of fresh-water fish, and seldom eaten but by the poorer sort of people, who sometimes boil them with a bit of bacon to give them a relish.' 'The barbel,' says old Walton, 'though he be of a fine shape, and looks big, yet he is not accounted the best fish to eat, neither for his wholesomeness nor his taste; but the male is reputed much better than the female, whose spawn is very hurtful.' 7. *C. gobio*, the gudgeon, is generally found in gentle streams, and is of a small size, the largest not exceeding half a pound weight. They bite eagerly; and are assembled by raking the bed of the river; to this spot they immediately crowd in shoals, in expectation of food. 8. *C. leuciscus*, the dace, is gregarious, haunts deep still waters, is a great breeder, very lively, and during summer is very fond of frolicking near the surface of the water. It never exceeds the weight of a pound and a half; the scales are smaller than those of the roach. 9. *C. rutilus*, the roach, is a common fish found in many of the deep still rivers of this country. They are gregarious, keeping in large shoals. It has never been known to exceed five lbs. in weight. 10. *C. tinca*, the tench, was treated with the same disrespect by the ancients as the barbel:

but is now in much more repute. It has by some been called the physician of the fish; and its slime has been said to be of so healing a nature, that the wounded fishes apply it as a styptic. In this country it is reckoned a wholesome and delicious food; but the Germans are of a different opinion. By way of contempt they call it the shoemaker. Gesner even says that it is insipid and unwholesome. It does not commonly exceed four or five lbs., though some have been known to weigh ten, and even twenty. They love still waters, and are rarely found in rivers; they are easily caught. They are thick in proportion to their length. The color of the back is dusky; the corial and ventral fins of the same color; the head, sides, and belly, of a greenish cast, most beautifully mixed with gold, which is in its greatest splendor when the fish is in highest season.

*CYPRIPEDIUM*, the lady's slipper, in botany, a genus of the diandria order, and gynandria class of plants: natural order seventh, orchideæ. The nectarium is ventricose, inflated, and hollow. There are three species, of which only one, viz. *C. calceolus*, is a native of Britain. It grows in rough ground in different parts of the island. The other two species are natives of America. None of them are easily propagated in gardens, and therefore must be transplanted from those places where they are natives.

*CYPRUS*, *n. s.* I suppose from the place where it was made; or corruptly from cypress, as being used in mourning, says Dr. Johnson. A thin transparent black stuff.

*A cyprus, not a bosom,  
Hides my poor heart!* *Shakespeare.*

*Lawn as white as driven snow,  
Cyprus black as e'er was crow.*

*Id. Winter's Tale.*

*CYPRUS*, or *KYPRIS*, as it is called by the Turks, is the most important island of the Levant, and subject to Turkey. It is situated between 33° and 36° E. long., and 30° and 34° N. lat. It is about 150 miles in length by seventy-five broad, and is traversed from east to west by two remarkable mountain ranges, one of which yielded the third Olympus of the ancient mythology. The whole are covered with snow during the winter months, but seem only to render the heat of summer more oppressive. This island was called Macaria, the happy, by the Greeks. Homer celebrates its fertility, calling it by its present name, in Hymn.:

*Σεύρα' ἐπὶ Τροίην, προλιπέειν ἰνὸδτα Κύπρον.*

It is also known in history by the names of Acamantis, Erosa, Amathus, Cerastis, Colonia, Paphia, Salaminia, and Specchia; but its most common name was that which it still bears. The principal towns of ancient Cyprus were Paphos, Citium, Amathus, Salamis, Idalion, Lapathus, Arsinoe, &c. There were three celebrated temples here: two dedicated to Venus, who was said to be born here, and was called the Cyprian queen, and one to Jupiter. The females of the island were proverbially dissipated.

Cyprus, according to Eratosthenes, was first discovered by the Phœnicians two or three genera-

on of Japhet, were the original inhabitants. According to his account, Chittim, his brother Tarshish settled in Cilicia, he built the city of Tarsus, settled with his in this opposite island; and either he descendants laid the foundations of Citium, according to Ptolemy, was the most ancient in the island. As Cyprus was too to contain the great numbers who at him, he left here as many as might serve the country, and with the rest passed to Macedon. Cyprus was divided among petty kings till the time of Cyrus. He d them all; but left each in possession of dom, obliging them only to pay him an tribute, and to send supplies of men, and ships, when required. The Cyprian lived thus subject to the Persians till the f Darius Hystaspis, when they attempted, a little success, to shake off the yoke; their being entirely defeated, and themselves obliged to submit. They made another successful attempt about A. A. C. 357; but ould never become entirely independent. ubmitted, it is probable, to Alexander the though historians are silent as to this event. death, the dominion of Cyprus was dis- by Antigonus and Ptolemy. At last Anti- prevailed, and the whole island submitted about A. A. C. 304. He and his son rus kept possession of it for eleven years, t was recovered by Ptolemy, and quietly ed by him and his descendants till A. A. C. en it was unjustly seized by the Romans. time of Augustus, it began to be ranked the proconsular provinces, and to be ed by magistrates sent thither by the senate. t it was conquered by the Saracens; but ed by the Romans in 957. They held it, r, but for a very short time, and the bar- kept possession of it till the time of the s. It was then reduced by Richard I. of who gave it to the prince of the Lu-

The bay of Salinas, between Cape Grego and Cape Tagista, or Chiti, is pointed out by the highest summit of the island, Mount Cius, or Rusie, being directly over it, whence it bears west. Larnaca, on the east shore of this bay, has a tolerable road even in winter, though exposed to the south-east and south. The town, which is a heap of ruins, is half a mile from the shore, on which is a suburb on the site of the ancient Citium: in the vicinity are many salt marshes, whence the name of the bay, which affords considerable quantities of salt, but render the air unhealthy. Salinas (Salamis) is at the head of the gulf; it has a citadel falling to ruin.

The Bay of Limasole, or Limisso, is sheltered on the west by point Della Gatta: the village at the head of the bay is supposed to stand on the site of Amathonte, and a league east of it are considerable ruins. Piscopia is a village east of the south point of the island, and in the most fertile part of it. On the west coast is Baffa, supposed to be on the site of Paphos: it is a small town with a fort and port for small vessels; the town is on an eminence one mile from the port, and is entirely inhabited by Greeks. Solea (Solæ and Æpeia) is on the north coast, as are Cerino (Ceronia), a village of 200 inhabitants with a castle in good order, and a small port within two rocks, but open to the north and unsafe in winter, Maceria (Macaria and Aphrodisum), and Artemisia.

The commerce of Cyprus is considerable, exporting of its own produce cotton, which is considered the best of the Levant, 5000 bags of 600 lbs. each, chiefly to Venice, Holland, and England; silk, 25,000 bags of 300 lbs. each; wool, 500 bags of 600 lbs. each; wine chiefly to Venice and Leghorn; coloquintida, 100 quintals, chiefly to Holland and Leghorn; laudanum, madder, chiefly to France; cochineal a small quantity; soda to Marseilles; turpentine to Venice; green earth for painters, and brown umber chiefly to Holland: corn, though pro-



air than that of placing a piece of sheet lead over the bung hole. At the age of forty years this noble beverage is supposed to be in perfection, and its qualities are then truly balsamic. All the valuable kinds are white, the red being merely used as *vin du pays*. The apricots of Cyprus are also delicious. Near Baffa is found an amianthus, or mineral cloth, peculiarly distinguished for its flexibility, whiteness, and delicate structure. Cyprus is likewise noted for the common Turkey manufactures of leather, carpets, and printed cottons. The first is remarkable for its brilliant and lively color. The carpets are of excellent workmanship; and, though barely large enough to cover an English hearth, bring from forty to fifty piastres a-piece. The cottons have the valuable quality of preserving their colors in washing; which, in fact, rather improves them. The principal towns are Nicotia, Famagusta, and Larnica, all situated in the south-east part of the island.

Of the appearance of the females of Cyprus, renowned from an early period of history, Dr. Clarke gives the following account:—The interesting costume presented in the dress of the Cyprian ladies ought not to pass without notice. Their head apparel was precisely modelled after the kind of Calathus represented upon the Phœnician idols of the country, and upon Egyptian statues. This was worn by women of all ranks, from the wives of the consuls to their slaves. Their hair, dyed of a fine brown color, by means of a plant called Henna, hung behind in numerous long straight braids; and, in some ringlets disposed near the face, were fastened blossoms of the jessamine, strung together, upon slips from leaves of the palm-tree, in a very curious and pleasing manner. Next to the Calmuck women, the Grecian are, of all others, best versed in cosmetic arts. They possess the valuable secret of giving a brown color to the whitest locks, and also tinge their eyebrows with the same hue; an art that would be highly prized by the hoary courtizans of London and of Paris. The most splendid colors are displayed in their habits; and these are very becoming to the girls of the island. The upper robe is always of scarlet, crimson, or green silk, embroidered with gold. Like other Greek women, they wear long scarlet pantaloons, fastened round the ankle, and yellow boots, with slippers of the same color. Around the neck, and from the head, were suspended a profusion of gold coins, chains, and other trinkets. About their waists they have a large belt or zone, fastened in front by two large and heavy polished brass plates. They endeavour to make the waist as long as possible, and the legs, consequently, short. Naturally corpulent, they take no pains to diminish the size of their bodies by lacing, but seem rather vain of their bulk, exposing their bosoms, at the same time, in a manner highly unbecoming. Notwithstanding the extraordinary pains they use to disfigure their natural beauty by all sorts of ill-selected ornaments, the women of Cyprus are handsomer than those of any other Grecian island. They have a taller and more stately figure; and the features, particularly of the women of Nicotia, are regular and dignified, ex-

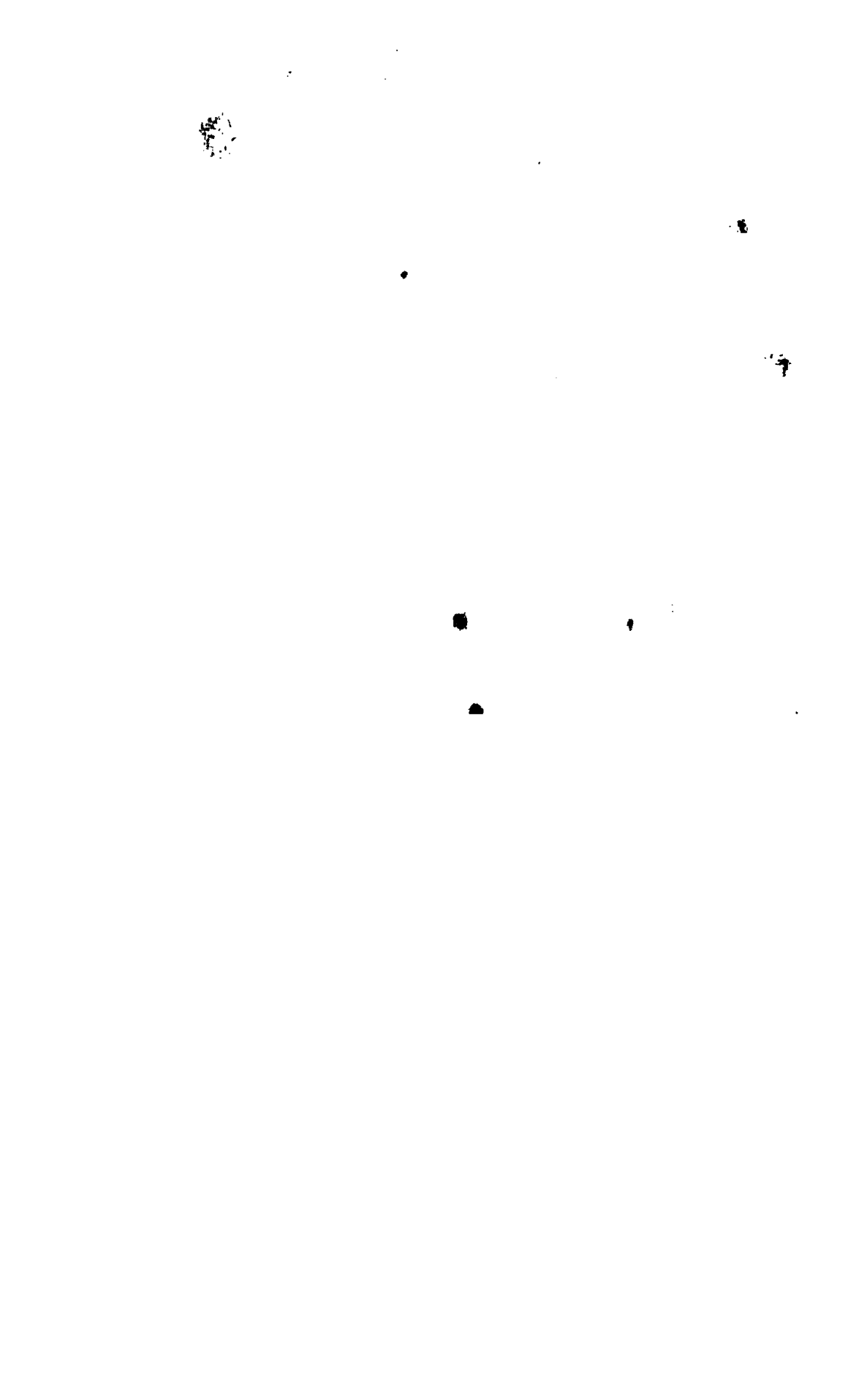
hibiting that elevated cast of countenance so universally admired in the works of Grecian artists. At present this kind of beauty seems peculiar to the women of Cyprus.

The Turkish governor resides at Nicotia; his appointment is renewed annually, and obtained by purchase. So that each succeeding ruler has only the one great point of his personal aggrandisement for a short period in view, and the permanent interests of the island are no topic of consideration with any of its masters. A common type on the medals of this island is the temple of the Paphian goddess, as in the annexed figure; inscription, *ΚΥΠΡΙΟΝ*; sometimes it contains the name of their kings, and sometimes that of the emperors Augustus, Caligula, Claudius, Galba, Vespasian, Titus, Domitian, Trajan, Septimius Severus, Julia, Caracalla, Geta, or Macrinus.



*CYPRUS, KNIGHTS OF*, an order instituted by Guy de Lusignan, titular king of Jerusalem, to whom Richard I. of England, after conquering Cyprus, made over his right.

*CYRENAICA*, an ancient kingdom of Africa, corresponding to the present kingdom and desert of Barca and Tripoli. It was originally inhabited by a number of barbarous nations, differing little from gangs of robbers. Afterwards some colonies from Greece settled in it, and Cyrenaica became so powerful a state, that it waged war with Egypt and Carthage, often with success. In the time of Darius Hystaspis, Arceilaus, the reigning prince in Cyrenaica, was driven from the throne; on which his mother Pheretima applied for assistance to the king of Cyprus. Her son afterwards returning to Barca, was there assassinated together with his father-in-law. Pheretima, finding herself disappointed by the king of Cyprus, applied to Darius Hystaspis, and by the assistance of the Persians reduced Barca. Here she behaved with the utmost cruelty. Cyrenaica, however, seems to have remained free till the time of Alexander the Great, who conquered it along with Egypt. Soor, after his death, the inhabitants recovered their liberty; but were in a short time reduced by Ptolemy king of Egypt. Under these kings it remained till Ptolemy Physcon made it over to his illegitimate son Apian, who, in the 658th year of Rome, left it by will to the Romans. The senate permitted all the cities to be governed by their own laws; and this immediately filled the country with tyrants, those who were most potent in every city or district endeavouring to assume the sovereignty of it. Thus the kingdom was thrown into great confusion; but Lucullus considerably restored the public tranquillity, during the first Mithridatic war. It was found impossible, however, totally to suppress these disturbances, till the country was reduced to the form of a Roman province, which happened about twenty years after the death of Apion A. A. C. 76. Upon a revolt, the city of Cyrene was ruined by the Romans; but they afterwards rebuilt it. In process of time it fell to the Arabs; and then to the Turks, who still retain it







DANTE.



ST. CYRIL.



DANIEL.



DANIEL.



DANIEL.



DEE.



DANTON.



DAVENANT.



DE LILLE.

**CYRENAICS**, a sect of ancient philosophers, so called from their founder Aristippus of Cyrene, a disciple of Socrates. The great principle of their doctrine was, that the supreme good of man in this life is pleasure; whereby they not only meant a privation of pain, and a tranquillity of mind, but an assemblage of all mental and sensual pleasures, particularly the last. Cicero makes frequent mention of Aristippus's school; and speaks of it as yielding debauchees. Three disciples of Aristippus, after his death, divided the sect into three branches, viz. the Hegesiac school, the Annicerian, and the Theodoran; from the names of their authors. Under this division it languished and sunk.

**CYRENE**, in ancient geography, the capital of Cyrenaica, and one of the five cities called Pentapolis, distant from Apollonia, its sea-port, ten miles, situated on a plain of the form of a table, according to Strabo. It is now called Caibon.

**CYRILL (St.)**, bishop of Jerusalem, succeeded Maximus in 350. He was afterwards deposed for selling the treasures of the church, and applying the money to the support of the poor during a great famine. Under Julian he was restored to his see, and firmly established in all his honors under Theodosius; in which he continued unmolested to his death in 386. The remains of this father consist only of twenty-three catecheses, and one letter to the emperor Constantius.

**CYRILL (St.)**, patriarch of Alexandria, succeeded Theophilus, his uncle, in 413. Scarcely was he installed, when he began to exert his authority with great vigor; and drove the Nestorians and Jews from Alexandria, permitting their wealth and synagogue to be taken from them. This proceeding highly displeased Orestes, the governor. Upon which a civil war broke out between them; many tumults were raised and some battles fought in the very streets of Alexandria. St. Cyrill also distinguished himself by his zeal against Nestorius bishop of Constantinople, who, in some of his homilies, had asserted that the Virgin Mary ought not to be called the mother of God. The dispute at first proved unfavorable to Cyrill, whose opinion was not only condemned, but himself deprived of his bishopric and thrown into prison. But he was soon after released, and gained a complete victory over Nestorius, who in 431 was deposed from his see of Constantinople. Cyrill returned to his see at Alexandria, where he died in 444. St. Cyrill also wrote against Theodorus of Mopsuestia, Diodorus of Tarsus, and Julian the Apostate. He composed commentaries on St. John's gospel, and wrote several other books. His works were published in Greek and Latin in 1638, in six volumes folio.

**CYRUS THE GREAT**, the founder of the united empire of the Medes and Persians. The two chief historians, who have written the life of Cyrus, are Herodotus and Xenophon; but their accounts of him are extremely different. The former tells us, that Astyages king of the Medes, dreaming that a vine sprung from the womb of his daughter Mandane, the branches whereof overshadowed all Asia, was told by the sooth-

sayers, that this portended the future power and greatness of a child who should be born of his daughter; and further, that this child should deprive him of his kingdom. Astyages, to prevent the accomplishment of the prediction, married his daughter to Cambyzes, a Persian of mean condition, and commanded one of his officers, named Harpagus, to destroy the infant as soon as it came into the world. Harpagus, fearing the resentment of Mandane, put the child into the hands of the king's shepherd. The shepherd's wife, we are told, was so extremely touched with the beauty of Cyrus, that she desired her husband rather to expose her own son, who was born some time before (a story equally unnatural and incredible), and preserve the young prince. Thus Cyrus was brought up among the shepherds of the king, and one day, as the neighbouring children were at play together, being chosen for their prince or chief, he punished one of his comrades with some severity, and the child's parent complained to Astyages. This prince sent therefore for the youthful Cyrus, and observing something noble in his air, together with a great resemblance of his daughter Mandane, he made particular enquiry into his history, and discovered that Cyrus was his grandson. Harpagus, who was the instrument of preserving him, was now punished with the death of his own son; but Astyages, believing that the royalty which the soothsayers had promised to the young prince, was only that which he had lately exercised among the shepherds' children, laid aside his fears. Cyrus being grown up, Harpagus disclosed the secret of his birth to him, with the manner in which he had delivered him from his grandfather's cruelty. He encouraged him to come into Media, and promised to furnish him with forces, in order to make him master of the country, and depose Astyages. Cyrus now, therefore, engaged the Persians to take arms against the Medes, marched at the head of them to meet Astyages, defeated him, and possessed himself of Media. He carried on many other wars; and at length sat down before Babylon, which, after a long siege, he took.

Xenophon's account of the early life of Cyrus is more credible. According to that writer, Astyages king of Media married his daughter Mandane to Cambyzes king of Persia, son and successor to Achæmenes. Cyrus was born at his father's court, and was educated with all the care his birth required. When he was about the age of twelve, his grandfather Astyages sent for him to Media, together with his mother Mandane. Some time after, a prince of Assyria having invaded Media, Astyages, with his son Cyaxares and his grandson Cyrus, marched against him. Cyrus distinguished himself in this war, and defeated the Assyrians. Cambyzes afterwards recalled him, that he might have him near his own person; and Astyages dying, his son Cyaxares, uncle by his mother's side to Cyrus, succeeded him in the kingdom of Media. Cyrus, at the age of thirty, was, by his father Cambyzes, made general of the Persian troops; and sent at the head of 30,000 men to the assistance of his uncle Cyaxares, whom the king of Babylon and his allies, the Cappadocians,

Carians, Phrygians, Cilicians, and Paphlagonians, were preparing to attack. Cyaxares and Cyrus prevented them, by falling upon them and dispersing them. The latter now advanced as far as Babylon, and spread terror throughout the country.

From this expedition he returned to his uncle, towards the frontiers of Armenia and Assyria, and was received by Cyaxares in the tent of the Assyrian king whom he had defeated. After this, Cyrus carried the war into the countries beyond the river Halys, entered Cappadocia, and subdued it entirely. From thence he marched against Crœsus king of Lydia, defeated him in the first battle; then besieged him in Sardis the capital; and after a siege of fourteen days obliged him to surrender. See CRÆSUS. After this Cyrus, having almost reduced all Asia, repassed the Euphrates, and made war upon the Assyrians. He marched directly to Babylon, took it, and there prepared a palace for his uncle Cyaxares. After these expeditions Cyrus returned to his father and mother in Persia, where they were still living; and some time after visiting Cyaxares in Media, he married his cousin the only daughter and heiress of his uncle's dominions, and returned with her to Babylon. He is now stated to have again engaged in several wars, and subdued all the nations which lie between Syria and the Red Sea. He died at the age of seventy years, after a reign of thirty: but authors differ much concerning the manner of his death. Herodotus, Justin, and Valerius Maximus relate, that he died in a war against the Scythians; that falling into an ambush, which their queen Tomyris had laid for him, she ordered his head to be cut off, and cast into a vessel full of blood, saying, 'Thou hast always thirsted after human blood, now glut thyself with it.' Diodorus the Sicilian states, that he was taken in an engagement and hanged. Ctesias assures us, that he died of a wound which he received in his thigh: but by Xenophon's account he died peaceably in his bed, amidst his friends and servants; and certain it is, that in Alexander's time his monument was shown at Pasagarda in Persia. From all this it is obvious, that we are but imperfectly acquainted with the history of this great prince, the founder of the Persian, and destroyer of the Chaldean empire.

Cyrus was monarch of all the east; or as he himself speaks (2 Chr. xxxvi. 22, 23; and Ezra i. 1, 2,) 'of all the earth,' when he permitted the Jews to return into their own country; A.M. 3466, and A.A.C. 538. The enemies of the Hebrews, making use of this prince's affection to his own religion, prevailed with him to countermand his orders for the building of the temple at Jerusalem (Ezra iv. 5). The prophets frequently foretold the coming of Cyrus; and Isa. (xlv. 28) mentions him by name 200 years before he was born. Josephus (Antiq. I. II. c. 2) says, that the Jews of Babylon showed this passage of the prophet to Cyrus, which is extremely probable; and that this prince, in the edict which he granted them for their return, acknowledged that he received the empire of the world from the God of Israel; that the same God had described him by name in the writings of the

prophets; and had foretold that he should build a temple to him at Jerusalem. Cyrus is expressly styled in scripture, 'the Lord's anointed, and the shepherd of Israel,' (Isaiah xlv. 1, and xlv. 28.); and God says of him (Isa. xlv. 5) 'I girded thee, though thou hast not known me.' Daniel is supposed to allude to this prince Chap. viii. v. 3—20, under the figure of the ram. The taking of Babylon by Cyrus was clearly foretold by the prophets. See BABYLONIA and BELSHAZZAR. Archbishop Usher fixes the birth of Cyrus to A. M. 3405; his first year at Babylon to 3466, and his death to 3475.

CYRUS THE YOUNGER, son of Darius Nothus, and brother of Artaxerxes. He was sent by his father at the age of sixteen, to assist the Lacedæmonians against Athens. Artaxerxes succeeded to the throne at the death of Nothus; and Cyrus, mad with ambition, attempted to assassinate him. He was discovered, and would have been punished with death, had not his mother Parysatis saved him by her tears and intreaties. This circumstance did not check the ambition of Cyrus; he was appointed over Lydia and the sea coasts, where he secretly fomented rebellion and levied troops under various pretences. At last he took the field with an army of 100,000 barbarians, and 13,000 Greeks, under the command of Clearchus. Artaxerxes met him with 900,000 men near Cunaxa. The battle was long and bloody; and Cyrus might have perhaps obtained the victory, had not his rashness proved his ruin. It is said that the two royal brothers met in person, and their engagement ended in the death of Cyrus, 401 years before the Augustan age; and Artaxerxes, having boasted that his brother had fallen by his hand, put to death two of his subjects for declaring that they had killed him. The Greeks, who were engaged in the expedition, obtained much glory in the battle; and no less by their retreat, which is particularly recorded by Xenophon, one of their leaders. See XENOPHON.

CYST, or	} <i>Κύστις</i> . A bag containing morbid matter. Contained in a bag. The art or practice of opening or extirpating encysted tumors.
CYSTIS, <i>n. s.</i>	
CYSTICK, <i>adj.</i>	
CYSTOTOMY, <i>n. s.</i>	

In taking it out, the *cystis* broke, and shewed itself by its matter to be a meliceris. *Wiseman's Surgery.*

There may be a consumption, with a purulent spitting, when the vomica is contained in a *cyst* or bag; upon the breaking of which the patient is commonly suffocated. *Arbuthnot.*

The bile is of two sorts: the *cystick*, or that contained in the gall-bladder, a sort of repository for the gall; or the *heatick*, or what flows immediately from the liver. *Id.*

CYTHERA, in ancient geography, an island opposite to Malea a promontory, and to Boæ a town of Laconia; sacred to Venus, with a very ancient temple of that goddess, who was exhibited in armour, as in Cyprus. It is now called Cerigo.

CYTHEREA, in mythology, the surname of Venus, so called from Cythera, her birth-place, where she had a temple, and on the shores of which she was believed to be wafted by the Zephyrs, surrounded by the Cupids, the Graces



ms, and the Nereides, reclining in a languid posture in a sea-shell.

**NUS**, in botany, a genus of the dodecandria, gynandria class of plants; natural venth, samentaceæ: CAL. quadrifid, succor. none; the anthers are sixteen, and the fruit an octolocular polyspermous Species one, a Cape shrub.

**ISUS**, tree treefoil, a genus of the decandria, and diadelphia class of plants; order thirty-second, papilionaceæ: CAL. vel. with the upper lip bifid; inferior, vel. the legume attenuated at the base, re eleven species; of which the most re are, 1. C. Austriacus, the Austrian, rian evergreen cytissus, has a shrubby riding low into many greenish branches, a bushy head three or four feet high, smooth whitish-green leaves, and bright lowers in close umbellate heads at the the branches, having a cluster of leaves ch head. These flowers appear in May. urnum, or large deciduous cytissus, has pright tree-stem, branching into a full g head, twenty or thirty feet high, having greenish branches, oblong oval entire rowing by threes on long slender foot-and from the sides of all the branches a yellow flowers collecting into long angling loosely downward, and appearing

**CENI**, **CYZICENIANS**, the people of , who were noted by the ancients for idity and effeminacy. Hence the pro-endodus and others, tinctura Cyzicénica, a persons guilty of an indecency through a stateres Cyziceni, nummi Cyziceni, rings executed to perfection.

**CUM**, in ancient geography, an island of ontis, on the coast of Mysia; joined to ment by two bridges, the first of which t by Alexander the Great.

**UM**, or **CYZICUS**, one of the noblest the Hither Asia; situated in the above It was a colony of the Milesians, and is or its siege by Mithridates, which was y Lucullus. The inhabitants were e by the Romans, but forfeited their under Tiberius. It was adorned with l and walls; had a port and marble and three magazines, one for arms, for warlike engines, and a third for

l. n. s. } Slav. *czar*, *tzar*, from Per.  
na, n. s. } *tajur*, a crown; *taijzar*, a  
sa, adj. } monarch. The emperor of  
Czarina is the feminine. Relating to

were competitors, the *czar* of Muscovy's son, of Newburg, and the prince of Lorraine.

Browne.

His *czarish* majesty dispatched an express.

The *Tatler*.

The *czarina* was satisfied with introducing them, for she found it impossible to render them polite.

Goldsmith.

**CZASLAU**, or **TZASLAU**, a town of Bohemia, the capital of a circle of the same name, on the Crudinka. It is said to possess the highest spire in Bohemia; and within the beautiful church is interred the famous Zisca. The circle of Czaslau, or Csalau, is enclosed by Moravia, the circle of Tabor, Caurzim, Bitschow and Chrudim. The soil is productive, but the manufactures are not flourishing. It contains eight towns, thirty-three boroughs, and 829 villages.

**CZERNIGOV**, or **TSCHERNIGOV**, a government of European Russia, erected in the year 1781, and lying between those of Mohilev, Smolensko, Orel, Kursk, Pultava, Kiev, and Minsk. The soil is very fertile. It has been augmented beyond its original boundaries by the addition of the government of Novgorod-Sieverskoi; and now contains, according to official returns, 741,850 inhabitants. Czernigov, or Tchernigow, the capital, situated on the right bank of the Desna, is fortified, and is the see of a Greek archbishop. Population 5000. Seventy-five miles north of Kiev, and 344 south-west of Moscow.

**CZERNOVICZ**, or **TSCHERNOWITZ**, a town of Austria, the capital of the Bucharvine, or, more properly, of a circle in Galicia. It is situated at the foot of mountains, on the south bank of the Pruth, on the high road from Lemberg to Jassay, 140 miles south-east of the former, and ninety-five north-west of the latter. It was much enlarged and improved in 1771, and contains 5400 inhabitants. Here is a Greek bishop, a custom-house, a criminal court, a provincial and a charity school. The population of the circle, in 1803, was 195,268.

**CZIRKNITZ ZEE**, a very extraordinary lake of Austria, in Carniola, five miles long and three broad, which annually produces both fish and corn: for, being dry in summer, its bottom is cultivated, and it produces corn, grass, &c.; but about the 29th of September the water rushes in from several subterraneous passages, which, with the rains and streams that fall from the mountains, quickly fill it again for the winter season. These subterraneous passages are probably connected with some gulf, the ebbing or flowing of whose waters depend upon periodical winds or currents.

**CZONGRAD**, a market town of Hungary, in a county of the same name, situated at the conflux of the Korosch and the Theyss.

**CZONGRAD**, a county of Hungary, enclosed by the counties of Hewesch, Bekesch, Chonad, Batsch, Pesth, and Little Cumania. It is thirty miles in length and eighteen in breadth.



## D.

D. The fourth letter of the Hebrew, Syriac, Greek, Latin, and French languages, is traced by Minshew in its shape to the Heb  $\daleth$ , signifying, says he, a gate, which the figure of this letter partly resembles. Hence, with a slight alteration, came the Greek  $\Delta$ , and by rounding two of the angles of the delta, the Roman *D*.

*D* is generally ranked among the lingual letters, having a middle sound between *t* and *th*, formed by a stronger impulse of the tongue to the roof of the mouth than the former letter. In Latin words the *t* and *d* are often changed for one another, as *at* for *ad*, *set* for *sed*, *haut* for *haut*, &c. And in the formation of words from the Latin, *di* frequently assumes the shape of *gi* or *j*, as *journal* for *diurnal*. In English the sound of *d* never varies, nor is it ever mute. *D*, as a numeral, signifies five hundred; *D*, five thousand.

DAB, *v. a. & n.*

DA'BLE, *v. a. & n.*

DA'BLE, *n. s.*

DA'B-CHICK.

Belg. *dabben*, *dabbelen*; Fr. *dauber*. All probably, as Minshew suggests, from the sound of mud, when struck. To dab is to apply something soft or moist, as to a sore; to strike a soft blow. Dab, as a substantive, is a low word for a man expert at something: also a small fish. Mr. Todd thinks it a corruption of adept, adab. To dabble is to move about; to strike, or strike in water or mud; and, by consequence, to smear, daub, or bespatter: metaphorically, to 'meddle without mastery,' as Dr. Johnson well says; and hence a dabbler is 'a superficial meddler.' A dab-chick is a small water-fowl. We first illustrate dab.

A sore should never be wiped by drawing a piece of tow or rag over it, but only by *dabbing* it with fine lint.

Sharp.

Of flat fish there are rays, flawks, *dabs*, plaice.

Carew.

One writer excels at—a title-page; another works away at the body of the book; and the third is a dab at an index.

Goldsmith's *Essays*.

A shadow, like an angel, with bright hair

Dabbled in blood.

Shakespeare. *Richard III.*

The little one complained of her legs, that she could neither swim nor dabble with them.

L'Estrange.

Neither will a spirit, that dwells with stars, dabble in this impurer mind.

Glauville's *Apol.*

I scarified, and dabbled the wound with oil of turpentine.

Wiseman's *Surgery*.

But when he found the boys at play,

And saw them dabbling in their clay,

He stood behind a stall to lurk,

And mark the progress of their work.

Swift.

He dares not complain of the tooth-ach, lest our dabblers in politicks should be ready to swear against him for disaffection.

Id.

Shakespeare shall be put into your hands, as clean and as fair as it came out of them: though you, I think, have been dabbling here and there with the

text, I have had more reverence for the writer and the printer, and have left every thing standing.

Atterbury to Pope.

A dab-chick waddles through the copse

On feet and wings, and wades, and flies, and hops.

Pope.

DA CAPO, (Ital. from the head), in music, an Italian term signifying that the beginning of the tune is to be repeated to complete the piece.

DACCA JELALPORE, an important and productive district of Bengal, situated for the greater part between the twenty-third and twenty-fourth degrees of northern latitude. It is bounded on the north by Mymensingh, on the east by Tipperah, on the south by Backergunge, and on the west by Ranjeshahy and Jessore. It contains a great number of valuable zemindaries or estates, and is every where intersected by the Ganges and Brahmapootra, and their various branches, so that every town of consequence has its river or canal. These rivers, however, frequently occasion considerable damage by their inundations. In this district it is not uncommon to find fields of rice covered with water, six or eight feet deep. Rice is its principal produce, and has been sold, in cheap years, at the rate of 640 lbs. the rupee. Its other productions of consequence are the betel nut, tobacco, and cotton; but it imports large quantities of the last article, which is manufactured in every town and village. Its muslins are very fine and delicate. A deputy of the nabob, called the naib nazim, was the chief of this district during the Mahomedan government: the last person who held this office was Jessarut Khan, who having been ordered in 1763, by the nabob Cossim Aly Khan, to put all the English at Dacca to death, kindly put them on board boats, and sent them under the protection of a guard to Calcutta; in reward for which he was appointed, after the expulsion of his master, to act in his former office on behalf of the British, and, on his decease, a pension was settled on his family, and the eldest son honored with the title of nabob. The principal towns of this district are Dacca, Narraingunge, Sunergong, and Rajanagur. It contains nearly 1,000,000 inhabitants, most of whom are Mahomedans.

DACCA, a considerable city of Bengal, capital of the foregoing district, and for eighty years the capital of Bengal, when it was called Jehangireanagur. It is the residence of a judge, collector, &c., and is situated on the north bank of the Boor Gunga (Old Ganges), which is here very deep and broad, at the distance of about 100 miles from the sea. The best houses are built of brick, but the bazaars are often thatched; and every vacant spot is filled with trees. The French, Dutch, and English East India Companies had factories here at an early period: those of the two former are gone to decay. The ancient citadel at the west end of the town is in ruins, but the palace or Pooshteh is in good repair. In this city are manufactured beautiful muslins, and shell bracelets much worn by the



Hindoo ladies. The hot winds which pervade almost all other parts of India, are, through the abundant irrigation of the neighbourhood, little felt here. The months of September and October are, however, unhealthy. The neighbourhood abounds with game of all sorts, from the tiger to the quail. Provisions and fish are also here very cheap and abundant. Distant by land from Calcutta, 180 miles.

**DACE**, *n. s.*, called also **DACE** and **DART**, provincially. Sax. dagian, from dag to shine as in Lat. *luciscit*, *luciscus*; a small fish.

Let me live harmlessly, and near the brink  
Of Trent or Avon have a dwelling place;  
Where I may see my quill or cork down sink  
With eager bite of perch, or bleak, or dace. *Walton*.

**DACE**, in ichthyology, a species of *CYPRINUS*, which see.

**DACIA**, in ancient geography, a country which Trajan, who reduced it to a province, joined to Moesia by an admirable bridge. This country lies extended between the Danube and the Carpathian Mountains, from the river Tibiscus, quite to the north bend of the Danube; so as to extend thence in a direct line to the mouth of the Danube and to the Euxine; being on the north next the Carpathes, terminated by the river Hierasus, now called the Pruth; on the west by the Tibiscus or Teiss; and comprising a part of Upper Hungary, all Transylvania and Walachia, and a part of Moldavia.

**DACIA AURELIANA**, a part of ancient Illyricum, which was divided into the eastern and western; Sirmium being the capital of the latter, and Sardia of the former.

**DACIER** (Andrew), was born at Castres in Upper Languedoc, 1651, and studied at Saumur under Tannegui le Fevre, then engaged in the instruction of his celebrated daughter, who became Madame Dacier. The duke of Montausier, hearing of his merit, engaged him in an edition of Pompeius Festus, which he published in 1681. His edition of Horace printed at Paris in ten volumes, 12mo., and his other works, raised him to great reputation. He was made a member of the Academy of Inscriptions in 1695. When the history of Louis XIV. by medals was finished, he was chosen to present it to his majesty; who settled upon him a pension of 2000 livres, and appointed him keeper of the books of the king's closet. When that post was united to that of library keeper to the king, he was not only continued in the privileges of his place during life, but the survivance was granted to his wife, a favor of which there had been no former instance. The death, however, of Madame Dacier in 1720, rendered this grant, which was so honorable to her, ineffectual. He died September 18th, 1722, of an ulcer in the throat.

**DACIER** (Anne), daughter of Tannegui le Fevre, professor of Greek at Saumur in France, went after her father's death to Paris, whither her fame had already reached: she was then preparing an edition of Callimachus, which she published in 1674. Having shown some sheets of it to M. Huet, preceptor to the dauphin, and to several other men of learning, the work was so highly admired, that the duke of Montausier made a proposal to her of publishing several

Latin authors for the use of the dauphin. She now, therefore, undertook an edition of Florus, published in 1674. Her reputation being soon after spread over Europe, Christina, queen of Sweden, ordered count Konigsmark to compliment her, and offer her a settlement at Stockholm, in return for which Mademoiselle le Fevre sent the queen a Latin letter, with her edition of Florus. In 1683 she married M. Dacier; and soon after declared her design of reconciling herself to the church of Rome. Both she and her husband made their public abjuration in 1685. In 1693 she applied herself to the education of her son and daughter; the former, however, died in 1694, and the daughter, after making great attainments, became a nun in the abbey of Longchamp. Her mother has immortalised her memory in the preface to her translation of the Iliad. Madame Dacier was in a very infirm state of health the last two years of her life; and died, after a painful sickness, August 17th, 1720, aged sixty-nine.

**DACOLITHUS**, in ichthyology, a name given by zoologists to a small fish, supposed to be a species of loache, and called by Ray and some others cobitis barbatulea aculeata. It is a very small fish, seldom exceeding two or at most three inches in length. The head is broader and flatter than the body: its back is of a dusky brown color spotted with black, and its belly yellow. It has two beards on each side of the upper jaw; and on the coverings of the gills, on each side, two prickles, or a double-pointed sharp hook, whereby it moves itself among the stones. It delights in shallow waters, with a stony bottom, and spawns in May and June.

**DACTYLE**, *n. s.* } Gr. *δακτυλος*, a finger,  
**DACTILET**, } (from *δεικω* to point) be-  
**DACTYLIC**, *adj.* } cause composed of three  
parts, the first longer than either of the others; Minshew. A poetical foot, consisting of one long syllable and two short, like the joints of a finger; as *cāndidūs*. Bishop Hall uses dactilet as a diminutive.

The nimble *dactils*, striving to outgo  
The drawing spondees, pacing it below:  
The lingering spondees, labouring to delay  
The breathlesse *dactils*, with a sudden stay.  
Whoever saw a colt, wanton and wilde,  
Yoked with a slow-foote oxe on fallow field,  
Can right areed how handsomly besets  
Dull Spoudees with the English *dactilets*.

*Bp. Hall. Satires, i. 6.*

A *dactyl* has the first syllable accented, and the two latter unaccented: as, labourer, possible.

*Murray. On Prosody.*

The *dactylic* measure being very uncommon, we shall give only one example of one species of it.

From the low pleasures of this fallen nature,  
Rise we to higher, &c.

*Id.*

**DACTYLE**. The dactyle is said to have been the invention of Dionysius or Bacchus, who delivered oracles in this measure at Delphos, before Apollo. The Greeks call it *πολιτικός*. The dactyl and spondee are the most considerable of the poetical feet; as being the measures used in heroic verse, by Homer, Virgil, &c. These two are of equal time, but not equal motion.



**DACTYLETHRA**, or **DACTYLITRA**, digitalis, among the ancient physicians, a medicine used to excite vomiting. It was a sort of topical application, and is described at large by Oribasius.

**DACTYLIC VERSES** are hexameter verses, ending in a dactyle instead of a spondee; as spondaic verses are those which have a spondee in the fifth foot instead of a dactyle. An instance of a dactylic verse occurs in Virgil: *Æn.* i. 33.

*Bis patriæ cecidere manus: quin protinus omnia.*

**DACTYLI IDÆI**, q. d. the Fingers of Mount Ida, in pagan mythology, personages very differently described by ancient authors. The Cretans paid divine worship to them, as to those who had nursed and brought up the god Jupiter; whence it appears, that they were the same as the Corybantes and Curetes. Nevertheless Strabo makes them different; and says, that the tradition in Phrygia was, that the 'Curetes and Corybantes were descended from the Dactyli Idæi: that there were originally 100 men in the island, who were called Dactyli Idæi; from whom sprang nine Curetes, and each of these nine produced ten men, as many as the fingers of a man's two hands; and that this gave the name to the ancestors of the Dactyli Idæi.' He relates another opinion, which is, that there were but five Dactyli Idæi; who, according to Sophocles, were the inventors of iron: that these five brothers had five sisters, and that from this number they took the name of fingers of Mount Ida, because they were in number ten; and that they worked at the foot of this mountain. Diodorus Siculus says, 'the first inhabitants of the island of Crete were the Dactyli Idæi, who had their residence on mount Ida: that some said they were 100; others only five, in numbers equal to the fingers of a man's hand, whence they had the name of Dactyli: that they were magicians, and addicted to mystical ceremonies: that Orpheus was their disciple, and carried their mysteries into Greece: that the Dactyli invented the use of iron and fire, and that they had been recompensed with divine honors.' Diomedes the grammarian says, the Dactyli Idæi were priests of the goddess Cybele: called Idæi, because that goddess was chiefly worshipped on Mount Ida in Phrygia; and Dactyli, because that, to prevent Saturn from hearing the cries of infant Jupiter, whom Cybele had committed to their custody, they used to sing certain verses of their own invention, in the Dactylic measure. Strabo gives us the names of four of the Dactyli Idæi: viz. Salaminus, Damnanæus, Hercules, and Acmon. See **CORYBANTES**, **CRETE**, and **CURETES**.

**DACTYLIOMANCY**, or **DACTYLIOMANTIA** from *δακτυλιος*, a ring, and *μαντεια*, divination, a sort of divination performed by means of a ring. It consisted in holding a ring, suspended by a fine thread, over a round table, on the edge of which were made divers marks with the letters of the alphabet. The ring in shaking, or vibrating over the table, stopped over certain of the letters, which, being joined together, composed the answer required.

**DACTYLIS**, in botany, cock's foot grass;

a genus of the digynia order, and triandria class of plants; natural order fourth, gramina: calbivalved and compressed, with the one valve longer than the other, carinated, or having the rachis prominent and sharp. There are two species, both natives of Britain; viz. 1. *D. cynosuroides*, the smooth cock's foot grass, which grows in marshy places; and 2. *D. glomeratus*, the rough cock's foot grass, which is common in meadows and pasture grounds. It is eaten by horses, sheep, and goats; but refused by cows.

**DACTYLONOMIA**, or **DACTYLONOMY**, from *δακτυλος*, and *νομος*, a rule, the art of numbering by the fingers. The rule is this; the left thumb is reckoned one; the index or fore finger two; and so on to the right thumb, which stands for the cypher.

**DACTYLUS**, in zoology, a name given by Pliny to the pholas. In Toulon harbour, and the road, are found solid hard stones, perfectly entire; containing, in different cells, secluded from all communication with the air, several living shell-fish, of an exquisite taste, called dactyli, i. e. dates: to come at these fish the stones are broken with mauls. Along the coast of Ancona, in the Adriatic, are stones usually weighing about fifty pounds, and sometimes even more, the outside rugged and easily broken, but the inside so hard as to require a strong arm and an iron maul to break them; within them, and in separate niches, are found small shell-fish, quite alive and very palatable, called solenes and cappe laughe. These facts are attested by Gassendi, Blondel, Mayol, the learned bishop of Sultrara, and more particularly by Aldrovandi, a physician of Bologna. The two latter speak of it as a common fact, which they themselves saw.

**DADUCHI**, Gr. *δαδυχες*, torch-bearers, in antiquity, priests of Ceres. The goddess having lost her daughter Proserpine, say mythologists, began to make search for her at the beginning of the night. In order to do this in the dark, she lighted a torch, and thus set forth on her travels throughout the world: for which reason she is represented with a lighted torch in her hand. In commemoration of this pretended exploit, it became a custom for the priests, at the feasts and sacrifices of this goddess, to run about in the temple with torches after this manner:—one of them took a lighted torch from off the altar, and, holding it with his hand, ran with it to a certain part of the temple, where he gave it to another, saying to him, *tibi trado*: the second ran after the like manner to another part of the temple, and gave it to the third, and he to another and so on.

**DAD**, *n. s.* } Heb. *דוד*, *dodh*, beloved; Gr.

**DAD'DY**. } *atta*; Hind. *ata*; Lat. *tata*; Goth. *atta*; Fr. *papa*. One among those familiar words with which, in all languages, children first salute their father; and which are universally compounds of *a* and *t* or *d*; or *a* and *b* or *p*.

I was never so bethump with words,

Since first I called my brother's father *dad*.

*Shakespeare.*

His loving mother left him to my care,

Fine child, as like his *dad* as he could stare.

*Gray.*



**DADE**, *v. a.* *Dut. douden.* To hold up by a leading string.

The little children when they learn to go,  
By painful mothers *daded* it and fro. *Drayton.*

**DÆDAL**, *adj.* *Lat. dadalus; Gr. δαιδαλλω;* to variegate skillfully, first applied to needlework. Why Dr. Johnson warns us against using the word with this meaning is difficult to divine. See Ainsworth, and the fine example from Spenser. Various; variegated. Skillful.

But living art may not least part expresse,  
Nor life resembling pencill it can paynt,  
All were *Zeuxis* or *Praxiteles*;  
His *Dædale* hand would faile and greatly faynt,  
And her perfections with his error taynt.  
*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

Nor hath

The *dædal* hand of nature only poured  
Her gifts of outward grace.

*Philips.*

**DÆDALA**, two festivals in Bœotia; one of them observed in Alalcomenós by the Plateans in a large grove, where they exposed in the open air pieces of boiled flesh, and carefully observed whither the crows that came to prey upon them directed their flight. All the trees upon which any of these birds alighted were immediately cut down, and with them statues were made, called *Dædala*, in honor of Dædalus. The other festival was of a more solemn kind. It was celebrated every sixty years by all the cities of Bœotia, as a compensation for the intermission of the smaller festivals, for that number of years, during the exile of the Plateans. Fourteen of the statues called *Dædala* were distributed by lot among the Plateans, Lebæans, Coroneans, Orchomenians, Thebians, Tanagraeans, and Chæroneans, because they had effected a reconciliation among the Plateans, and caused them to be recalled from exile about the time that Thebes was restored by Cassander, the son of Antipater. During this festival a woman, in the habit of a bride-maid, accompanied a statue which was dressed in female garments, on the banks of the Eurotas. This procession was attended to the top of Mount Cithæron by many of the Bœotians, who had places assigned them by lot. Here an altar of square pieces of wood cemented together like stones was erected, and upon it were thrown large quantities of combustible materials. Afterwards a bull was sacrificed to Jupiter, and an ox or heifer to Juno, by every one of the cities of Bœotia, and by the most opulent that attended. The poorest citizens offered small cattle; and all these oblations, together with *Dædala*, were thrown into the common heap and set on fire, and totally reduced to ashes. They originated in this fable.—When Juno, after a quarrel with Jupiter, had retired to Eubœa, and refused to return to his bed, the god, anxious for her return, went to consult Cithæron king of Platea, to find some effectual measure to break her obstinacy. Cithæron advised him to dress a statue in woman's apparel, and carry it in a chariot, and publicly to report that it was Platea the daughter of Asopus, whom he was going to marry. The advice was followed; and Juno, informed of her husband's future marriage, repaired in haste to meet the chariot, and was

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easily united to him when she discovered the artful measures he made use of to effect a reconciliation.

**DÆDALUS**, in fabulous history, the son of Eupalamus, descended from Erectheus king of Athens. He was the most ingenious artist of his age; and to him we are said to be indebted for the invention of the wedge, with many other mechanical instruments; as well as the sails of ships. He made statues, we are told, which moved of themselves, and seemed to be endowed with life. After the murder of Talus, he, with his son Icarus, fled from Athens to Crete, where Minos gave him a cordial reception. Dædalus made a famous labyrinth for Minos, and assisted Pasiphae the queen to gratify her unnatural passion for a bull. For this action Dædalus incurred the displeasure of Minos, who ordered him to be confined in the labyrinth which he had constructed. Here he made himself wings with feathers and wax, and carefully fitted them to his body and that of his son, who was the companion of his confinement. They took their flight in the air from Crete; but the heat of the sun melted the wax on the wings of Icarus, whose flight was too high, and he fell into that part of the ocean, which from him has been called the Icarian Sea. The father, by a proper management of his wings, alighted at Cumæ, where he built a temple to Apollo, and thence directed his course to Sicily, where he was kindly received by Cocalus, who reigned over part of the country. He left many monuments of his ingenuity in Sicily, which still existed in the age of Diodorus Siculus. He was despatched by Cocalus, who was afraid of the power of Minos, who had declared war against him because he had given an asylum to Dædalus. The flight of Dædalus from Crete, with wings, is explained by observing that he was the inventor of sails, which in his age might pass at a distance for wings. He lived about A. A. C. 1400.

**DÆMON**, *δαίμων*, a name given by the ancients to certain spirits or genii, which they say appeared to men both to do them service and to injure them. The word is derived, according to Plato, in his Cratylus, from *δαίμων*, knowing or intelligent; but according to others from *δαίμαι*, to distribute. They held a middle rank between the celestial gods and men, and carried on all intercourse between them. It was the opinion of many that the celestial divinities did not themselves interpose in human affairs, but committed the entire administration of the government of this lower world to these subaltern deities. Hence they became the objects of worship. 'If idols are nothing,' says Celsus (Origen cont. Cels. lib. viii. p. 393), 'what harm can there be to join in the public festivals? If they are daemons, then it is certain that they are gods, in whom we are to confide, and to whom we should offer sacrifices and prayers, to render them propitious.' Plutarch teaches, Vit. Romul. p. 36, ed. Paris, 'that according to a divine nature and justice, the souls of virtuous men are advanced to the rank of daemons; and that from daemons, if they are properly purified, they are exalted into gods, not by any political institution, but according to right reason.' He

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says in another place, *de Is. et Osir.* p. 361, 'that Isis and Osiris were, for their virtue, changed from good dæmons into gods, as were Hercules and Bacchus afterwards, receiving the united honors both of gods and dæmons.' The word dæmon is used indifferently in a good and in a bad sense. In the former sense it is very common among the ancient heathens. Pythagoras held that dæmons sent diseases to men and cattle. Diogen. Laert. Vit. Pythag. Zaleucus, in his preface to his Laws, supposes that an evil dæmon might be present with a man to influence him to justice. The dæmons of Empedocles were evil spirits, and exiles from heaven. And Plutarch in his life of Dion says, 'it was the opinion of the ancients that evil and mischievous dæmons, out of envy and hatred to good men, oppose whatever they do.' Scarce did any opinion more generally prevail in ancient times than this, viz. that as the departed souls of good men became good dæmons, so the departed souls of bad men became evil dæmons. Besides the two forementioned kinds of dæmons, the fathers, as well as the ancient philosophers, held a third, viz. such as sprang from the congress of superior beings with the daughters of men. In the theology of the fathers these were the worst kind of dæmons. Different orders of dæmons had different stations and employments assigned them by the ancients. Good dæmons were considered as the authors of good to mankind; evil dæmons brought innumerable evils both upon men and beasts. Amongst evil dæmons there was a great distinction with respect to the offices assigned them; some compelled men to wickedness, others stimulated them to madness. See DÆMONIAC. Much has been said concerning the dæmon of Socrates; who declared to the world that a friendly spirit, whom he called his dæmon, directed him how to act on every important occasion in his life, and restrained him from imprudence of conduct. See SOCRATES.

We have seen above, not only the meaning of the word dæmon, but how the ancients worshipped dæmons. They were of various orders, and, according to the situation over which they presided, had different names. Hence the Greek and Roman poets talk of satyrs, dryads, nymphs, fauns, &c. &c. See MYTHOLOGY. These different orders of intelligences, which, though worshipped as gods or demigods, were yet believed to partake of human passions and appetites, led the way to the deification of departed heroes, and other eminent benefactors of the human race; and from this latter probably arose the belief of natural and tutelar gods, as well as the practice of worshipping these gods through the medium of statues cut into a human figure. Dæmons, however, were not more zealously worshipped among the heathens, than they have been among Christians. Bishop Newton, after establishing the meaning of Paul's prophetic words, 1 Tim. iv. 1, above referred to, as corresponding exactly to the heathen dæmon worship, says, 'It appears then that the doctrines of dæmons, which prevailed so long in the heathen world, should be revived and established in the Christian church; and is not the worship of saints and angels now in all respects the same that

the worship of dæmons was in former times? The name only is different, the thing is identically the same.'

DÆMONIAC, a human being, whose volition and other mental faculties are overpowered and restrained, and his body possessed and actuated, by some created spiritual being of superior power. Such seems to be the determinate sense of the word; but it is disputed whether any of mankind ever were in this unfortunate condition.

It is the opinion of some, that neither good nor evil spirits are known to exert such authority at present over the human race: but in the ancient heathen world, and among the Jews, particularly in the days of our Saviour, evil spirits, at least, are thought by many to have possessed more influence than they do now. The Greeks and Romans imagined that their deities, to reveal future events, frequently entered into the prophet or prophetess who was consulted, overpowered their faculties, and uttered responses with their organs of speech. Apollo was believed to enter into the Pythoness, and to dictate the prophetic answers received by those who consulted her. Other oracles, besides that of Delphi, were supposed to unfold futurity by the same machinery. And in various other cases, either malignant dæmons or benevolent deities were thought to enter into, and to actuate, human beings. The *Lymphatici*, the *Cerriti*, the *Larvati*, of the Romans, were all of this description; and the Greeks, by the use of the word *δαίμονιοι*, show that they referred to this cause the origin of madness. Among the ancient heathens, therefore, it appears to have been a generally received opinion, that superior beings entered occasionally into men, overpowered the faculties of their minds, and actuated their bodily organs. They might imagine that this happened in instances in which the effects were owing to the operation of different causes; but an opinion so generally prevalent had surely some plausible foundation. The Jews, too, both from the sacred writings, and Josephus, appear to have believed in dæmoniacal possession. The case of Saul may be recollected as one among many in which superior created beings were believed by the Jews to exert in this manner their influence over human life. The general tenor of their history and language, and their doctrines concerning good and evil spirits, prove the opinion of dæmoniacal possession to have been well known and generally received among them.

We shall here subjoin the chief popular arguments on each side of this interesting subject, and add a few remarks. Those who are unwilling to allow that angels or devils have ever intermeddled with the concerns of human life, urge a number of specious arguments. The Greeks and Romans of old, say they, did believe in the reality of dæmoniacal possession. They supposed that spiritual beings did at times enter into the sons or daughters of men, and distinguish themselves in that situation by capricious freaks, deeds of wanton mischief, or prophetic enunciations. But, in the instances in which they supposed this to happen, it is evident that no such thing took place. Their accounts of the



state and conduct of those persons whom they believed to be possessed in this supernatural manner, show plainly that what they ascribed to the influence of dæmons were merely the effects of natural diseases. Whatever they relate concerning the *larvati*, the *ceriti*, and the *lymphatici*, shows that these were merely people disordered in mind, in the same unfortunate situation with those madmen and idiots, and melancholy persons, whom we have among ourselves. Festus describes the *larvati* as being *furiosi et mentemoti*. Plato, in his *Timæus*, says, *αδεις γαρ ειναις οραπτεται μαρτικης ενθους, αληθους*. Lucian describes dæmoniacs as lunatic, and as staring with their eyes, foaming at the mouth, and being speechless. It appears still more evidently, that all the persons spoken of as possessed with devils in the New Testament, were either mad or epileptic, and precisely in the same condition with the madmen and epileptics of modern times. The Jews, among other reproaches which they threw out against our Saviour, said, He hath a devil, and is mad: why hear ye him? The expressions, he hath a devil, and is mad, were certainly used on this occasion as synonymous. With all their virulence they would not surely ascribe to him at once two things that were inconsistent and contradictory. Those who thought more favorably of the character of Jesus, asserted concerning his discourses, in reply to his adversaries, These are not the words of him that hath a dæmon; meaning, no doubt, that he spoke in a more rational manner than a madman could be expected to speak. The Jews appear to have ascribed to the influence of dæmons, not only that species of madness in which the patient is raving and furious, but also melancholy madness. Of John, who secluded himself from intercourse with the world, and was distinguished for abstinence and acts of mortification, they said, He hath a dæmon. The youth, whose father applied to Jesus to free him from an evil spirit, describing his unhappy condition in these words, Have mercy on my son for he is lunatic, and sore vexed with a dæmon; for oftentimes he falleth into the fire, and oft into the water, was plainly epileptic. Every thing, indeed, that is related in the New Testament concerning dæmoniacs, proves that they were people affected with such natural diseases as are far from being uncommon among mankind in the present age. When the symptoms of disorders cured by our Saviour and his apostles, as cases of dæmoniacal possession, correspond so exactly with those of diseases well known as natural in the present age, it would be absurd to impute them to a supernatural cause. It is much more consistent with common sense and sound philosophy, to suppose, that our Saviour and his apostles wisely, and with that condescension to the weakness and prejudices of those with whom they conversed, which so eminently distinguished the character of the author of our holy religion, and must always be a prominent feature in the character of the true Christian, adopted the vulgar language in speaking of those unfortunate persons who were groundlessly imagined to be possessed with dæmons, though they well knew the notions which had given rise to such modes of expression

to be all founded, than to imagine that diseases which arise at present from natural causes, were produced in days of old by the intervention of dæmons, or that evil spirits still continue to enter into mankind in all cases of madness, melancholy, or epilepsy. Besides, it is by no means a sufficient reason for receiving any doctrine as true, that it has been generally received through the world. Error, like an epidemical disease, is communicated from one to another. In certain circumstances, too, the influence of imagination predominates, and restrains the exertions of reason. Many false opinions have extended their influence through a very wide circle, and maintained it long. On every such occasion as the present, therefore, it becomes us to inquire, not so much how generally any opinion has been received, or how long it has prevailed, as from what cause it has originated, and on what evidence it rests. When we contemplate the frame of nature, we behold a grand and beautiful simplicity prevailing through the whole. Notwithstanding its immense extent, and though it contains such numberless diversities of being, yet the simplest machine constructed by human art does not display greater simplicity, or a happier connexion of parts. We may therefore infer, by analogy, from what is observable of the order of nature in general to the present case, that to permit evil spirits to intermeddle with the concerns of human life, would be to break through that order which the Deity appears to have established through his works; it would be to introduce a degree of confusion unworthy of the wisdom of Divine Providence.

In opposition to these arguments the following are urged by the Dæmonianists. In the days of our Saviour, it would appear that dæmoniacal possession was very frequent among the Jews and the neighbouring nations. Many were the evil spirits whom Jesus is related in the gospels to have ejected from patients that were brought unto him as possessed and tormented by those malevolent dæmons. His apostles, too, and the first Christians, who were most active and successful in the propagation of Christianity, appear to have often exerted the miraculous powers with which they were endowed on similar occasions. The dæmons displayed a degree of knowledge and malevolence which sufficiently distinguished them from human beings: and the language in which the dæmoniacs are mentioned, and the actions and sentiments ascribed to them in the New Testament, show that our Saviour and his apostles did not consider the idea of dæmoniacal possession as being merely a vulgar error concerning the origin of a disease or diseases produced by natural causes. The more enlightened cannot always avoid the use of metaphorical modes of expression; which, though founded upon error, yet have been so established in language by the influence of custom, that they cannot be suddenly dismissed. But in descriptions of characters, in the narration of facts, and in the laying down of systems of doctrine, we require different rules to be observed. Should any person, in compliance with popular opinions, talk in serious language of the existence, dispositions, declarations, and actions of a race of



beings whom he knew to be absolutely fabulous, we surely could not praise him for integrity: we must suppose him to be either exulting in irony over the weak credulity of those around him, or taking advantage of their weakness, with the dishonesty and the selfish views of an impostor. And if he himself should pretend to any connexion with this imaginary system of beings; and should claim, in consequence of his connexion with them, particular honors from his contemporaries; whatever might be the dignity of his character in all other respects, nobody could hesitate to brand him as an impostor. In this light must we regard the conduct of our Saviour and his apostles, if the idea of dæmoniacal possession were to be considered merely as a vulgar error. They talked and acted as if they believed that evil spirits had actually entered into those who were brought to them as possessed with devils, and as if those spirits had been actually expelled by their authority out of the unhappy persons whom they had possessed. They demanded, too, to have their professions and declarations believed, in consequence of their performing such mighty works, and having thus triumphed over the powers of hell. The reality of dæmoniacal possession stands upon the same evidence with the gospel system in general. Nor is there any thing unreasonable in this doctrine. It does not appear to contradict those ideas, which the general appearances of nature and the series of events suggest, concerning the benevolence and wisdom of the Deity, by which he regulates the affairs of the universe. We often fancy ourselves able to comprehend things to which our understanding is wholly inadequate: we persuade ourselves at times that the whole extent of the works of the Deity must be well known to us, and that his designs must always be such as we can fathom. We are then ready whenever any difficulty arises to us, in considering the conduct of Providence, to model things according to our own ideas; to deny that the Deity can possibly be the author of things which we cannot reconcile; and to assert that he must act on every occasion in a manner consistent with our narrow views. This is the pride of reason; and it seems to have suggested the strongest objections that have been at any time urged against the reality of dæmoniacal possession. But the Deity may surely connect one order of his creatures with another. We perceive mutual relations and a beautiful connexion to prevail through all that part of nature which falls within the sphere of our observation. The inferior animals are connected with mankind, and subjected to their authority, not only in instances in which it is exerted for their advantage, but even where it is tyrannically abused to their destruction. Among the evils to which mankind have been subjected, why might not their being liable to dæmoniacal possession be one? While the Supreme Being retains the sovereignty of the universe, he may employ whatever agents he thinks proper in the execution of his purposes: he may either commission an angel or let loose a devil, as well as bend the human will, or communicate any particular impulse to matter. All that revelation makes known, all that human

reason can conjecture, concerning the existence of various orders of spiritual beings, good and bad, is perfectly consistent with, and even favorable to, the doctrine of dæmoniacal possession. It is mentioned in the New Testament in such language, and such narratives are related concerning it, that the gospels cannot well be regarded in any other light than as pieces of imposture, and Jesus Christ must be considered as a man who took advantage of the weakness and ignorance of his contemporaries, if this doctrine be nothing but a vulgar error. It teaches nothing inconsistent with the general conduct of providence. In short, it is not the caution of philosophy, but the pride of reason, that suggests objections against this doctrine.

Such are the leading arguments generally urged on this subject; the reader must of course judge for himself between them; but we cannot dismiss the article without a few additional remarks. It is argued by those who deny the influence of demons or evil spirits, that to permit such an influence on the concerns of human life, would be to break through that order which the Deity appears to have established throughout his works, and to introduce a degree of confusion unworthy of the Divine Providence. This, to say the least of it, is a most gratuitous assertion. For surely those who make it are well aware of the existence of much real evil in the affairs of human life, and yet the Divine government moves on with a regularity and an order that cannot fail to excite the admiration of every well-disposed mind. Now to meet the objection in all its bearings, we would ask those who make it, whether they think that all the evil which they see existing around them, or any part of it, is effected without the medium of any kind of agency? This, we conceive, no rational man would venture to maintain. The question then is simply this,—of what nature is this agency? To this question, as the point at issue rests solely on the authority of Divine Revelation, we reply,—it is of a purely spiritual nature, and has its origin in the spiritual world. The existence of such agency, both of a good and of an evil nature, is as clearly taught as any fact made known by the sacred writings. It is by means of it that the various affections of the human mind are produced; nor would any difficulty be experienced by us on this point were we constantly to keep in mind that man, in his present state, is intimately connected with both worlds; with the invisible by means of his spirit, and with the visible or material world by means of his body. The cases of dæmoniacal possession that occurred during the time of Christ's sojourning on earth were exactly what, from the information of Scripture, might have been expected to take place. The Eternal (according to the opinion of a vast body of Christians) assumed the human nature, that in it He might, in the sight of mankind, effect their deliverance from the infernal influence which threatened their destruction. This was accomplished by His passing through a series of the most unparalleled trials, which terminated in a conflict unutterably awful. The numerous cases of dæmoniacal possession that are introduced to



in the sacred history appear to have many specimens of the ascendancy its influence had gained, and the certainty of its being removed; for we find, in the story, that the evil spirit was cast out: and it was no obscure allusion that Jesus thus when in the immediate prospect of great conflict with the invisible powers, and in reference to the grand effect of triumph over them in the spiritual world.

'Now is the judgment of this world: all the prince of this world be cast out.' This very declaration seem to allude to the instance of such possessions being less since that time? We say less frequent, we think there can be no doubt but that instances of extraordinary evil agency are, for purposes, still permitted to appear in the world; although certainly, in no case, to the extent as before our Lord's subjugation of the powers of evil. We do not deny that superstition has augmented the number of these; yet it is not easy to specify some cases that have claims on the most rational and enlightened belief.

DAEMONIACS, in church history, a sect whose chief tenet was said to be, that the devils were saved at the end of the world.

DAFF, *v. a. & n. s.* } Goth. *doef*; Fr. *dofiva*, *n. s.* } to stupify. But Dr. Johnson says our word daff, or daft, is a corruption of daff, or throw aside, and the examples of Shakespeare seem to justify him. To cast about. A person treated contemptuously; or coward.

When this jape is told another day,  
I'll be halden a daffe or a cokenay,  
I arise and aunte it by my fay:  
For daff is unsely, thus men say.

Chaucer. *Cant. Tales.*

A nimble-footed mad-cap prince of Wales,  
His comrades, that daft the world aside,  
Were his.

Shakespeare. *Henry IV.*

She had bestowed this dotage on me: I  
Have daft all other respects, and made her half  
Id.

DAFFODIL, *n. s.* } Supposed by Skinner  
DAFFODILLY. } to be corrupted from as-  
DAFFODILLY. } phodelus. A common

is the green round with daffodownillies,  
Lips, and kingcups, and loved lilies.

Spenser.

Amaranthus all his beauty shed,  
Daffodillies fill their cups with tears,  
Till the laureat herse where Lycid lies.

Milton.

Daughters of the flood have searched the mead  
The pale, and cropped the poppy's head:  
The narcissus, and fair daffodil,  
To please the sight, and cassia sweet to smell.

Dryden.

DAFF. See DAFF.

DAFF, or DAGGE, *n. s.* Because the Dacians, when first used it. A pistol or hand gun. Rick says, 'the name is peculiar to Great

Britain; they call this gun a dag?'

Beaumont and Fletcher.

DAG, or  
DAGGE, *n. s.*  
DAGGER.

Old Fr. *dagge*; Ital. *dagga*; Span. *daga*; Wel. and Arm. *dagr*; from Heb. דָּגָר, to pierce; Minsheu. A cutting and stabbing weapon, principally the latter.

Upon his arme he bare a gaie bracer,  
And by his side a sword and a bokeler,  
And on that other side a gaie daggere,  
Harneised wel, and sharpe as point of spere.

Chaucer. *Prolog. to Cant. Tales.*

She ran to her son's dagger, and struck herself a mortal wound.

Sidney.

This sword a dagger had his page,  
And was but little for his age,  
And therefore waited on him so  
As dwarfs upon knights-errant do.

Hudibras.

They always are at daggersdrawing,  
And one another clapperclawing.

Id.

I have heard of a quarrel in a tavern, where all were at daggersdrawing, till one desired to know the subject of the quarrel.

Swift.

He strikes himself with his dagger, but being interrupted by one of his friends, he stabs him, and breaks the dagger on one of his ribs.

Addison.

The Roman, when his burning heart  
Was slaked with blood of Rome,  
Threw down the dagger, dared depart

In savage grandeur home,

Byron.

DAG, *v. a. & n. s.* } Sax. *dag*, to sprinkle,  
DAGGLE, *v. a. & n.* } and *dag*, dew. To be-  
DAGTAILED. } mire; let fall into water;  
DAGGLETAIL. } besprinkle. Dagtailed, or  
daggletailed, is bemired, bespattered, or muddy.

Would it not vex thee, where thy syres did keepe,  
To see the danged foldes of dag-tayld sheepe?  
And ruined house, where holy things were said,  
Whose free-stone wals, the thatched rooffe upraid?

Bp. Hall.

Now in contiguous drops the flood comes down,  
Threatening with deluge this devoted town:  
To shops in crowds the daggled females fly,  
Pretend to cheapen goods, but nothing buy.

Swift.

The gentlemen of wit and pleasure are apt to be choaked at the sight of so many daggletailed parsons, that happen to fall in their way.

Id.

Nor like a puppy daggled through the town,  
To fetch and carry sing-song up and down.

Pope.

DAGELET, an island on the coast of Corea, about three leagues in circumference, covered with fine trees, and surrounded with steep rocks, except a few sandy creeks, which form convenient landing places. It was discovered by La Peyrouse in 1787, who found some boats of a Chinese construction upon the stocks. The men employed upon them, were supposed to be Corean carpenters, but as the ships approached they fled to the woods. The French navigator supposed that the island was uninhabited; except during summer by people from Corea, for building boats. \*Long. 131° 22' E., lat. 37° 25' N.

DAGHESTAN, a country of Asia, west of the Caspian Sea, between the efflux of the Koisin and the Rubas. It is about 134 miles in length by between thirty and forty in breadth. It is almost wholly mountainous; but the soil is productive, and fine crops of grain are raised. The



Russians claim the sovereignty of Daghestan, which is divided into four districts; but their authority is not universally acknowledged. Many of the inhabitants subsist by plunder; but it has recently been the scene of contest between the Persians and Russians. The chief towns are Tarki, Derbend, Baschli, and Ottermisch.

DAGO, or DACHO, an island in the Baltic Sea, on the coast of Livonia, between the gulf of Finland and Riga. It is of a triangular figure, and may be about twenty miles in circumference. It has nothing considerable but two castles called Daggerwort and Paden. Long.  $22^{\circ} 50'$  E., lat.  $58^{\circ} 44'$  N.

DAGOE, DACHO, or DAGEN, an island of the Baltic, at the entrance of the gulf of Finland, near the coast of Esthonia, and separated from the island of Oesel by a narrow channel. It is about forty miles long, and from twenty-six to thirty-six broad, and is well peopled. At Dagerrort there is a lighthouse.

DAGON, the idol of Ashdod or Azotus. He is commonly represented as a monster, half man and half fish; whence most learned men derive the name from the Hebrew *dag*, which signifies a fish. Those who make him to have been the inventor of bread corn, derive his name from the Hebrew, דגן, Dagon, signifying corn; whence Philo-Biblus calls him *Zeus Aparptios*, Jupiter Anatrius. This deity continued to have a temple at Ashdod to the time of the Maccabees: for the author of the first book of Maccabees tells us, that 'Jonathan, one of the Maccabees, having beaten the army of Apollonius, Demetrius's general, they fled to Azotus, and entered into Bethdagon (the temple of their idol); but Jonathan set fire to Azotus, and burnt the temple of Dagon and all those who were fled into it.' Dagon, according to some, was the same with Jupiter, according to others Saturn or Venus; but according to most Neptune.

DAHALAK, DALAKA, or DALACCA, an island in the Red Sea, near the coast of Abyssinia, about twenty-five miles in length, and twelve in breadth, anciently celebrated for its pearl fishery. It is low and flat, with a sandy soil, and in summer destitute of every kind of herbage, except a small quantity of bent grass, which is barely sufficient to feed a few antelopes and goats. From the end of March to the beginning of October, they have no rain in Dahalak; but in the intermediate months they have heavy showers, when the water is collected into artificial cisterns, to supply the inhabitants during the ensuing summer. Of these cisterns, which are supposed to be either the work of the Persians or of the first Ptolemies, upwards of 300 remained at a recent period, cut out of the solid rock. Its principal port is Dahalece-el-Kebar, but it will only admit small vessels; and its trade is with Masuah. It was formerly much more populous than at present. This as well as the neighbouring islands is dependent upon Masuah; and the governor is furnished monthly with a goat from each of the twelve villages; besides which every vessel putting in here for Masuah, pays him a pound of coffee, and every one from Arabia, a dollar. From these his revenue chiefly arises. Long.  $39^{\circ} 0'$  E., lat.  $15^{\circ} 40'$  N.

DAHL, or DAL, a large river of Sweden, which runs through the provinces of Dalecarlia and Gesticria, and falls into the gulf of Bothnia, four leagues E. S. E. of Gefle. Near Elfkärlaby it forms a celebrated cataract, scarcely inferior to the fall of the Rhine at Lauffen.

DAHLLIA, in botany, a genus of plants belonging to the syngenesia class and polygamia order, thus named by Cavanilles in honor of Dr. Andrew Dahl, a Swedish botanist. The stems die every winter, but the root is perennial and tuberous. The known species are but four. 1. *D. pinnata*, figured by Cavanilles, and in Andrew's Botanical Repository: it has bipinnate leaves of a deep purple color. 2. *D. rosea*, a rose-colored variety figured by Cavanilles in his Icones. 3. *D. coccinea*, a scarlet variety; and, 4. *D. crocata*, a saffron-colored species. These beautiful plants are now becoming so general in British gardens, that a lengthened description would be superfluous: it is sufficient to say, that they elevate the stem like the holly-hock, and bear fine showy axillary and terminal flowers late in the autumn.

DAHOMEY, or DAUMA, a kingdom of Africa, on the coast of Guinea, situated about sixty or seventy miles from the Atlantic, to the east of Ashantee. This kingdom, which is correctly placed in various old maps, particularly that of Mercator, who names its ancient capital Dauina, was erased from the maps of Africa in 1700, and the existence of the nation of Dauma denied; but it emerged from obscurity in 1727, by the fame of its conquests of the maritime states of Whidah and Ardra. Dahomey, as known at present, is supposed to reach from the sea coast 150 miles inland, but no European has yet penetrated to that distance from the coast. The soil is a deep rich clay, of a reddish color, with a little sand on the surface, except about Calmina, where it is more light and gravelly; but there is not to be found a stone so large as an egg in the whole country, so far as it has been visited by Europeans. Of farinaceous vegetables, the country yields a plentiful supply, in proportion to the culture. The Dahomese likewise cultivate yams, potatoes, the cassava or manioka, the plantain, and the banana. Pine-apples, melons, oranges, limes, guavas, and other tropical fruits, also abound in this fertile country. Nor is it destitute of productions adapted for commerce and manufacture; such as indigo, cotton, the sugar-cane, tobacco, palm-oil, with a variety of spices, particularly a species of pepper, very similar in flavor, and indeed scarcely distinguishable from the black pepper of the East Indies. The Dahomese, like the other inhabitants of tropical climates, plant twice a-year, viz., at the vernal and autumnal equinoxes; after which the periodical rains prevail. The harmattan, or dry wind, blows here strongly from the north-east; but Mr. Norris does not ascribe to it those pestilential qualities which have often been supposed, for while it parches up the ground, and injures every species of vegetable, it does not induce any fatal diseases. It is even said to cure cutaneous eruptions, and stop the progress of small pox, fluxes, and remittent fevers. The greatest bane of the climate is the periodical rains; which are attended with terri-



nle tornadoes. The language is that which the Portuguese call *Lingua Geral*, and is spoken not only in Dahomey Proper, but in Whidah, and the other dependent states. The Dahoman religion is vague and uncertain in its principles, and rather consists in the performance of some traditional ceremonies, than of any fixed system of belief, or moral conduct. According to Mr. Norris, human sacrifices are not unfrequent among the Dahomese. Their kings, he says, water the graves of their ancestors every year with the blood of human victims. The same traveller mentions that the people in general take a peculiar pleasure in contemplating human skulls. The king said to a traveller, 'Some heads I place at my door: others I throw into the market-place. This gives a grandeur to my customs; this makes my enemies fear me; and this pleases my ancestors to whom I send them.' The king is even said to sleep in a room paved with the skulls of prisoners of distinction taken in war; and frequently to exclaim, 'Thus I can trample on the skulls of my enemies whenever I please.' It appears to be customary with the Dahomese to cut off the ears of the prisoners they take in war, and to send them as a present to the Grand Seigneur: upwards of 300 pairs of ears have been sent to him at one time. They believe more firmly in their amulets and fetiches, than in the deity; their national fetiche is the tiger; and their houses or huts are decorated with images, tinged with blood, stuck with feathers, besmeared with palm oil, and bedaubed with eggs. The government is perhaps the most perfect despotism upon earth, and seems to admit of no intermediate degree of subordination between the king and slave. Norris having asked a soldier if he did not think the enemy numerous in a war in which he found the Dahomese engaged; the latter replied, 'I think of my king, and then I dare engage five of the enemy myself.' He added, 'it is not material, my head belongs to the king, not to myself; if he pleases to send for it, I am ready to resign it; for if it is shot through in battle, it is no difference to me, I am satisfied.' A minister of state crawls towards the apartment of audience on his hands and knees, till he arrives in the royal presence, where he lays himself flat on his belly, rubbing his head in the dust, and uttering the most humiliating expressions. Being desired to advance, he receives the king's commands, or communicates any particular business, still continuing in a recumbent posture; for no person is permitted to sit, even on the floor, in the royal presence, except the women; and even they must kiss the earth when they receive or deliver the king's message. The king of Dahomey maintains a considerable standing army, commanded by an *agaw* or general, with several other subordinate military officers; the payment of these troops chiefly depends on the success of the expeditions in which they are engaged. Sometimes the king takes the field at the head of his troops; and on very great emergencies at the head of his women. For within the walls of the different royal palaces in Dahomey, are immured not less than 3000 women; several hundreds of whom are trained to arms under a female general, and subordinate officers appointed by the king.

These Amazons are regularly exercised, and go through their evolutions with much expertness; their accoutrements being precisely similar to those of the male troops. The dress of the men in Dahomey consists of a pair of striped or white cotton drawers, of the manufacture of the country, over which they wear a large square cloth of the same, or of European manufacture. This cloth is about the size of a common counterpane for the middling class, but much larger for the grandees. It is wrapped about the loins, and tied on the left side by two of the corners, the others hanging down, and sometimes trailing on the ground. A piece of silk or velvet, of sixteen or eighteen yards, makes a cloth for a grandee. The head is usually covered with a beaver or felt hat, according to the quality of the wearer. The king, as well as some of his ministers, often wears a gold or silver laced hat and feather. The arms and upper part of the body remain naked, unless when the party travels, or performs laborious work, when the large cloth is laid aside, and the body is covered with a sort of frock or tunic without sleeves. The feet are always bare, none but the sovereign having a right to wear sandals. The dress of the women, though simple, consists of a greater number of articles than that of the men. They use several cloths or handkerchiefs; the neck, arms, and ancles, are adorned with beads and cowries; and rings of silver, or baser metal, encircle the fingers. The ears are so pierced as to admit the little finger, and a coral bead of that size, red sealing wax, or a piece of oyster-shell, stuck into each. Girls, before the age of puberty, wear nothing but a string of beads or shells round the loins, and young women usually expose the breasts. The general character of the Dahomese is marked by a strange mixture of ferocity and politeness. The former appears in the treatment of their enemies; the latter they possess far above most of the African nations with whom we have hitherto had any intercourse. Abomey, the capital, lies between long. 3° and 4° E., and in lat. 7° 50' N.

DAILLE (John), a protestant minister of the seventeenth century, the most esteemed by the Catholics of all the controversial writers among the Protestants. He was tutor to two of the grandsons of the illustrious M. du Plessis Mornai. Mr. Daille having lived fourteen years in this family, travelled into Italy with his two pupils; one of them died abroad; with the other he visited Italy, Switzerland, Germany, Flanders, Holland, and England, and returned in 1621. He was received minister in 1623, and became chaplain to the family of M. Mornai. In 1625 he was appointed minister of the church of Saumur, and in 1626 removed to Paris, where he spent the rest of his life, and composed several works. His first work, *Of the Use of the Fathers*, was his masterpiece; printed in 1631. He died in 1670, aged seventy-seven.

DAILY. See DAY.

DAIN'T, *adj.*

DAIN'TEUS, *adj.*

DAIN'TY, *n. s. & adj.*

DAIN'TILY, *adv.*

DAIN'TINESS, *n. s.*

Fr. *dain*, delicate. From Lat. *dens*, a tooth, because pleasing to the palate, as Minsheu says: delicious, exquisi-



site, or of agreeable taste; elegant. The adverb and substantives follow the meanings of the adjective.

Be not desirous of his *dainties*; for they are deceitful meat. *Proverbs xxiii. 3.*

Both halle and chambres, eche in his degree,  
Houses of office stuffed with plente;e;  
Ther mayst thou see of *deintious* vitaille  
That may be found as far as lasteth Itaille.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

Ther may men fest and realtee beholde,  
And *deintees* mo than I can you devise,  
But all to dere they bought it or they rise. *Id.*

Ne poets witt, that passeth painter farre  
In picturing the parts of Beauty daynt,  
So hard a workmanship adventure darre.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

Higher concoction is required for sweetness, or pleasure of taste, and therefore all your *dainty* plumbs are a little dry. *Bacon.*

Truth is a naked and open day-light, that doth not shew the masks and mummeries and triumphs of the world, half so stately and *daintily* as candlelight. *Id.*

My house, within the city,  
Is richly furnished with plate and gold,  
Basons and ewers to lave her *dainty* hands.

*Shakespeare.*

Which of you all  
Will now deny to dance? She that makes *dainty*,  
I'll swear hath corns. *Id. Romeo and Juliet.*

Therefore to horse;  
And let us not be *dainty* of leave-taking,  
But shift away. *Id. Macbeth.*

Why, that's my *dainty*; I shall miss thee;  
But yet thou shalt have freedom. *Id. Tempest.*

What should yet thy palate please?  
*Daintiness* and softer ease,  
Sleeked limbs and finest blood? *Ben Jonson.*

The duke exceeded in the *daintiness* of his leg and foot, and the earl in the fine shape of his hands. *Wotton.*

It was more notorious for the *daintiness* of the provision which he served in it, than for the massiness of the dish. *Hakewill on Providence.*

Why should ye be so cruel to yourself,  
And to those *dainty* limbs, which nature lent  
For gentle usage and soft delicacy? *Milton.*

She then produced her dairy store,  
And unbought *dainties* of the poor. *Dryden.*

Your *dainty* speakers have the curse,  
To plead bad causes down to worse. *Prior.*

The shepherd swains, with sure abundance blest,  
On the fat flock and rural *dainties* feast. *Pope.*

DAIRY, *n. s.* From *dey*, says Lye, an *DAIRY-MAID*. Sold word for milk. The milk-house, or place where it is managed. A dairy-maid and milk-maid, are nearly synonymous. In Gloucestershire, the dairy is still called a *dey-house*. Yet we supply a very early use of 'dairies.'

Citees and burghes, castles high and towres,  
Thorpes and barnes, shepenes and *dairies*,  
This maketh that thair ben no *Faeries*.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

*Dairies* being well housewived, are exceeding com-  
medious. *Bacon.*

Children, in *dairy* countries, do wax more tall than where they feed more upon bread and fish. *Id.*

You have no more worth  
Than the coarse and country fairy,  
That doth haunt the hearth or *dairy*. *Ben Jonson.*

She in pens his flocks will fold,  
And then produce her *dairy* store. *Dryden.*

The poorest of the sex have still an itch,  
To know their fortunes, equal to the rich;  
The *dairymaid* enquires if she shall take  
The trusty taylor, and the cook forsake. *Id.*

Come up quickly, or we shall conclude that thou art in love with one of Sir Roger's *dairy-maids*. *Addison.*

DAIRY. The operations of the dairy are connected with the domestic comforts of almost every English family. Man is here seen taking that useful and honorable direction of the works of nature for which he was designed, and his original companion, when a good housewife, is almost more than 'a help meet' for him. She is generally, and for the great benefit of both parties, entrusted with the practical management of this department, even of extensive farming establishments; and so large a portion of 'skill, frugality, cleanliness, and industry,' is required, as a modern author well observes, in hardly any other of the duties of a farmer's wife.

In our articles AGRICULTURE and BOS we have entered pretty largely into the natural history and peculiarities of the only animal whose milk is extensively used in this country; we shall, in this paper, principally advert,—1. To the selection and general management of cows kept for the dairy, and by cow-keepers, as they are termed. 2. To the operations of the regular dairy in our cheese and butter counties, particularly the former: for in our article BUTTER will be found many useful directions with regard to that important manufacture. 3. We shall offer a few remarks on the structure of the dairy-house and its furniture.

i. *Of the selection and management of cows.*—In and about London the Holderness cows, a variety of the short-horned breed, are preferred. They have large carcasses and yield a great quantity of milk. They take their name from a district in Yorkshire, where, as well as in the county of Durham, they are extensively bred; but most English counties have cultivated the breed in some degree. The Edinburgh dairy-men select the short-horned cow of Roxburghshire for similar reasons. Ayrshire has also a celebrated breed. In Lancashire (and in the neighbourhood of Liverpool this topic has been well canvassed) a native long-horned cow is said to have a general preference. The Guernsey breed is also highly valuable for its rich and abundant milk. At Caton, in Lancashire, in Mr. Hodgson's dairy establishment, a long-horned cow yielded eight quarts of milk a day and four pounds of butter per week on an average of twelve months, during which period one of the short-horned breed gave nine quarts per day and four pounds and a half of butter per week, both having what they chose to take of exactly the same kind of food. But the quantity each consumed was not noted. Dr. Anderson's strong recommendation of the Alderney cows, as affording 'the richest milk hitherto known; though there are many



## D A I R Y.

als of different kinds which afford much milk than others,' as he says, seems long kept up the public preference for them in districts.

It is known to afford milk and butter of the qualities, will of course be selected; but size nor breed seems to be a uniform one. Respectable cow-keepers rarely breed so that actual experience of the animal is the final test; and the quantity of milk seems to be, in this case, the sole ground of criticism. Those who supply the metropolis generally purchase their cows at from four years old, and in calf, at Islington, Smithfield. Some of them own several hundred.

The number scattered in and about London is calculated at about 9000. Ten bulls are generally allowed to a stock of 300 cows, and these are sent to Smithfield market at one, two, or three days old. The quantity of milk from an average, by each cow, is said to be about three pails a day, or 3285 quarts per annum. The weekly expense of their food is estimated in the Middlesex Report at 10s. 3d., and the average about £5. 7s. per annum.

The cows are often confined in the cow-house or the premises adjoining, during the time of their being devoted to the purpose of the cow-keeper; but respectable establishments turn them out to grass in the spring. Eight or ten are turned into their stalls, and about three in the morning with half a bushel of grain. From four to half-past five they are milked for the retail dealers; they receive a bushel each of green food or hay, and soon after at the rate of a truss or two to the cow-yard, from eight to twelve in the morning and about half-past one to three are milked again as in the morning. This regular plan from September to May at least, during the turnip season. At other times of the year cabbages and tares diversify the food until they are turned out to grass (that change of food is supplied to them), when they remain in the field all night; but are frequently fed with grains to increase their milk at this period.

The cow-feeders of Edinburgh, according to the statement of the Encyclopædia Britannica, find it for their interest to keep their cows less than one year, or even so long, if they can be sold sooner. Their object is to have as great a quantity of milk as possible in the first year; and when the cows fall off in milking, they almost always do from between four and five after calving, to prepare them for the butcher. Most of the cows continue to give a good deal of milk while they are fattening, even until they are sent to the shambles. They are selected by the butcher to be sold to the butcher at a price paid by the cow-keeper. Their food is brewers' and distillers' grains and oat straw and small bran, grass and hay, and in winter the same grains, dreg and turnips and potatoes, and hay instead of straw.

When grains are scarce, cut or chopped straw is mixed with them. Some of them are sent to the fields near the city, for about two

months, during the best of the grass season; but even then a certain number must be kept in the house, for consuming the grains, which are purchased by contract for a whole year.

With regard to management, the cow-keepers begin with grains, dreg, and bran, mixed together, at five o'clock in the morning; feed a second time at one o'clock in the afternoon; and a third from seven to eight in the evening. Grass in summer, and turnips or potatoes in winter, are given at both intervals. A small quantity of straw is laid below the grass, which absorbs its moisture, and is eaten after the grass; and, in winter, straw or hay is given after the turnips. Part of the turnips or potatoes are boiled, particularly when there is a scarcity of grains, and intermixed with them. The expense in summer is said to be 2s. 10d., and in winter 3s. 7d. per day, for each cow. The cows are seldom milked more than twice a-day: for about a month after being bought, it is sometimes necessary to milk them three times. The common periods of milking are six o'clock in the morning, from three to four in the afternoon, and, when milked a third time, nine in the evening. Their produce in milk, when fed as already stated, may average about seven Scotch pints, or nearly twelve quarts and a half daily, per cow. When the cows are smaller, and not so well fed, five pints, or about nine quarts, are said to be the average. The price of milk in Edinburgh used to be 6d. per pint, but of late it has been sometimes lower in summer. This is said to be very little more than the price of the food. For interest of money, risk, expenses of management, and profit, there is the dung, worth £3. 10s. for each cow; some savings on the cows while at grass, which costs only 1s. 8d. per day; and, probably, a small advance of price may be commonly got from the butcher, when the cows are skilfully selected and well managed. There have been instances of cow-feeders contracting with others to retail their milk; but the practice is not common. The cow-keepers generally retail it themselves. In one instance a guinea a-week for the milk of each cow was paid by retailers to a farmer in the vicinity of Edinburgh.

Comparing the London and Edinburgh dairies,' continues the above writer, 'there seems to be a difference in favor of the best of the latter of no less than three quarts and a half per day. If this be the fact, perhaps it is owing to the whole of the Edinburgh cows being always in milk; none of them being kept for years, and bred from, as in the London dairies.'

Dr. Anderson's general aphorisms on the subject of the qualities of milk cannot be too well impressed on all dairy and cow-keepers. He says, 1. Of the milk drawn from a cow at any time, that which comes first is always thinnest, and continues to increase in thickness to the last drop. This is proved by experiment; and so great is the importance of attending to it, that the person who, by bad milking of his cows, loses but half a pint of his milk, loses, in fact, as much cream as would be afforded by six or eight pints at the beginning, and loses besides that part of the cream which alone can give richness and high flavor to his butter. 2. When milk throws up



cream to the surface, that portion which rises first will be thicker, and of better quality, as well as in greater quantity, than that which rises in a second equal portion of time. 3. Thick milk throws up a smaller quantity of cream to the surface than such as is thinner; but that cream is of a richer quality. If water be added to that thick milk, it will afford a considerably greater quantity of cream than before, but its quality is at the same time greatly debased. 4. Milk when carried in vessels to any distance, so as to suffer considerable agitation, never throws up cream so rich, nor in such quantity, as if the same had been put into the milk-pans without any agitation. From these aphorisms, the following corollaries are deducible. 1. The cows ought always to be milked as near the dairy as possible. 2. The milk of different cows should be kept by themselves, that the good cows may be distinguished from the bad. 3. For butter of a very fine quality, the first-drawn milk ought always to be kept separate from the last.

The Farmers' Magazine, vol. xv. supplies the following directions on the subject of feeding stalled cows, as those which are practically given by a very intelligent dairy-man, to his cow-feeder and milkers, at Farnham, in Surrey:—

1. *To the feeder.* 'Go to the cow-stall at six o'clock in the morning, winter and summer; give each cow half a bushel of the field-beet, carrots, turnips, or potatoes cut; at seven o'clock, the hour the dairy-maid comes to milk them, give each some hay, and let them feed till they are all milked. If any cow refuse hay, give her something she will eat, such as grains, carrots, &c., during the time she is milking, as it is absolutely necessary the cow should feed whilst milking. As soon as the woman has finished milking in the morning, turn the cows into the airing ground, and let there be plenty of fresh water in the troughs; at nine o'clock give each cow three gallons of a mixture composed of eight gallons of grains and four gallons of bran or pollard; when they have eaten that, put some hay into the cribs; at twelve o'clock give each three gallons of the mixture as before; if any cow looks for more, give her another gallon; on the contrary, if she will not eat what you give her, take it out of the manger, never at one time letting a cow have more than she will eat up clean. Mind and keep your mangers clean, that they do not get sour. At two o'clock give each cow half a bushel of carrots, field-beet, or turnips; look the turnips, &c., over well before you give them to the cows, as one rotten turnip, &c. will give a bad taste to the milk, and most likely spoil a whole dairy of butter. At four o'clock put the cows into the stall to be milked; feed them on hay as you did at milking time in the morning, ever keeping in mind that the cow whilst milking must feed on something. At six o'clock give each cow three gallons of the mixture as before. Rack them up at eight o'clock. Twice in a week put into each cow's feed, at noon, a quart of malt dust.'

2. *To the dairy-maid.* 'Go to the cow-stall at seven o'clock; take with you cold water and a sponge, and wash each cow's udder clean before milking; douse the udder well with cold water, winter and summer, as it braces, and repels heats.

Keep your hands and arms clean. Milk each cow as dry as you can, morning and evening, and when you have milked each cow, as you suppose, dry, begin again with the cow you first milked, and drip them each; for the principal reason of cows failing in their milk is from negligence in not milking each cow dry, particularly at the time the calf is taken from the cow. Suffer no one to milk a cow but yourself, and have no gossiping in the stall. Every Saturday night give in an exact account of the quantity of milk each cow has given in the week.'

'Where butter is the principal object,' says Mr. Loudon, 'such cows should always be chosen as are known to afford the best and largest quantity of milk and cream, of whatever breed they may be. But the quantity of butter to be made from a given number of cows must always depend on a variety of contingent circumstances; such as the size and goodness of the beasts, the kind and quantity of the food, and the distance of time from calving. As to the first, it need scarcely be mentioned that a large cow will give greater store of milk than one of a smaller size; though cows of equal size differ as to the quantity of cream produced from the milk of each: it is, therefore, on those cows whose milk is not only in large abundance, but which, from a peculiar inherent richness, yields a thick cream, that the butter dairy-man is to place his chief dependence; and where a cow is deficient in either of these, she should be parted with, and her place supplied by one more proper for this use. As to the second particular, namely, the kind and quality of the food, those who would wish to profit by a dairy, ought to provide for their cows hay of a superior goodness, to be given them in the depth of winter, and this in an unlimited degree, that they may always feed till they are perfectly satisfied. And, when the weather will permit, the cows should be indulged with an outlet to marshes or low meadow-grounds, where they may feed on such green vegetables as are present; which is far preferable to the practice of confining them the whole day on dry meat, will enable them to yield greater plenty of milk, and will give a fine yellow color to the butter even in the winter season.'

ii. *The operations of the regular dairies* of the cheese and butter counties have been justly stated to be very little improved by the application of modern science to farming. Dr. Anderson and Mr. Marshall are the only scientific writers whose attention seems to have been turned to the subject. The latter, in his *Rural Economy of Gloucestershire*, has registered a number of observations on the heat of the dairy-room, and of the milk when the rennet was applied in cheese-making; on the time required for coagulation; and the heat of the whey after: but the chemistry of these arts and productions has been wholly neglected at present. We cannot therefore do better than present the reader with the following popular account of the cheeses best known in this country.

*Cheshire cheese* is prepared in the following manner:—The evening's milk is not touched till the next morning, when the cream is taken off, and put to warm in a metal pan heated with boiling water. The cows being milked early in



the morning, the new milk, and that of the preceding night, thus prepared, are poured into a large tub, together with the cream. A piece of rennet, kept in luke-warm water from the preceding evening, is put into the tub in order to coagulate the milk; with which, if the cheese is intended to be colored, a small quantity of annatto (or of an infusion of marigolds, or carrots,) is rubbed fine and mixed; the whole is then stirred together, and, being covered up warm, it is allowed to stand about half an hour, when it is turned over with a bowl, to separate the whey from the curds, and broken soon after into very small particles: the whey being separated, by standing some time, is taken from the curd, which sinks to the bottom, and is then collected into a part of the tub provided with a slip, or loose board, to cross the diameter of the bottom, for the sole purpose of effecting this separation; on which a board is placed, weighing from sixty to 120 pounds, in order to press out the whey. As soon as it acquires a greater degree of solidity it is cut into slices, and turned over several times, to extract all the whey, and again pressed with weights. See *Coagulum*, in CHEMISTRY.

These operations may consume about an hour and a half. It is then taken from the tub and broken very small by the hand, salted, and put into a cheese-vat, the depth of which is enlarged by a tin hoop fitted to the top. The side is then strongly pressed, both by hand and with a board at top, well weighted; and wooden skewers are placed round the cheese, at the centre, which are frequently drawn out. It is then shifted out of the vat, a cloth being previously put on the top of it, and reversed on the cloth into another vat, or again into the same, if well scalded before the cheese be returned to it. The top, or upper part, is next broken by the hand down to the middle, salted, pressed, weighted and skewered as before, till all the whey is extracted. This being done, the cheese is again reversed into another vat, likewise warmed with a cloth under it, and a tin hoop, or binder, put round the upper edge of the cheese and within the sides of the vat; the former being previously enclosed in a cloth, and its edges put within the vessel. These various operations are performed from about seven o'clock in the morning till one at noon. The pressing of the cheese requires about eight hours more, as it must be twice turned in the vat, round which thin wire skewers are passed and shifted occasionally. The next morning it ought to be turned and pressed again, as likewise at night, and on the succeeding day, about the middle of which it is removed to the salting-room, where the outside is salted and a cloth binder tied round it. After this process the cheese is turned twice daily, for six or seven days; then left two or three weeks to dry, during which time it is turned and cleaned every day; and at length deposited in the common cheese-room, on a boarded floor covered with straw, where it is turned daily till it acquires a sufficient degree of hardness. The room should be of a moderate warmth, but no wind, or current of air, must be permitted to enter, as this generally cracks the cheese. Their outsides, or rinds, are sometimes rubbed with butter or oil to give them a coat.

'A dairy farm of 100 acres,' says an intelligent writer on the agriculture of Cheshire, 'is generally divided into the following proportions: from ten to fourteen acres of oats, from six to eight acres of fallow wheat, and the like quantity of summer fallow; the remainder consists of meadow and pasture, the former occupying about twelve acres. The good dairy farmer attends more to the size, form, and produce of the udder of his cow than to any fancied beauty of shape. This consideration induces him to be particular in the breeding and rearing his calves, and in the management of his cows during the winter and summer seasons. The annual quantity of cheese made from each cow varies from 50 to 500 lbs. and upwards, the produce depending on the goodness of the land, the quality of the pasture, the seasons, and the manner in which the stock are wintered. On the whole, the average produce may be estimated at 300 lbs. from each animal. The quantity of milk yielded daily by each cow, according to this estimate, will be about eight quarts, which it is calculated will produce one pound of cheese.'

'On the dairy farms one woman-servant is generally kept to every ten-cows, who is employed in winter in spinning, and other household business, but in milking is assisted by all the other servants of the farm. The cheese is chiefly sold in London, being exported from Chester, Frodsham-bridge, and Warrington. A large quantity goes to Liverpool and Bristol, some more is disposed of to the Yorkshire dealers, and some goes into Scotland. The proper season for calving is reckoned to be from the beginning of March to the beginning of May; and during these months there is more veal fed in Cheshire than in any other county in the kingdom, though generally killed to spare the milk.'

Gloucester cheese is made of milk immediately from the cow; but which, in summer, is thought too hot, and is therefore lowered to the requisite degree of heat, before the rennet is added, by pouring in skim-milk, or, if that will not answer, by the addition of water. As soon as the curd 'is come,' it is broken with a double cheese-knife, and also with the hand, in order to clear it from the whey, which is ladled off. The curd, being thus freed from the principal part of the whey, is put into vats, which are set in the press for ten or fifteen minutes, in order to extract all the remaining liquid. It is then turned out of the vats into the cheese-tubs again; broken small and scalded with a pail-full of water, lowered with whey, about three parts water to one of whey; and the whole is briskly agitated, the curd and water being equally mixed together. After having stood a few minutes, to let the curd subside, the liquor is poured off; and the former collected into a vat, the surface of which is, when about half full, sprinkled with a little salt, that is worked in among the curd. The vat is then filled up, and the whole mass turned two or three times in it, the edges being pared and the middle rounded up at each turning. At length the curd is put into a cloth and placed in the press, whence it is carried to the shelves, and turned, generally, once a day till it has acquired a sufficient degree



of compactness to enable it to undergo the operation of washing.

*Parmesan* cheese has long been famous for its richness and flavor; the following mode of manufacture is described in the *Annales de Chemie*. The size of these cheeses varies from sixty to 180 pounds, according to the number of cows in each dairy. During the heat of summer cheese is made every day, but in the cooler months milk will keep longer, and the cheese is made every other day. The summer cheese, which is the best, is made of the evening milk, after having been skimmed in the morning and at noon. Both kinds of milk are poured together into a caldron capable of holding about 130 gallons, of the shape of an inverted bell, and suspended on the arm of a lever so as to be moved off and on the fire at pleasure. In this caldron the milk is gradually heated to the temperature of about 120°; it is now removed from the fire, and kept quiet for five or six minutes. When all internal motion has ceased, the rennet is added; this substance is composed of the stomach of a calf, fermented together with wheat meal and salt; and the method of using it is to tie a piece, of the size of a hazel nut, in a piece of linen cloth, and steep it in the milk, squeezing it from time to time; a sufficiency of rennet soon passes through the cloth into the milk, which is now to be well stirred, and afterwards left to rest that it may coagulate. In about an hour the coagulation is complete, and then the milk is again put over the fire, and raised to a temperature of about 145 degrees.

During the time it is heating the mass is briskly agitated, till the curd separates in small lumps; part of the whey is then taken out, and a small portion of saffron is added to the remainder in order to color it. When the curd is thus broken sufficiently small, nearly the whole of the whey is taken out and two pailfuls of cold water is poured in; the temperature is thus lowered so as to enable the dairyman to collect the curd, by passing a cloth underneath it and gathering it up at the corners; the curd is now pressed into a frame of wood like a bushel without a bottom, placed on a solid table and covered by a round piece of wood, having a great stone or weight on the top. In the course of the night it cools, assumes a firm consistence, and parts with the whey; the next day one side is rubbed with salt, and the succeeding day the cheese is turned and the other side is rubbed with salt in the same manner as before. This alternate salting of each side is practised for about forty days; after this period the outer crust of the cheese is pared off, and the fresh surface is coated with linseed oil. The convex sides are then colored red with annatto, and the cheese is fit for sale.

The *Stilton* cheeses, called the *Parmesan* of England, are usually made in cylindrical vats, and weigh from six to twelve pounds each. Immediately after they are made they should be put into boxes made exactly to fit them, as they are so extremely rich, that, without this precaution, they would be apt to bulge out and break asunder. In these boxes they should be daily turned, and kept two years; they are then fit for sale. Some make them in a net like a cabbage-net, so that

they appear when made like an acorn; but these are never so good as the others, having a thicker coat, and wanting the rich flavor and mellowness of the others. The manufacture of these cheeses is not confined to Stilton and its neighbourhood; as many other persons in Huntingdonshire, and also Rutland and Northampton shires, make a similar sort, sell them for the same price, and give them the name of Stilton cheeses. It is observed by Mr. Hazard, that, though the farmers about Stilton are remarkable for the cleanliness of their dairies, they take very little pains with the rennet; for if they did they would not have so many faulty and unsound cheeses. The inhabitants of other countries might make as good cheese as that of Stilton if they would adhere to the same plan, which is this:—They make a cheese every morning, and to this meal of new milk they add the cream taken from that which was milked the night before. This, and the age of their cheeses, it is said, are the only reasons why they are preferred to others, their land not being in any respect superior to that of other countries.

In the Bath Papers, Mr. Hazard gives the following receipt for making *rennet*. 'When the maw-skin is well prepared and fit for the purpose, three pints or two quarts of soft water, clean and sweet, should be mixed with salt, wherein should be put sweet-brier, rose-leaves and flowers, cinnamon, cloves, mace, and, in short, almost every sort of spice and aromatic that can be procured; and if these are put into two quarts of water, they must boil gently till the liquor is reduced to three pints, and care should be taken that this liquid is not smoked; it should be strained clear from the spices, &c., and, when not warmer than milk from the cow, it should be poured upon the vell or maw; a lemon may then be sliced into it, when it may remain a day or two; after which it should be strained again and put into a bottle, where, if well corked, it will keep good for twelve months, or more: it will smell like a perfume, and a small quantity of it will turn the milk, and give the cheese a pleasing flavor.'

The method of making *green cheese* we should not, perhaps, omit. In a cheese of this sort, of about ten or twelve pounds weight, an infusion is made by steeping about two handfuls of sage, and one of marigold leaves, with a little parsley, after being bruised, one night in a proper quantity of milk. In the morning the greened milk is strained off, and mixed with about one-third of the whole quantity to be run. The green and the white milks are then run separately, keeping the two curds distinct, until they are ready for vatting. The mixing of them depends on the fancy of the maker. In some cases the two are connected together, blending them in an even and intimate manner; in others, the green curd is broken down into irregular fragments, or cut out in irregular figures by means of proper tins. In the operation of vatting, the fragments or figures are placed on the outsides. The bottom of the vat is first set with them, crumbling the white or yellow curd among them. As the vat fills, others are placed at the edges, and the remainder buried flush with the top. In the management



wards, the same plan is pursued as those which we have already described for common dairies.

A *dairy house* should have a northern aspect, accessible, and good ventilation. The regulation of temperature may be accomplished on the plan suggested by Dr. Anderson, of having double roofs; or by means of hollow walls; for common purposes by the walls having a cavity left, of eight or ten inches in width, between the lath and plaster. According to the nature of the business to be carried on in them, the buildings will be of course regulated, both as to their size and the number of their conveniences: as whether they are used for butter-dairies, or milk; the number of cows which are kept, &c. In the Gloucester dairy houses twenty feet by sixteen are the usual dimensions for fifty cows; and thirty feet by forty for 100.

A *butter dairy* should consist of three rooms, or departments: namely, a milk room, a churning room, with necessary apparatus, and a room for drying the different utensils, and the cleaning and airing of them in, when it may be requisite. The *milk dairy* should, in the same manner, be composed of three rooms; one for the reception of the milk; another for the scalding and pressing of the cheese; and a third for the purpose of drying it in. In addition, there ought to be a room for the stowing of the cheese, which may conveniently be a loft made over the dairy. It is frequently at a distance, which is inconvenient and troublesome.

A *milk dairy* only requires two good rooms, one for the reception of the milk, and another for the purpose of serving it out in, and that of cleaning, and airing the different utensils.

The *utensils of a cheese dairy* are, the cheese press, in which the curd is broken, and prepared; the cheese-knife, commonly a thin spatula of wood or iron, for the purpose of cutting or breaking down the curd; the cheese-cloth, a piece of fine gauze, in which the cheese is placed in the press; a circular cheese-board; a strong wooden frame and cheese-press.

The last article is generally constructed with a common wooden screw, though sometimes a cast-iron weight is used. The diagram represents a



very commodious one. Churns are almost endless in their variety of shapes, and supposed recommendations. Our article CHURN exhibits an improved mode of working this important utensil. We may add, in conclusion, that Mr. Dicus of Liverpool has lately invented a lactometer 'for ascertaining the richness of milk from its specific gravity, and its degree of warmth taken by a thermometer, on comparing its specific gravity with its warmth.'

It is a glass tube a foot long, with a funnel at top; the upper two inches being marked in small divisions, just under the funnel; when the instrument is filled to the height of one foot with milk, the depth of cream it yields is noted by the gradations on the upper part.

An invention of a similar kind has been noticed by the Highland Society of Scotland, in their Report for 1816: Mrs. Lovi's areometric beads, by which the specific gravity of the milk is tried first when new milked, and again when the cream is removed.—'When milk is tried as soon as it cools,' observes this Report, 'say to 60°, and again, after it has been thoroughly skimmed, it will be found that the skimmed milk is of considerably greater gravity; and as this increase depends upon the separation of the lighter cream, the amount of the increase, or the difference between the specific gravity of the fresh and skimmed milk, will bear proportion to, and may be employed as a measure of, the relative quantities of the oily matter or butter contained in different milks.'—The specific gravity of skimmed milk depends both on the quantity of the saccharo-saline matters, and of the curd. To estimate the relative quantities of curd, and by that determine the value of milk for the purpose of yielding cheese, it is only required to curdle the skim milk, and ascertain the specific gravity of the whey. The whey will, of course, be found of lower specific gravity than the skimmed milk, and the number of degrees of difference affords a measure of the relative quantities of the curd. According to this hypothesis, the areometric beads may be employed to ascertain the quantities of milk, relatively both to the manufacture of butter and cheese.' But neither of these inventions, though in themselves ingenious, have been extensively used.

The *fixtures of a respectable dairy* are, a copper boiler in the scalding-room; benches and shelves in this room and the cheese-room; a bench or table about two feet wide round the milk-room; and a pump in the centre of the latter.

The *utensils of a butter dairy* are, pails; sieves of hair cloth, or silver-wire cloth for straining the milk; milk dishes or coolers; an ivory or bone cream-knife, and skimming dishes of willow or ivory; bowls; barrel, or other milk churns; butter-makers; and a portable rack for drying dishes in the air; tubs, &c.

DAIS, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, and decandria class of plants; natural order, thirty-first, vepreculæ: involucre tetraphyllous: cor. quadrifid, or quinquefid: FRUIT monospermous berry Species three, natives of South Sea Isles.



**DAISY**, *n. s.* ? Sax. *dægerege* day's-eye; **DAISIED**, *adj.* For, as Mr. Thomson conjectures, *dah's*, i. e. does-eye. Minshew says, from *daïw*, to divide, because of the divisions of the leaves; but this etymology seems too profound for the name of a common flower.

**DAISY**. See **BELLIS PERENNIS**.

**DALE**, *n. s.* Teut. *thal*; Ang.-Saxon, Spanish, Belgic, and Irish, *dal*, from *dalen*, *descendere*, to descend. A valley or low place.

**DALE** (Richard), an American naval commander, was born in Virginia, Nov. 6, 1756. At twelve years of age he was sent to sea, and, in 1775, he took the command of a merchant vessel. In 1776 he entered, as a midshipman, on board of the American brig of war Lexington, commanded by captain John Barry. In her he cruised on the British coast the following year, and was taken by a British cutter. After a confinement of more than a year in Mill prison, he effected his escape into France, where he joined, in the character of master's mate, the celebrated Paul Jones, then commanding the American ship *Bon Homme Richard*. Jones soon raised Dale to the rank of his first lieutenant, in which character he signalized himself in the sanguinary and desperate engagement between the *Bon Homme Richard* and the English frigate *Serapis*. He was the first man who reached the deck of the latter when she was boarded and taken. In 1781 he returned to America, and, in June of that year, was appointed to the Trumbull frigate, commanded by captain James Nicholson, and soon afterwards captured. From 1790 to 1794 he served as captain in the East India trade. At the end of this period the government of the United States made him a captain in the navy. In 1801 he took the command of the American squadron of observation, which sailed, in June of that year, from Hampton roads to the Mediterranean. His broad pendant was hoisted on board the frigate President. Efficient protection was given by Dale to the American trade and other interests in the Mediterranean. In April, 1802, he reached Hampton roads again. He passed the remainder of his life in Philadelphia, in the enjoyment of a competent estate, and of the esteem of all his fellow-citizens. He died February 24, 1826. Captain Dale was a thorough, brave and intelligent seaman. He was several times severely wounded in battle. The adventures of his early years were of the most romantic and perilous cast. No man could lay claim to a more honorable and honest character.

**DALEA**, in botany, a genus of plants of the diadelphia class and decandria order. Stamina five or ten, with the wings growing to their column, and united without separate filaments; leguminous: SEED one. Species fourteen, natives of North and South America.

**DALECARLIA**, or **STORA-KOPPARBERG**, as it has been recently named, is an extensive province of Sweden, bounded on the west by Norway, on the north by Herjedal, on the east by Helsingland, and on the south by Westmannland. It contains nearly 1300 English square miles, and about 125,000 inhabitants. Though its general aspect is hilly, the mountains are of

little elevation, except in the neighbourhood of Norway; the greater part of the province is finely diversified with hills, dales, and lakes. It contains also two large rivers, the Dal and the Ljusne. In the south fine rye and barley fields meet the eye; and the potatoe is cultivated with some success; but the perpetual changes of the property and badness of the roads have been formidable obstacles to improvement. Lime-trees, elms, and maples, are found growing here nearly under the sixty-second degree of latitude. Dalecarlia has its chief riches, however, in its copper and iron mines, the chief of which (of copper) are at Fahlun and Afvestad. At the beginning of the present century the iron mines employed seventy-two smelting-furnaces, and fifty-six forges; the total annual produce being about 113,000 cwt. Sulphur is likewise found; and at Elfvedal are quarries of porphyry. The chief towns are Fahlun, Hedemora, and Soter. The Dalecarlians are of noble make and appearance, and have long been celebrated for their love of liberty. During the struggles of Gustavus Vasa for the crown, they obtained their chief privileges, and have since distinguished themselves on similar occasions. They seem to have imbibed from these circumstances much of the spirit of faction; and they have great contempt for the other Swedes.

**DALECHAMPIA**, in botany, a genus of the monadelphia order, and monœcia class of plants, natural order thirty-eighth, tricoceæ. Male involucre, common and quadripartite: CAL. hexaphyllous; COR. none; nectarium laminated or scaly; the stamina monadelphous or coalited at the base, and polyandrous or numerous. Female involucre, common and triphyllous; style one: CAPS. tricoceous. Species two, viz. 1. *D. scandens*, a native of Jamaica, and a climbing plant which rises to a considerable height, and is remarkable for nothing but having its leaves armed with bristly hairs, which sting the hands of those who unwarily touch them. 2. *D. Gorolata*, a native of New Granada.

**DALGARN** (George), a learned Scottish writer of the seventeenth century, was born at Aberdeen, and projected a plan for a universal language, in a work entitled *Ars Signorum*, Vulgo *Character Universalis et Lingua Philosophica*, London 1661, 8vo. This exhibits a classification, as the author and his admirers state, of all possible ideas, and a selection of characters adapted to them. He admits only seventeen classes of ideas, and uses the letters of the Latin alphabet, with two Greek characters. His plan resembles that of bishop Wilkins. He was the author also of *Didascalophus*, or the Deaf and Dumb Man's Tutor. Oxford, 1680, 8vo.

**DALIN** (Olof Von), a Swedish historian and poet, born at Winberga in Holland in 1708, was designed for the medical profession, which he abandoned. In 1735 he published a weekly paper, called *The Swedish Argus*, which gave great satisfaction to the diet, and he was rewarded with the situation of librarian at Stockholm. He has been termed the father of Swedish poetry. His two chief poems are, *The Liberty of Sweden*; and *Brunhilda*, a tragedy. In 1744 he was en-



aged by the diet to write The History of Sweden, and successively raised himself to be preceptor to prince Gustavus, counsellor in ordinary of the chancery, knight of the northern star, and chancellor of the court. He died in 1763. He was the author of a Translation of Montesquieu's *Causes de la Grandeur et de la Décadence des Romains*; and several poems, fables, &c., printed in 6 vols. 1767.

**DALKEITH** (Gael. i. e. a plain between two rivers), a parish of Scotland, in Mid Lothian, situated between the south and north Esk, and not exceeding two miles in length or breadth. The soil is partly light and sandy, partly deep clay.

**DALKEITH**, a considerable town in the above parish, is six miles south-east of Edinburgh, seated on the north Esk. It contains several good streets, and has a weekly market on Thursday, reckoned one of the best in Scotland for grain; which is all sold for ready money, and supplies the west country about Glasgow, Paisley, Carron, &c., as well as Edinburgh in part. It has also markets on Monday and Tuesday for meat and cattle, in winter; and a fair the third Tuesday in October. The seat of the duke of Buccleuch is the principal ornament of the place, and the plantations which surround it are laid out with great taste. The house was built in the beginning of the eighteenth century on the site of Dalkeith castle. Long. 2° 20' W., lat. 55° 50' N.

**DALKEITH CASTLE** formerly stood at the east end of the town of Dalkeith. It was built on a perpendicular rock of great height, and inaccessible on all sides, except the east where it was defended by a fosse, through which the river is said to have run. On the defeat of the Scots at the battle of Pinkie, in 1547, James earl of Morton, Sir David Wedderburn, and many others, fled to this castle; where they were besieged for some time by the English, but were obliged to surrender at last for want of provisions. Here, in 1660, it being the head quarters of general Monk, the restoration of monarchy, by calling home Charles II. was planned.

**DALLA**, an important island and district of the Delta of the Irrawaddy River, Hindostan. It is covered generally with wood, which shelters numerous wild beasts, but contains also fine pastures, and produces rice and salt in considerable quantities. During the contest between the Birmans and Peguers, in the middle of the last century, this district was often overrun by both armies. The principal towns are Dalla, Cowack, and Gnapee Ghewen.

**DALLY**, v. a. & n. } Ancient Belg. *dollen*;  
**DALLIANCE**, n. s. } Goth. *duella*; Saxon,  
**DALLIER**, n. s. } dwolian. To talk foolishly or idly. Hence both to delay, and to trifle in love or otherwise.

They that would not be reformed by that correction, wherein he dallied with them, shall feel a judgment worthy of God. *Wisdom xii. 25.*

A Frise ther was a wanton and a mery,  
 A limitor, a full solempne man:  
 In all the ordres foure is non that can  
 So moche of dalliance and fayre language.  
*Chaucer. Prolog. to Cant. Tales.*

With faire disport, and courting dalliance  
 She intertaine her lover all the way;  
 But when she saw the knight his speare advance,  
 Shee soone left off her mirth and wanton play,  
 And bad her knight addresse him to the fray.  
*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

The daily dalliers, with pleasant words, with smiling countenances, and with wagers purposed to be lost, before they were purposed to be made. *Ascham.*

Not dallying with a brace of courtezans,  
 But meditating with two deep divines. *Shakspeare.*

She her airie buildeth in the cedar's top,  
 And dallies with the wind, and scorns the sun. *Id.*

— Good lord, you use this dalliance to excuse  
 Your breach of promise. *Id.*

Nor gentle purpose, nor endearing smiles,  
 Wanted; nor youthful dalliance, as be seems,  
 Fair couple linked in happy nuptial league,  
 Alone as they.

He left his cur, and laying bold  
 Upon his arms, with courage bold  
 Cried out, 'tis now no time to dally,  
 The enemy begin to rally. *Hudibras.*

I'll head my people;  
 Then think of dalliance when the danger's o'er:  
 My warlike spirits work now another way,  
 And my soul's tuned to trumpets. *Dryden.*

One hundred thousand pounds must be raised, for  
 there is no dallying with hunger. *Swift.*

**DALMANUTHA**, in ancient geography, a city of Judea, on the east side of the sea of Tiberias; either the same with Magdala, or situated near it. Hence Mark says, viii. 10, that our Saviour and his disciples landed in the parts of Dalmanutha: while Matthew, recording the same fact, says that they came into the coast of Magdala.

**DALMATIA**, a country of Europe, in a former maritime division of Austria, was bounded on the north by Bosnia and Croatia, on the east by Servia, and on the south and west by the Adriatic. The country is, as it were, strewed with mountains and hills, which are not altogether unfruitful; olives, vines, myrtles, and a great variety of palatable and wholesome vegetables growing amongst them. It has also many fertile plains; and feeds considerable numbers of horned cattle and sheep. The rivers of Dalmatia have no long course, but are mostly navigable. The principal are the Cherka and the Narenta. The air is temperate and pure. The Dalmatians use the Sclavonian language and customs, and profess the Roman Catholic religion.

Dalmatia was distinguished as follows:—1. Hungarian Dalmatia, lying on the upper part of the Adriatic Sea, containing part of ancient Liburnia, and which is more generally called Morlachia. 2. Venetian Dalmatia, or that part which was possessed by the Venetians, lying to the south-east of Hungarian Dalmatia, and abounds in ancient castles and fortresses. The inhabitants are estimated at 25,000, and are distinguished by different names, as well as diversity of manners. See MORLACHS, and UHLANS. They are warlike, intrepid soldiers, and excellent seamen. The nobility and people were well attached to the republic; mildness made them faithful subjects to Venice; their privileges were



respected, and it was dangerous to offend them. The chief towns are Spalatro, the capital, Amissa, Narenta, Sebenico, Trau, and Zara. Besides what the Venetians possessed on the continent, several islands in the Adriatic belong to them, which are considered as part of Dalmatia. This portion belonging to Austria, is strictly the only part to which the name Dalmatia now applies. 3. Turkish Dalmatia, lying east of Venetian Dalmatia. The principal towns are, Herzegovina, the capital, Clinova, and Scardova. 4. The late republic of Ragusa formed another part of Dalmatia.

**DALMATIA, ISLANDS OF.** Besides the islands included in the above province, Dr. Oppenheim mentions other seven islands of the late maritime division of Austria, as forming two distinct provinces; viz. the Four islands of Quarnaro, and the Three Dalmatian islands, peculiarly so called, viz. Brazza, Lesina, and Curtola.

**DALMATIA, LOWER, or ALBANIA,** a province of the late maritime division of Austria, divided from the ci-devant Venetian Dalmatia, by the late republic of Ragusa, and a part of Turkish Dalmatia. It comprehended the canal, town, &c., of Cattaro, the mountains and valleys of Buda, and the bailiwick of Pastrovichii. It is mountainous, but produces some corn, much oil, and fine fruits. The inhabitants have also considerable trade in the Levant.

The name of Dalmatia is said to be derived from the ancient capital Delmum, or Delminium. In the latter ages of the Roman empire this country suffered frequently from the incursions of barbarians, and was finally incorporated with Hungary in the twelfth century. When the Venetians, however, had occupied the sea-coast, they succeeded in the fifteenth century in conquering the interior, which long remained in their possession. By the treaty of Campo Formio, in 1797, the whole was ceded to Austria; but after the campaign of 1805 Buonaparte claimed it as king of Italy, and afterwards united it with the Illyrian provinces. Cattaro, and the southern part, were in 1806 seized by the Russians; but delivered up to the French at the peace of Tilsit. In the final arrangements of 1814 the whole was again transferred to Austria.

**DALRYMPLE (Sir David),** an eminent and learned judge of Scotland, born at Edinburgh, Oct. 28th, 1726. He was educated at Eton, and from thence went to Utrecht, where he remained till after the rebellion in 1746. He was admitted a member of the Faculty of Advocates, Feb. 23rd 1748. In March, he 1766, was appointed a lord of Session, and in May, 1776, one of the lords of Justiciary. During this time he wrote several occasional papers, in *The World*, the *Gentleman's Magazine*, &c. In 1773 he published his *Remarks on the History of Scotland*, which first displayed his talent for minute and accurate enquiry into doubtful points of history. This prepared the public mind for his *Annals of Scotland*, of which the first appeared in 1776, and the second in 1779, and fully answered the hopes he had excited. In 1786 lord Hailes evinced his unshaken attachment to religious truth, by publishing a 4to. volume, entitled, *An Enquiry into the Secondary Causes*, which Mr.

Gibbon has assigned for the rapid progress of Christianity. This was the last work he published; but he attended his duty on the bench till within three days of his death, which happened Nov. 29th, 1792, in the sixty-sixth year of his age. Lord Hailes was twice married; first to the daughter of the late lord Coalston, and afterward to the daughter of lord Kilkerran, by each of whom he had one daughter. As he left no male issue, his nephew succeeded to his title. His knowledge of the laws was accurate and profound; and he applied it in judgment with the most scrupulous integrity. Affectionate to his family and relations, simple and mild in his manners, pure and conscientious in his morals, enlightened and entertaining in his conversation, he left society only to regret that, devoted as he was to more important employments, he had so little time to spare for intercourse with them. His labors in illustration of the history of his country, and many other works of profound erudition, remain as monuments of his accurate and faithful researches for materials, and his sound judgment in the selection of them. Besides the works above enumerated, lord Hailes published the following: 1. *Memorials and Letters relating to the History of Great Britain, in the reign of James I.* 8vo. 1765. 2. *The Secret Correspondence between Sir Robert Cecil and James VI.* 12mo. 1766. 3. *Accounts of the Persecution of Charles II. after the Battle of Worcester.* 8vo. 1766. 4. *Memorials and Letters relating to the History of Great Britain, in the reign of Charles I.* 8vo. 1767. 5. *Canons of the Church of Scotland, drawn up in the provincial Synod held at Perth, 1242.* 4to. 1769. 6. *Historical Memorials concerning the Provincial Councils of the Scottish Clergy.* 4to. 7. *Ancient Scottish Poems, from a MS. of George Bannatyne.* 12mo. 1770. All in 4to. in 1787. Lord Hailes has also left many valuable MSS.

**DALTON (John), D.D.** an eminent divine and poet, was the son of the Rev. John Dalton, rector of Dean in Cumberland, where he was born in 1709. He was educated at Queen's College, Oxford; and became tutor to lord Beauchamp, only son of the earl of Hertford; during which time he adapted Milton's mask of *Comus* to the stage, by a judicious insertion of several songs and different passages selected from other of Milton's works, as well as of several songs and other elegant additions of his own, suited to the characters and to the manners of the original author. During the run of this piece he industriously sought out a grand-daughter of Milton's, oppressed both by age and poverty, and procured her a benefit from it, the profits of which amounted to a considerable sum. He was promoted by the king to a prebend of Worcester; where he died on the 2nd of July 1763. Besides the above, he wrote a descriptive poem, addressed to two ladies at their return from viewing the coal-mines near Whitehaven; and *Remarks on twelve historical designs of Raphael, and the Museum Græcum et Egyptiacum.*

**DALTON,** a market town of Lancashire. It is seated on the spring-head of a river in a campaign country, not far from the sea; and the ancient castle is made use of to keep the records,



and prisoners for debt, in the liberty of Furness. The church is an ancient, neat building, and has an organ. This town, being in an excellent sporting country, is much resorted to during the season. The port here is large and commodious; and a light-house has been erected at the south end of the Isle of Walney. A canal has been cut from the sea up to this town, one mile and a half in length, capable of navigating ships of great burden, which is of great advantage to the trade and commerce of the place. Market on Saturday. This is four miles from Ulverston, and 275 N.N.W. of London.

DAM, *n. s.* } Fr. *dame*; Span. *dama*; Heb.

DAME, *n. s.* } and Chald. *ܕܡܐ*; Arab. *ama*;

Lat. *dama*, *domina*; which, however, Minshew derives from Heb. *דמך*, to govern; Sans. *amma*; Tent. *ama*, to which Thomson thinks Sax. *dey*, or *dis*, one that gives milk, has been prefixed. A human mother; a female who has borne young animals. Also, a title of honor; a lady; an elderly woman.

But of hire song, it was as loud and yerne  
As any swallow sitting on a berne;  
Therto she coude skip and make a game,  
As any kid or calf folowing his dame.

Chaucer. *Cant. Tales.*

Their *dams* upstart out of her den efraide,  
And rushed forth, hurling her hideous taile  
About her cursed head. Spenser. *Faerie Queene.*

This brat is none of mine;  
It is the issue of Polixena;  
Hence with it, and, together with the *dams*,  
Commit them to the fire.

Shakespeare. *Winter's Tale.*

The *dams* runs lowing up and down,  
Looking the way her harmless young one went,  
And can do nought but wail her darling loss.

Id.

Not all these lords do vex me half so much  
As that proud *dams*, the lord protector's wife. Id.

Bless you, fair *dams*! I am not to you known,  
Though in your state of honor I am perfect. Id.

Another layeth a well-marked lambe,  
Or spotted kid, or some more forward steere,  
And from the payle doth praise their fertile *dams*.  
Bp. Hall. *Defiance to Evey.*

Who would not repeat that bliss,  
And frequent sight of such a *dams*  
Buy with the hazard of his fame? Waller.

Mother, says a sick kite, let me have your prayers.  
Also, my child, says the *dams*, which of the gods shall I go to? L'Estrange.

They killed the poor cock; for, say they, if it were  
me for his waking our *dams*, she would not wake us.

Id.

Birds bring but one morsel of meat at a time, and  
have not fewer, it may be, than seven or eight young  
in the nest together, which, at the return of their *dams*,  
do all at once, with equal greediness, hold up their  
heads and gape. Ray.

The word *dams* originally signified a mistress of a  
family, who was a lady; and it is used still in the  
English law to signify a lady: but in common use,  
*now-a-days*, it represents a farmer's wife, or a mis-  
tress of a family of the lower rank in the country.

Watts's *Logick.*

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As is the hedgehog's,  
Which sucks at midnight from the wholesome *dams*  
Of the young bull, until the milkmaid finds  
The nipple next day sore and udder dry. Byron.

No spectre gaunt she saw of bones entwined,  
With scythe wide brandished as to sweep mankind,  
But a plump *dams*, of pampered aspect sly,  
With fiendlike, scowling merriment of eye.

Dr. T. Brown.

DAM, *v. a. & n. s.* From Gr. *δαμαζω*, *δαμαω*,  
to reduce to quiet, or stillness; Ang.-Sax. *dem-*  
man; Belg. *damm*. To confine and overcome  
the force of water; to shut up by moles or banks.  
To stop up an opening. Shakspeare applies it  
to fire, and Milton to light, restrained or con-  
fined.

I'll have the current in this place *dammed* up;  
And here the smug and silver Trent shall run  
In a new channel, fair and evenly.

Shakspeare. *Henry VI.*

The more thou *dammest* it up, the more it burns.  
Id.

Now will I *dams* up this thy yawning mouth  
For swallowing the treasure of the realm. Id.

Moon! if your influence be quite *dammed* up  
With black usurping mists, some gentle taper,  
Though a rush-candle from the wicker hole  
Of some clay habitation, visit us  
With thy long levelled rule of streaming light.

Milton.

As when the sea breaks o'er its bounds,  
And overflows the level grounds,  
Those banks and *dams*, that like a skreen  
Did keep it out, now keep it in. Hudibras.

Home I would go,  
But that my doors are hateful to my eyes,  
Filled and *dammed* up with gaping creditors,  
Watchful as fowlers when their game will spring.

Otway.

Not with so fierce a rage the foaming flood  
Roars, when he finds his rapid course withstood,  
Bears down the *dams* with unresisted sway,  
And sweeps the cattle and the cots away.

Dryden.

The inside of the *dams* must be very smooth and  
straight; and if it is made very sloping on each side,  
it is the better. Mortimer's *Husbandry.*

'Tis you must drive that trouble from your soul;  
As streams, when *dammed*, forget their ancient current,  
And, wondering at their banks, in other channels flow.

Smith.

DAMAGE, *v. a., v. n. & n. s.* } Fr. *domages*  
DAMAGEABLE, *adj.* } *dommage*; Goth.  
*damnage*, from Lat. *damnum*, injury. To injure  
hurt, impair; and the injury, or harm done.  
Damages are an estimated value or supposed,  
reparation of injury done. Damageable goods  
are those readily susceptible of injury.

His heart exalts him in the harm  
Already done, to have dispeopled heaven,  
My *damages* fondly deemed! Milton.

Gross errors and absurdities many commit for want  
of a friend to tell them of them, to the great *damages*  
both of their fame and fortune. Bacon.

The bishop demanded restitution of the spoils taken  
by the Scots, or *damages* for the same. Id.

Such as were sent from thence did commonly do  
more hurt and *damages* to the English subjects than to  
the Irish enemies, by their continual cess and extortion.

Davies.

E



They believed that they were not able, though they should be willing to sell all they have in Ireland, to pay the *damages* which had been sustained by the war.

*Id.*

**DAMAGE-FEASANT.** Beasts are said to be damage-feasant, or doing damage, when those of one person are found upon the land of another without his permission and without his fault; for if the owner of a field or enclosure adjoining upon another enclosure neglects to repair his fences, and the beasts pass through, he cannot seize them as damage-feasant. But if the beasts break into a close from the highway, where they were wrongfully left to run at large, the owner of the close may take them up, or restrain them as damage-feasant, though the fence of the close on the side next the highway was defective; for the owner is not obliged to make a fence against beasts where they cannot be lawfully left at large. The owner of land has a right to sue the owner of the beasts in trespass for the damage done by them to his crops, &c., but the law gives him also the means of stopping the damage, for he may distrain and impound the beasts.

**DAMAR**, a considerable town and district of Arabia, in the country of Yemen. It is well-built, and has a large castle and a university of the Mussulman sect Zeidi, which, Niebuhr was informed, contained 500 students. It is said to contain 5000 houses. Distant fifty-six miles north of Sana, and ninety-four north-east of Mocha.

**DAMASCENE**, Lat. *damascenus*. From Damascus; a plum. See PRUNUS.

In fruits the white commonly is meaner, as in pears, plums, and *damascenes*; and the choicest plums are black.

*Bacon.*

**DAMASCENUS** (John), an illustrious father of the church in the eighth century, born at Damascus, where his father, though a Christian, enjoyed the office of counsellor of state to the Saracen caliph, to which the son succeeded. He retired afterwards to the monastery of St. Sabas, and spent the remainder of his life in writing books of divinity. His works have been often printed; but the Paris edition, in 1712, two vols. folio, is esteemed the best.

**DAMASCIUS**, a celebrated heathen philosopher, born at Damascus, A.D. 1540, when the Goths reigned in Italy. He wrote the life of his master, Isidorus, and dedicated it to Theodora, a very learned and philosophical lady, who had also been a pupil of Isidorus. In this life, which was copiously written, he frequently made oblique attacks on the Christian religion. We have nothing remaining of it but some extracts preserved by Photius. Damascius succeeded Theon in the rhetorical school, and Isidorus in that of philosophy, at Athens.

**DAMASCUS**, דמשק, Heb.; a very ancient city of Syria, in Asia. The ancients supposed it to have been built by one Damascus, from whom it took its name; and one of the medals of the city represents a hind suckling a child, supposed to have an allusion to the founder of the city, who is said to have been brought up by dama, a hind, whence his name. This city was in being

in the time of Abraham, Gen. xiv. 15; and consequently may be looked upon as one of the most ancient cities in the world. In the time of David it seems to have been a very considerable place; as the sacred historian tells us that the Syrians of Damascus sent 20,000 men to the relief of Hadadezer, king of Zobah. We are not informed whether, at that time, it was governed by kings, or was a republic. Afterwards, however, it became a monarchy, and proved very hostile to the kingdom of Israel, and would have destroyed it entirely, had not the Deity miraculously interposed in its behalf. This monarchy was destroyed by Tiglath Pileser, king of Assyria, and Damascus was never afterwards governed by its own kings. From the Assyrians and Babylonians it passed to the Persians, and thence to the Greeks, under Alexander the Great. After his death it belonged, with the rest of Syria, to the Seleucids, till their empire was subdued by the Romans, about A.A.C. 70. From them it was taken by the Saracens, A.D. 633; and it is now in the hands of the Turks.

Notwithstanding the tyranny of the Turkish government, Damascus is still a considerable place. It is situated in a plain of so great extent, that one can but just discern the mountains, which compass it on the other side. It stands on the west side of the plain, about two miles from the head of the river Barrady, which waters it. It is of a long, straight figure, extending about two miles in length, adorned with mosques and steeples, and encompassed with gardens, computed to be full thirty miles round. The river Barrady, as soon as it issues from the clefts of the Antilibanus into the plain, is divided into three streams; the middle one, which is the largest, runs directly to Damascus, and is distributed to all the cisterns and fountains of the city. The other two seem to be artificial; and are drawn round, one to the right, and the other to the left, on the borders of the gardens, into which they are let by little currents, and dispersed every where. This river finally flows into a hollow of the south-east desert, called Behairat-el-Merdi, the Lake of the Meadow.

The houses of the city, whose streets are very narrow, are all built on the outside, either with sun-burnt bricks, or Flemish wail; and yet it is no uncommon thing to see the gates and doors adorned with marble portals, carved and inlaid with great beauty and variety; and, within these portals, to find large courts, beautified with fragrant trees and marble fountains, and surrounded with splendid apartments. In these apartments the ceilings are usually richly painted and gilded; their duans, which are a sort of low stages, seated in the pleasantest part of the room, and elevated about sixteen or eighteen inches above the floor, are floored, and adorned on the sides with variety of marble, mixed in mosaic knots and mazes, spread with carpets, and furnished all round with bolsters and cushions, to the very height of luxury. No city in the world has an equal number of fountains, or more splendid private houses. The interior of some of them is said to contain furniture worth £5000 or £6000. In this city are shown the church of John the Baptist, now converted into





a famous mosque; the house of Ananias, which is only a small grotto, or cellar, wherein is nothing remarkable; and the house of Judas, with whom Paul lodged. In this last is an old tomb, said to be that of Ananias, which the Turks hold in such veneration, that they keep a lamp continually burning over it. There is a castle belonging to Damascus, which is like a little town, having its own streets and houses; and here a magazine of the famous Damascus steel was formerly kept. The principal public building worth notice is the Zekia mosque, remarkable for its noble dimensions and general architecture. This is of the Corinthian order throughout; it has two minarets, and is of an oblong figure, crowned by a large stone cupola, supported by four enormous pillars. The gateway is supported by large columns of red granite; on the outside is a superb fountain, which throws the water twenty feet high. Another, with a grove of trees on each side, stands in a spacious court within. Numerous columns support galleries within, and portions of the walls exhibit the remains of mosaic work, with which they were once adorned. An hospital for the indigent sick is attached. This mosque is said to have been originally the cathedral church of Damascus. The Christians affirm, that it was dedicated to St. John Damascenus, whose body reposes here; but the Turks call it the mosque of St. John the Baptist. Another mosque is beautifully adorned with all kinds of fine marble, like mosaic pavement; and the tower or minaret of a third, is entirely cased with pantiles. The finest of its numerous hospitals is that constructed by the sultan 'Selim, consisting of a spacious quadrangle, lined by an interior colonnade, which is entirely roofed by forty small domes, covered with lead. On the south side of the court there is a mosque, with a magnificent portico, and two exquisite little minarets, surmounted by a spacious cupola. The patriarch of Antioch has his see at Damascus, where he commonly resides. There is also a Greek, Maronite, Syrian, and Armenian church; and three convents of Franciscan monks. There are eight Jewish synagogues.

Damascus was, at one time, noted for its general ill-treatment of Europeans; but, although no one can venture to traverse the streets, unless in the Oriental costume, without insult, there is now little difference between the citizens of Damascus, and those of other eastern cities. A number of persons are generally seen in the streets, calling themselves saints, and appearing like idiots or madmen.

The fruit-tree, called the damascene, and the flower, called the damask-rose, were transplanted from the gardens belonging to this city; and the silks and linens, known by the name of damasks, were first manufactured by its inhabitants. Niebuhr, who has given a plan of this city, makes it 3250 toises, or something less than a league and a-half in circumference, and it probably contains 180,000 inhabitants. The greater part of these are Arabs and Turks; the number of Christians is estimated at 20,000. Damascus is the rendezvous for all the pilgrims who go to Mecca, from the north of Asia, as

Cairo is for those from Africa. Their number, every year, amounts to from 30,000 to 50,000. Many of them repair here for four months before the time, but the greatest number only at the end of the Ramadan. Damascus then resembles an immense fair; nothing is to be seen but strangers from all parts of Turkey, and even Persia; and every place is full of camels, horses, mules, and merchandise. By means of this caravan, Damascus is become the centre of a very extensive commerce. By Aleppo, the merchants of this city correspond with Armenia, Natolia, Diarbekir, and even with Persia. They send caravans to Cairo, which, following a route frequented in the time of the patriarchs, take their course by Djesryakoub, Tiberias, Naplous, and Gaza. In return, they receive the merchandise of Constantinople and Europe, by way of Said and Bairout. The home consumption is supplied by silk and cotton-stuffs, which are manufactured here in great quantities, and are very well made; by the dried fruits, of their own growth, and sweetmeats, cakes of roses, apricots, and peaches, of which Turkey consumes to the amount of about 40,000 lbs. The remainder, paid for by course of exchange, occasions a considerable circulation of money, in custom-house duties, and the commission of the merchants. The pachalic of Damascus comprehends nearly the whole eastern part of Syria. In this vast extent of country, the soil and its productions are very various; but the plains of Hauran, and those on the banks of the Orontes, are the most fertile; they produce wheat, barley, sesamum, doura, and cotton. This city was one of the objects of Buonaparte's ambition while in the east: a small detachment of his cavalry had defeated the pacha's troops, and he was about to proceed to take possession of Damascus, when he was checked in his progress, in this direction, by British prowess and the disastrous results of the siege of Acre. In the year 1811 the city was menaced by the Wahabees, but the pacha going out to meet them, at the head of 6000 men, they retired. Damascus is 190 miles south of Antioch, 136 N. N. E. of Jerusalem, and 276 S. S. W. of Diarbekir.

DAMASCUS STEEL. See STEEL and CUTLERY.

DAM'ASK, *v. a. & n. s.* } Fr. *damasquin*;

DAMASKEN'ING, *n. s.* } Ital. *damaschino*.

DAM'ASK-ROSE, *n. s.* } Damask is a silk,

first manufactured at Damascus: damaskening an operation of cutlery, whereby the blades of swords and locks of pistols are ornamented, as at Damascus: and damask-rose, a rose variegated, after the manner of damask, with red and white: hence the damask of a cheek.

Not any weaver which his work doth boast  
In diaper, damask, or in lyne. *Spenser.*

*Damask-roses* have not been known in England above one hundred years, and now are so common. *Bacon.*

And for some deale perplexed was her spirit,  
Her damask late, now changed to purest white. *Fairfax.*

They sat recline  
On the soft downy bank, damasked with flowers. *Milton.*



Wipe your shoes, for want of a clout, with a damask napkin.  
*Swift's Rules to Servants.*

Around him dance the rosy hours,  
And damasking the ground with flowers,  
With ambient sweets perfume the morn. *Fenton.*  
No gradual bloom is wanting from the bud,  
Nor broad carnations, nor gay spotted pinks,  
Nor, showered from every bush, the damask-rose.  
*Thomson.*

Lowd claps the grinning fend his iron hands,  
Stamps with black hoof, and shouts along the lands;  
Withers the damask cheek, unnerves the strong,  
And drives with scorpion lash the shrieking throng.  
*Darwin.*

DAMASK, a silk stuff, with a raised pattern, so that the right side of the damask is that which has the flowers raised above the ground. Damasks should be of dressed silk, both in warp and woof. Those made in France are half an ell in breadth.

DAMASK is also a kind of wrought linen, made chiefly in Flanders; so called, because its large flowers resemble those of damasks. It is chiefly used for tables.

DAMASKEENING, or DAMASKING, partakes of the mosaic, of engraving, and of carving; like the mosaic, it has inlaid work; like engraving, it cuts the metal, representing divers figures; and, as in chasing gold and silver, is wrought in relieve. There are two ways of damasking; the one, which is the finest, is when the metal is cut deep with proper instruments, and inlaid with gold and silver wire; the other is superficial only.

DAMAUN, a sea-port in the province of Aurungabad, Hindostan, 100 miles north from Bombay. The Portuguese, who still retain it, reduced this place so early as 1531. Its houses and churches make a conspicuous figure from the sea; but the commerce is now reduced. Ship-building, however, is carried on to a considerable extent, the teak-forests of the vicinity supplying excellent timber. A ship, coppered, and equipped for sea, in the European style, in 1800, cost about £14 sterling per ton, according to Mr. Hamilton. The harbour is commodious for vessels of a small size.

DAMIANISTS, in church history, a branch of the ancient Acephali Severitæ. They agreed with the catholics in admitting the sixth council, but disowned any distinction of persons in the God-head; and professed one single nature incapable of distinction; yet they called God 'the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost.'

DAMIENS (Robert Francis), a French assassin, of some notoriety for his attempt on the life of Louis XV., and for the tortures inflicted on him for that attempt, was born in Artois in 1715. He was the son of a small farmer; and his character, even in his childhood, procured him the name of Robert le Diable. He enlisted, when young, for a soldier, deserted, and afterwards became the servant of an officer, whom he attended to the siege of Philipsburgh. He was afterwards a domestic in the Jesuits' College at Paris. He finally left their service in 1738. He is accused of having afterwards poisoned one of his masters, after which he fled into Flanders. On the last day of the year 1756, he returned

to Paris, whence he proceeded to Versailles; and on the evening of the 5th of January, 1757, went to the palace, and, as his majesty was about to get into his carriage, to go to Trianon, pushing aside the attendants, made his way up to the king, and stabbed him in the side. He made no effort to escape, but was taken immediately; and, after having been interrogated at Versailles, was transferred to Paris. On his trial he denied having any accomplices, nor did the application of the most cruel tortures wring from him any probable accusation. On being questioned as to the cause of his crime, he said he did not mean to kill the king, and that he could have done it, if he had thought proper. He added, 'What I did was, that God might touch the king's heart, and induce him to restore order and tranquillity to the nation. The archbishop of Paris is the sole cause of our troubles.' Having been repeatedly tortured, he was sentenced to be put to death in the same cruel manner with Ravallac, the murderer of Henry IV.

DAMIETTA, a port-town of Egypt, on the east mouth of the Nile, four miles from the sea-coast. The present town stands upon a different site from the ancient Damietta, so repeatedly attacked by the European princes. The latter, according to Abulfeda, was 'a town surrounded by walls, and situated at the mouth of the eastern branch of the Nile.' Stephen of Byzantium informs us, that it was called Thamiatis, under the government of the Greeks of the lower empire, but that it was then very inconsiderable. It increased in importance, in proportion as Pelusium, which was frequently plundered, lost its power. The total ruin of that ancient town, occasioned the commerce of the eastern parts of the Delta to be transferred to this. It was, however, no longer a place of strength, when, about the year 238 of the Hegira, the emperors of Constantinople took possession of it a second time. The importance of a harbour, so favorably situated, opened the eyes of the caliphs. In the year 244 of the Hegira, Elmetouakkel surrounded it with strong walls. This obstacle did not prevent Roger, king of Sicily, from taking it from the Mahomedans, in the year 550 of the Hegira. He did not, however, long enjoy his conquest. Salah Eddin, who about that period mounted the throne of Egypt, expelled the Europeans from Damietta. They returned to besiege it fifteen years after; but the sultan baffled all their efforts. Notwithstanding their land army was supported by a fleet of 1200 sail, they were obliged to make a disgraceful retreat. It was the fate of this place to be often besieged. In the year 615 of the Hegira, under the reign of Eladel, the crusaders attacked it with a very considerable force. They landed on the western shore of the Nile, and their first care was to surround their camp with a ditch and pallisadoes. The mouth of the river was defended by two towers, furnished with numerous garrisons. An enormous iron chain, stretching from one side to the other, hindered the approach of vessels. The crusaders carried, by storm, the tower on the same side with their camp, broke the chain, and opened the entrance of the river for their



ejm Eddin, the sultan's son, who was near Damietta, covered it with an iron to stop the enemy's vessels, he threw a net over the Nile. The Franks overturned the prince adopted the measure of choking the mouth of the river, which he rendered impassable by several large boats he sunk. After alternate successes, many bloody battles and a siege of seventeen months, the princes took Damietta by storm. They have, however, long enjoyed the fruit of so much spilt blood, and of an armament which cost immense sums. Completely invested by the Egyptian army, they purchased their liberty by the sacrifice of the place. Thirty-one years after this deliverance carried Damietta without striking a blow.

The Arabs, however, soon recovered tired of keeping a place, which continued upon them the most warlike nations, they totally destroyed it, and built another up in the country. This modern town, first called Menchie, as Abulfeda tells reserved the memory of its origin, in a still called by that name. Writers, in have confounded these two towns, as to the one the attributes of the other.

Damietta is of a semicircular shape and stands also on the east bank of the Nile, ten miles and a-half from its mouth. It is situated, by Savary, to contain 80,000 souls, has been thought an excessive estimate. Several squares, the most considerable of which retained the name of Menchie. The houses are filled with merchants. Spacious khans, collecting under their porticos the silks of India, the silks of Mount Lebanon, and the pyramids of rice, proclaim its great respectability. The houses, those in the river which are on the banks of the river, lofty. They have, in general, handsome terraces on the top of their terraces, open to every where the Turk, reclining on a sofa, is life in smoking, or in looking on the sea bounds the horizon on one side; on the lake that extends itself on the other; the Nile, which, running between them, is a rich country. Several large mosques, with minarets, are dispersed over the city. The public baths, lined with marble, are used in the same manner as those of Cairo. The linen is clean, and the water pure. The heat, and the treatment in the bath, far from injuring the health, serve to refresh and improve it, if used with moderation. This custom, founded on experience, is general in Egypt. The port of Damietta is contended with a multitude of boats and small boats. Those called scherm serve to convey the goods on board the ships in the road, and the others carry on the coasting. This town carries on a great trade with Cyprus, and Marseilles. The rice, called *damia*, of the finest quality in Egypt, is cultivated in the neighbouring plains. The exports of it, annually, to about six millions of livres. Articles of the produce of the country are cotton, ammoniac, corn, &c. The Christians

of Aleppo and Damascus, settled in this town, have, for several ages, carried on its principal commerce. The bad state of the port is very detrimental to Damietta. The road, where the vessels lie, being exposed to every wind, the slightest gale obliges the captains to cut their cables, and take shelter in Cyprus, or stand off to sea. The tongue of land, on which Damietta is situated, straitened on one side by the river, and on the other by the western extremity of the lake Menzale, is only from two to six miles wide from east to west. It is intersected by innumerable rivulets in every direction, which render it the most fertile spot in Egypt. There are many villages around the town, in which are manufactures of the most beautiful linens. The finest napkins, in particular, are made here, fringed with silk. Damietta is 100 miles N. N. E. of Cairo.

DAMN, *v. a.*

DAMNED, *part. & n. s.*

DAMNABLE, *adj.*

DAMNABLENESS, *n. s.*

DAMNABLY, *adv.*

DAMNATION, *n. s.*

DAMNATORY, *adj.*

DAMNIFY, *v. a.*

DAMNINGNESS, *n. s.*

Lat. *damno*; Old Fr. *damner*; which Minsheu derives from the Heb.  $\text{דָּמָה}$ , the shedding of blood in sacrifice or punishment. To condemn; and the state of being condemned, temporally or eternally. To curse; to disapprove; to explode. 'Indecently used,' also, as Johnson says, 'in a ludicrous (and trifling) sense.'

I answeride, that it is not custom to romayns, to dampne any man before that he that is accused haue his accusers present. *Wicklif. Dedis. 25.*

And not as we ben blasfemed, and as sum men seyn, that we seyn, do we yuele things that goode thingis come, whos dampnaciuon is just.

*Id. Romayns. iii. 8.*

For wel thou wost thy selven verailly That thou and I be damned to prison Perpetual; us gaineth no rainson.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

When now he saw himself so freshly rear, As if late fight had nought him dammed, He was dismayed, and gan his fate to fear.

*Faerie Queene.*

Not in the legions Of horrid hell can come a devil more damned In evils to top Macbeth.

*Shakespeare. Macbeth.*

Let not the royal bed of Denmark be A couch for luxury and damned incest.

*Id. Hamlet.*

He's a creature unprepared, unmeet for death; And to transport him in the mind he is Were damnable.

*Id. Measure for Measure.*

It gives him occasion of labouring with greater earnestness elsewhere, to entangle unwary minds with the snares of his damnable opinion.

*Hooker.*

Whence damned vice is shrouded quite from shame, And crowned with virtue's meed, immortal name! Infamy dispossess of native due, Ordained of old on looser life to sue.

*Bishop Hall. Prologue to Satires.*

He that hath been affrighted with the fears of hell, or remembers how often he hath been spared from an horrible damnation, will not be ready to strangle his brother for a trifle.

*Taylor's Worthy Communicant.*

He may vow never to return to those sins which he hath had such experience of, for the emptiness and damnable of them, and so think himself a complete penitent.

*Hammond.*



Now mince the sin,  
And mollify damnation with a phrase:  
Say you consented not to Sancho's death,  
But barely not forbade it.

Dryden.

His own impartial thought  
Will damn, and conscience will record the fault. *Id.*

We will propose the question, whether those who hold the fundamentals of faith may deny Christ damnably, in respect of those consequences that arise from them?

South's Sermons.

He, who has suffered the damage, has a right to demand in his own name, and he alone can remit, satisfaction: the *damned* person has the power of appropriating the goods or service of the offender, by right of self-preservation.

Loche.

Dare not  
To brand the spotless virtue of my prince  
With falsehoods of most base and *damned* contrivance.

Rowe.

As he does not reckon every schism of a *damnable* nature, so he is far from closing with the new opinion of those who make it no crime.

Swift.

The more sweets they bestowed upon them, the more *damnable* their conserves stunk.

Dennis.

You are so good a critick, that it is the greatest happiness of the modern poets that you do not hear their works; and, next, that you are not so arrant a critick as to *damn* them, like the rest, without hearing.

Pope.

Clouds

Rise curling fast beneath me, white and sulphury,  
Like foam from the roused ocean of deep Hell,  
Whose every wave breaks on a living shore,  
Heaped with the *damned* like pebbles.—I am giddy.

Byron.

DAMNII, an ancient people of Britain, who inhabited the district situated between the territories of the Selgovæ on the south, and the Caledonii on the north, now called Clydesdale.

DAMOCLES, one of the flatterers of Dionysius the elder, of Sicily. He admired the tyrant's wealth, and pronounced him the happiest man on earth. Dionysius prevailed upon him to undertake, for a while, the charge of royalty, and be convinced of the happiness which a sovereign enjoyed. Damocles ascended the throne, and while he gazed upon the wealth and splendor which surrounded him, he perceived a sword hanging over his head by a single hair. This so terrified him, that all his imaginary felicity vanished at once, and thus represented to him the danger and misery of royal state.

DAMON AND PYTHIAS, two illustrious friends of antiquity, who have immortalised their names by the strength and sincerity of their friendship. Damon was a Pythagorean philosopher, who, having incurred the displeasure of Dionysius, tyrant of Syracuse, was condemned to death. He asked a short respite, till he should settle some domestic business, of the utmost importance to his family, but which required his personal presence at some distance from Syracuse. Dionysius agreed to grant his request, upon a condition, which he supposed impossible to be complied with, viz. that Damon should find some person who was willing to suffer death in his stead, provided he did not return at the time appointed. Pythias, to the surprise of the tyrant, cheerfully surrendered himself as a pledge for his friend Damon; who, after settling

his business, astonished the tyrant still more, by returning punctually at the hour fixed for his execution. Dionysius was so struck with the fidelity of these two friends, that he remitted the punishment, and entreated them to permit him to share their friendship, and enjoy their confidence.

DAMP, *v. a., n. s. & adj.*

DAMP'NESS, *n. s.*

DAMP'ISH, *adj.*

DAMP'ISHNESS, *n. s.*

DAMP'Y, *adj.*

Sax. and Belg. damp; Teutonic, dampf. Serezius says from Scyth. *daa*, vapor. To wet, moisten, make humid; foggy, moist, or heavy air; and hence to depress, deject, make dull, discourage. Dampish, dampishness, and dampy are diminutives of the same signification.

It has been used by some with great success to make their walls thick; and to put a lay of chalk between the bricks, to take away all *dampishness*.

Bacon.

A soft body *dampeth* the sound much more than a hard.

*Id.*

Night; not now, as ere man fell,  
Wholesome and cool, and mild; but with black air  
Accompanied, with *damps* and dreadful gloom.

Milton.

All these and more came flocking, but with looks  
Downcast and *damp*: yet such wherein appeared  
Obscure some glimpse of joy.

*Id.*

Unless an age too late, or cold  
Climate, or years, *damp* my intended wing  
Depressed.

*Id.*

The very loss of one pleasure is enough to *damp* the relish of another.

L'Estrange.

Nor need they fear the *dampness* of the sky  
Should flag their wings, and hinder them to fly;  
'Twas only water thrown on sails too dry.

Dryden.

She said no more: the trembling Trojans hear,  
O'erspread with a *damp* sweat and holy fear.

*Id.*

This commendable resentment against me, strikes a *damp* upon that spirit in all ranks and corporations of men.

Swift.

Even now, while thus I stand blest in thy presence,  
A secret *damp* of grief comes o'er my thoughts.

Addison.

An eternal state he knows and confesses that he has made no provision for, that he is undone for ever: a prospect enough to cast a *damp* over his sprightliest hours.

Rogers.

Dread of death hangs over the mere natural man, and, like the hand-writing on the wall, *damps* all his jollity.

Atterbury.

The heat of the sun, in the hotter seasons, penetrating the exterior parts of the earth, excites those mineral exhalations in subterraneous caverns, which are called *damps*: these seldom happen but in the summer-time; when, the hotter the weather is, the more frequent are the *damps*.

Woodward.

The lords did dispel *dampy* thoughts, which the remembrance of his uncle might raise, by applying him with exercises and disports.

Hayward.

Cypress and ivy, weed and wall-flower grown  
Matted and massed together, hillocks heaped  
On what were chambers, arch crushed, column strown  
In fragments, chok'd up vaults, and frescos steeped  
In subterranean *damps*, where the owl peeped.  
Decem'd it midnight.

Byron.

DAMPS, in natural history, from the Saxon word *damp*, signifying vapour, are certain noxi-



lations issuing from some parts of the chiefly observed in mines and coal-pits: vapors of the same kind often issue from the tops of burning mountains, in those countries volcanoes are common. In mines and coal-pits are chiefly of two kinds, called by the miners the choke and fire-damps. The fire-damp is very much of the nature of fixed air, and usually infests those places which have been recently worked, but long neglected, and known to the miners by the name of wastes. Fire-damp suffocates the miners suddenly, and the appearances found in those suffocated are the same as in those who have died of air. Being heavy, it descends towards the lower parts of the workings, and thus is dangerous to the miners, who can scarcely avoid it. The fire-damp, which seems chiefly composed of inflammable air, rises to the top of the workings, as being specifically lighter than the common atmosphere; and hence, though it suffocates as well as the other, it is seldom so dangerous in this way as by its inflammable property, by which it often takes fire from candles, and explodes with extreme violence. See COAL-MINES.

The formation of these damps we have as yet no theory; nor, though the experimentalists are able to show the composition and the mode of forming these noxious airs artificially, they yet throw much light on the method which nature prepares them on a large scale. There are two general ways in which we may suppose this to be done: one by the stagnation of heretical air in old waste places of mines and shafts, and its conversion into these mephitic gases; the other by their original formation from the phlogistic or other materials found in the earth, without any interference of the atmosphere. See GAS and CARBURETTED HYDROGEN.

DANIEL (William), a famous navigator, descended from a respectable family in Somerset, and born in 1652. Losing his father very young, he went to sea, where he soon distinguished himself. His Voyage round the world is well known, and has gone through several editions. He appears afterwards to have been in an expedition concerted by the merchants of Bristol to the South Sea, commanded by Captain Woods Rogers; who sailed in 1708, and returned in September 1711: for further particulars of his life or death see the article.

DAMSEL, *n. s.* Goth. *damoisell*; Ital. *donzella*; i. e. a female don, from Lat. *don*. 'A gentlewoman, unmarried, being a lady,' says Minshew; and 'quasi parvus, a little lord or master.' Johnson says it has formerly been applied to both sexes, but gives no instance of it in the masculine. It is now only used in verse.

*Side go ye away for the damsel is not deed but  
and thei scorneden him.*

*Wiclif. Matthew 9.*

At last she has  
damsel spyde slow-footing her before,  
on her shoulders sad a pot of water bore.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

With her train of damsels she was gone  
in shady walks, the scorching heat to shun.

*Dryden.*

Kneeling, I my servant's smiles implore,  
And one mad damsel dares dispute my power.

*Prior.*

DAM'SON, *n. s.* Corruptly from *damascene*.  
A small black plum. See DAMASCENE.

My wife desired some damsons,  
And made me climb with danger of my life.

*Shakespeare.*

DAN, *n. s.* From *dominus*, as now *don* in Spain, and Ital. *donna*, from *domina*. The old term of honor for men, as we now say master. 'I know not,' says Dr. Johnson, 'that it was ever used in prose, and imagine it to have been rather of ludicrous import.' But Spenser uses it in serious praise of Chaucer, below.

Old dan Geoffrey, in whose gentle spright  
The pure well-head of poetry did dwell—  
He whilst he lived was the soveraigne head  
Of shepherds all.

*Spenser.*

This whimpled, whining, purblind, wayward boy,  
This signor Junio's giant dwarf, dan Cupid.

*Shakespeare.*

Dick, if this story pleaseth thee,  
Pray thank dan Pope, who told it me.

*Prior's Alma.*

DAN, 37 Heb. i. e. judgment, one of the twelve patriarchs, the fifth son of Jacob. Of his history nothing is recorded, except that he had but one son, named Hushim; though his posterity was afterwards very numerous.

DAN, or the DANITES, one of the twelve tribes of Israel, descended from the patriarch Dan. Their number, at the emigration from Egypt, amounted to 62,700, and they increased in the wilderness. After their settlement in Canaan, a party of them, who went to take Laish, in their way robbed Micah the Ephraimite of his idol, which they continued to worship till they were carried captive by Tiglath Pileser. Samson, the heroic judge of Israel, was of this tribe; and 28,600 of them attended at David's coronation. The Danites appear to have been early acquainted with commerce, for they had ships in the time of Jabin, king of the Canaanites. See Judges v. 17. Their territory extended west of Judah, and was terminated by Azotus and Dora on the Mediterranean.

DAN, in scripture geography, a city of the Danites, situated on the east side of the springs of Jordan, on the south of Mount Lebanon. It was named Laish or Leshem. Here Jeroboam established idolatry by setting up his golden calves. This city and Beersheba were the two extremities of the kingdom of Israel. Dan was taken and pillaged by Benhadad king of Syria; notwithstanding which it made some figure after the captivity. Some authors say, that it was rebuilt by Philip the tetrarch of Galilee, in our Saviour's time, and named by him Casarea Philippi. It lay east of Sidon and west of Damascus. It is thought by some to be the Lasha of Gen. x. 19.

DAN, in modern geography, a considerable river of the United States in North Carolina, which has been rendered navigable for boats a great way up. It unites with the Staunton in Virginia, and forms the Roanoke.



**DANAE**, in antiquity, a coin somewhat more than an obolus, used to be put into the mouths of the dead, to pay their passage over the river Styx.

**DANAE**, in fabulous history, the daughter of Acrisius, king of Argos, by Eurydice. She was confined in a brazen tower by her father, who had been told by an oracle that his daughter's son would put him to death. But Jupiter, who was enamoured of Danae, introduced himself to her bed by changing himself into a shower of gold. From his embraces Danae had a son, with whom she was exposed on the sea by her father. The wind drove the bark which carried her to the coasts of the island of Seriphus; where she was saved by some fishermen, and carried to Polydeutes king of the place, whose brother, Dictys, educated the child, named Perseus, and tenderly treated the mother. Polydeutes fell in love with her; but, being afraid of her son, he sent him to conquer the Gorgons, pretending that he wished Medusa's head to adorn his nuptials with Hippodamia the daughter of Enomaus. When Perseus had victoriously finished his expedition, he retired to Argos with Danae to the house of Acrisius, whom he inadvertently killed. Virgil says that Danae after this came to Italy, and founded the city of Ardea. Some suppose that it was Pretus, the brother of Acrisius, who introduced himself to Danae in the brazen tower; but, whoever was her seducer, the fable of the golden shower plainly implies that the keepers of the tower were bribed. Against such showers, indeed, towers of brass and bars of iron are no defence.

**DANAIDES**, in fabulous history, the fifty daughters of Danaus king of Argos. When their uncle Egyptus came from Egypt with his fifty sons, they were promised in marriage to their cousins; but before the celebration of their nuptials, Danaus, who had been informed by an oracle that he was to be killed by the hands of one of his sons-in-law, made his daughters solemnly promise that they would destroy their husbands. They were provided with daggers, and all except Hypermnestra proved but too obedient to their father's bloody injunctions, as a proof of which they presented him with the heads of their murdered husbands, on the morning after their nuptials. Hypermnestra was summoned to appear and answer for her disobedience in suffering her husband Lynceus to escape; but the unanimous voice of the people declared her innocent, and she dedicated a temple to the goddess of Persuasion. The forty-nine sisters were condemned, in hell, to fill with water a vessel full of holes, so that their labor was infinite and their punishment eternal.

**DANAUS**, in fabulous history, a son of Belus and Anchinoe, who, after his father's death, reigned conjointly with his brother Egyptus on the throne of Egypt. Some time after a difference arose between the brothers, and Danaus set sail with his fifty daughters in quest of a settlement. He visited Rhodes, where he consecrated a statue to Minerva, and arrived safe on the coast of Peloponnesus, where he was hospitably received by Gelanor king of Argos. Gelanor had lately ascended the throne, and the first years

of his reign were marked by dissensions with his subjects. Danaus took advantage of his unpopularity, and obliged him to resign the crown. The success of Danaus led the fifty sons of Egyptus to embark for Greece. They were received with hypocritical kindness by their uncle; and soon after all murdered, except Lynceus. See **DANAIDES**. Danaus at first persecuted Lynceus with unremitted fury; but he was afterwards reconciled to him, and acknowledged him for his son-in-law and successor after a reign of fifty years. He began his reign about A. A. C. 1586; and after death was honored with a splendid monument in Argos, which existed in the age of Pausanias.

**DANBURY**, a town of the United States of America, in Connecticut, fifty-five miles N. N. E. of New York, and 116 south-west of Boston. This town was settled in 1687, and, with a great quantity of military stores, was burnt by the British on the 26th of April, 1777, but has been rebuilt since the peace. It lies thirty-three miles north-west by west of New Haven.

**DANCE**, *v. a., v. n. & n. s.* Goth. & Belg. *dans*; Fr. *dance*; Ital. *danza*, from the Heb. *דָּנָה*, to leap, says Minshew. To step, or move in measure; to dandle; a motion of one or more musically regulated; one who practises such motions is a dancer; he who teaches them a dancing-master; and a dancing-school the place where they are professedly taught. Dancing is also used for any concerted and regular motion or attendance.

But in the day of eroudis birthe, the daughter of erodias *daunside* in the myddil and pleside eroude.

Wiclif. Matt. xiv.

Now his elder son was in the field, and, as he came and drew nigh to the house, he heard music and dancing.

Luke xv.

In olde dayes of the king Artour,—  
The Elf quene with hire joly compaignie  
Danced ful ofte in many a grene mede.  
This was the old opinion as I rede.

Chaucer. Cant. Tales.

In pestilences, the malignity of the infecting vapour *danceth* the principal spirits.

Bacon.

The honourablest part of talk is to give the occasion, and again to moderate and pass to somewhat else; for then a man leads the *dance*.

Id.

What say you to young Mr. Fenton? He capers, he *dances*, he has eyes of youth, he writes verses.

Shakespeare

Thy grandsire loved thee well,  
Many a time he *danced* thee on his knee.

Id.

He at Philippi kept  
His sword e'en like a *dancer*, while I strook  
The lean and wrinkled Cassius.

Id.

They bid us to the English *dancing-schools*,  
And teach lavoltas high, and swift courantos;  
Saying our grace is only in our heels.

Id.

Musicians and *dancers*! take some truce  
With these your pleasing labours; for great use  
As much weariness as perfection brings.

Donne.

Men are sooner weary to *dance* attendance at the gates of foreign lords, than to tarry the good leisure of their own magistrates.

Raleigh's Essays.



an Egyptian king endowed a dancing-school  
instruction of apes of quality. *L'Estrange.*

were taught their apes' tricks by a dancing-  
*Id.*

How I loved,  
ye days and nights, and all ye hours,  
and away with down upon your feet,  
our business were to count my passion.  
*Dryden.*

It upbraids you,  
your father's friend, for three long months,  
and attendance for a word of audience.  
*Id.*

of a dancing-master, and the fingers of a  
fall, as it were, naturally, without thought  
into regular and admirable motions.

*Locke on Understanding.*

we, I thought, performed too mean a part,  
her movements to the rules of art;  
and, I found that the musician's hand  
the dancer's mind too great command.

*Prior.*

Midnight shout, and revelry,  
Fipsy dance, and jollity.

*Byron.*

not nor slight the sufferance, when the  
light  
at Sin provokes unpitying Fate;  
def mutiny, in frets begun,  
forgotten e'er the dance is done,  
feelings, more of fancy than of heart,  
be treason, light the venging smart.

*Dr. T. Brown.*

S, ANCIENT. There is no account of the  
dancing among mankind. It is found  
among the most barbarous and uncivi-  
lized, and is too intimately connected  
with the mechanism of the human body to be  
derivable from art. The Greeks were  
people, however, who reduced it to a  
system. At Athens, it is said, that the dance of  
Muses, or Furies, on the theatre had so  
much of a character as to strike the spectators  
with a terrible terror; and people imagined  
in earnest the personified deities com-  
ing with the vengeance of heaven to pun-  
ish their crimes. They had also  
dances, to keep up the warlike spirit of  
youth. Plato reduces the dances of the  
Greeks to three classes, viz.

*Domestic Dances.* Of these, some were  
only gambols, or sportive exercises, which  
character of imitation, and of which the  
art exist to this day. The others were  
complex, more agreeable, figured, and were  
accompanied with singing. Among the  
simple ones was the *ascoliasmus*; which  
consisted in jumping, with one foot only, on  
a mat filled with air or with wine, and rubbed  
outside with oil. The *kybistes* was  
allied in this country the Somerset. Of  
this kind was that called the wine-press,  
there is a description in Longinus, and  
in a dance.

*Diastolical Dances.* These were used in  
sacrifices. Among the ancients  
there were no festivals nor religious assemblies  
which were accompanied with songs and  
dances. They were looked upon to be so essen-  
tial kinds of ceremonies, that to express

the crime of such as were guilty of revealing the  
sacred mysteries, they employed the word  
*kheistæ*, 'to be out of the dance.' The most an-  
cient of these religious dances is the *Bacchic*;  
which was not only consecrated to Bacchus, but  
to all the deities whose festival was celebrated  
with a kind of enthusiasm. The most grave and  
majestic was the *hyporchæmatic*; it was executed  
to the lyre, and accompanied with the voice.—  
At his return from Crete, Theseus instituted a  
dance at which he himself assisted, at the head of  
a numerous and splendid band of youth, round  
the altar of Apollo. The dance was composed  
of three parts, the *strophe*, the *antistrophe*, and  
the *stationary*. In the *strophe* the movements  
were from the right to the left; in the *antistrophe*  
from the left to the right. In the *stationary*  
they danced before the altar; so that the *stationary*  
did not mean absolute pause or rest, but  
only a more slow or grave movement. Plutarch  
is persuaded that in this dance there is a pro-  
found mystery. He thinks that by the *strophe*  
is indicated the motion of the world from east to  
west; by the *antistrophe* the motion of the plan-  
ets from west to east; and, by the *stationary*,  
the stability of the earth. To this dance The-  
seus gave the name of *geranos*, or 'the crane';  
because the figures which characterised it bore a  
resemblance to those described by cranes in their  
flight.

3. *Military Dances*, which tended to make  
the body robust, active, and well disposed for all  
the exercises of war. Of these there were two  
sorts; viz. the *gymnopedic*, and the *pyrrhic*. 1.  
The *gymnopedic* dance, or the dance of children,  
was invented by the Spartans for an early excita-  
tion of courage in their children, and to lead  
them on insensibly to the exercise of the armed  
dance. This dance used to be executed in the  
public place. It was composed of two choirs;  
the one of grown men, the other of children;  
whence, being chiefly designed for the latter, it  
took its name. They were both in a state of  
nudity. The choir of the children regulated  
their motions by those of the men, and all danced  
at the same time, singing the poems of Thales,  
Alcman, and Dionysodotus.

The *Pyrrhic*, or *Enoplian* dance, was per-  
formed by young men armed cap-a-pee, who ex-  
ecuted, to the sound of the flute, all the proper  
movements either for attack or for defence. It  
was composed of four parts: 1. The *podism* or  
footing, which consisted in a quick shifting mo-  
tion of the feet, such as was necessary for over-  
taking a flying enemy, or for getting away from  
him when an overmatch: 2. The *xiphism* was a  
kind of mock fight, in which the dancers imitated  
all the motions of combatants; aiming a stroke,  
darting a javelin, or dexterously dodging, parry-  
ing, or avoiding a blow or thrust. 3. The *komos*  
consisted in very high leaps or vaultings,  
which the dancers frequently repeated, for the  
better using themselves occasionally to leap over  
a ditch, or spring over a wall. 4. The *tetracomos*  
was the last part; this was a square figure, exe-  
cuted by slow and majestic movements, but it is  
uncertain whether it was every where executed  
in the same manner. Of all the Greeks, the  
Spartans most cultivated the *Pyrrhic* dance.



Athenæus relates that they had a law by which they were obliged to exercise their children at it from the age of five years. This warlike people constantly retained the custom of accompanying their dances with hymns and songs. The following was sung for the dance called *trichoria*, said to be instituted by Lycurgus, and which had its name from its being composed of three choirs, one of children, another of young men, and the third of old. The old men opened the dance, saying, 'In time past we were valiant.' The young men answered, 'We are so at present.' 'We shall be still more so when our time comes,' replied the chorus of children. The Spartans never danced but with real arms. In process of time, however, other nations came to use only weapons of wood on such occasions. Nay, it was only so late as the days of Athenæus, who lived in the second century, that the dancers of the *Pyrrhic*, instead of arms, carried only flasks, thyrsuses or reeds. But, even in Aristotle's days, they had begun to use thyrsuses instead of pikes, and lighted torches in lieu of javelins and swords. With these torches they executed a dance which was called the conflagration of the world.

*Religious dances* were not confined to the pagan world. They have been practised both by Jews and Christians. Among the ancient Jews, it appears to have made a part of religious worship on some occasions, as we learn from passages in the Psalms, though we do not find it enjoined as a divine precept. In the Christian churches mentioned in the New Testament, there is no account of dancing being introduced as an act of worship, though it is certain that it was used as such in after ages.

*Theatrical or stage dances.* The Greeks were the first who united the dance to their tragedies and comedies; not indeed as making part of those spectacles, but merely as an accessory. The Romans copied after the Greeks; but in the reign of Augustus they left their instructors far behind them. Two remarkable men made their appearance at that time, who invented a new species of entertainment, and carried it to a great degree of perfection. These were Pylades and Bathylus, who first introduced among the Romans what the French call the *ballet d'action*, wherein the performer is both actor and dancer. Pylades undertook the task of representing, with the assistance of the dance alone, strong and pathetic situations. He succeeded perhaps beyond his own expectation, and may be called the father of that style of dancing which is known to us by the name of grave or serious pantomime. Bathylus, an Alexandrian, and a freedman of Mæcenas, took upon himself to represent such subjects as required a certain liveliness and agility. He was handsome in his person; and the two great scourges of Roman follies, Persius and Juvenal, speak of him as the gallant of every woman in Rome. After their death the art gradually sunk into obscurity, and became even entirely forgotten on the accession of Trajan to the empire. Thus buried with the other arts in oblivion, dancing remained uncultivated till about the fifteenth century, when ballets were revived in Italy at a magnificent entertainment

given by a nobleman of Lombardy at Tortona on account of the marriage between Galeas duke of Milan and Isabella of Arragon. At first the women had no share in the public or theatrical dance; but, in 1681, we find the then dauphine, the princess of Conti, and some other ladies of the first distinction in the court of Louis XIV. performed a ballet with the opera called *le Triomphe de l'Amour*. This union of the two sexes served to enliven and render the spectacle more pleasing and far more brilliant. It was received with so much applause, that in the May of that year, when the same opera was acted in Paris at the theatre of the Palais Royal, it was thought indispensable for the success of that kind of entertainment to introduce female dancers, and they have continued ever since to be the principal support of the opera. Thus, what was at first introduced as a mere accessory to the musical performance, became in process of time its only support; and this circumstance excited the emulation of several ballet masters.

*Modern dancing* is so much the creature of change and fashion, that we feel it impossible to detail its ever-varying steps in a work of science. We must refer our younger readers to the professors of the art; observing, only, that it seems in itself a natural and most innocent mode of exercise and graceful motion; while, on the other hand, in crowded assemblies, among the suffocating vapors of innumerable lights and breaths, the blood becomes often unnaturally propelled to the breast and head; perspiration is dangerously checked; the lungs are expanded, and the foundation is too often laid of that fatal disease, consumption.

**DANCER** (Daniel), an extraordinary miser, born near Harrow, in Middlesex, in 1716, of a family who possessed a considerable estate in that county. He succeeded to the family estate in 1736. For upwards of fifty years he led the life of a hermit, having no dealings with mankind but what the sale of his hay necessarily occasioned; and was seldom seen, except when he was out gathering logs from the common, or old iron, or sheep's dung under the hedges. His house was at one time robbed, to prevent which, he fastened up the door, and, by means of a ladder, went in at an upper window, drawing the ladder carefully up after him. He had a sister who lived with him for a number of years, and who left him a considerable increase to his store, at her death; on which occasion, to put himself in decent mourning, he purchased a pair of second-hand worsted stockings. Even this was an article of luxury, for he commonly wore bands of hay around his legs. He died in 1794, and left his estates to lady Tempest, who had been very charitable to the poor man and his sister.

**DANCETTE**, in heraldry, an epithet applied to the *bordure* or ordinary, when very deeply indented, so as to make generally but three points in the breadth of the shield, as fig. 1. a *fesse dancette sable*, fig. 2, *azure* two bars indented or. Name James. Double dancette, fig. 3, is an epithet belonging peculiarly to the bend, as *argent* a bend double dancette, *azure*, name Hericson.



Fig. 1.



Fig. 2.



Fig. 3.



N'DELION, *n. s.* Fr. *dent de lion*. A of the syngenesia class. See LEONTODON.

For cowslips sweet let dandelions spread,  
or Blouzelinda, blithsome maid, is dead.

Gay.

NDINI (Casar), an historical painter, was of Florence, and successively studied with Carracci, Passignano, and Christopher from whom he acquired a very pleasing manner of designing and coloring. He was extremely correct in his drawing, and finished his works highly. Several noble altar-pieces in churches of Florence are of his hand; and such is in the chapel l'Annonciata, is particularly admired.

NDINI (Peter), an eminent painter, born at Rome in 1646. He received his first instruction from Valerio Spada, who excelled in small works with a pen. He afterwards travelled through most of the cities of Italy, studying the works of those who were most distinguished; and resided long at Venice, where he copied the works of Titian, Tintoretto, Paul Veronese, and Verreggio. When he returned to Florence and duke Cosmo III. kept him perpetually employed, in painting fresco, as well as in oil; subjects being taken not only from sacred and classical history, but from his own fancy, which greatly furnished him with whimsical caricatures. He died in 1712.

NDIPRAT, *n. s.*, or DODKIN, says Minerva little among other money, as a dandified dwarf among other men.' For according to Henry VII. stamped a small coin of mine. Dr. Johnson says, 'a fool.'

A very dandiprat and exceedingly deformed.  
*World of Wonders*, 1608.

NDLE, *v. a.* } Fr. *dandiner*; Teut. *tandeln*, *n. s.* } *dle*; Belg. *danden*, to trifle with a child; to lull it, or dance it lightly to and fro. Also to trifle away time; to

And ye shall suck at the breast,  
Ye shall be carried at the side,  
And on the knees shall ye be dandled.

*Isaiah lvi. Bishop Louth's Translation.*

And so dandle their doings, and dally in the  
as if they would not have the enemy subdued.

*Spenser.*

Courts are but superficial schools  
to dandle fools.

*Bacon.*

Their child shall be advanced,  
He received for the emperor's heir,  
Let the emperor dandle him for his own.

*Shakspeare.*

Turning the lion ramped, and in his paw  
Led the kid.

*Milton.*

On occasions sleep, as we find by the common  
sucking forward children in cradles, or dandling  
their nurses' arms.

*Tillotson.*

'They have put me in a silk gown, and a gaudy fool's cap; I am ashamed to be dandled thus, and cannot look in the glass without blushing, to see myself turned into such a little pretty master.

*Addison's Guardian.*

DANDOLO (Henry), doge of Venice, was born in 1108, and chosen to that office in 1192. He was nearly blind at the period of his election, but neither that circumstance, nor his age, impaired the vigor of his mind, and the events of his government became the principal causes of the greatness of his country. Dandolo induced the senate to join in the fourth crusade, but directed the first efforts of the armament to recover Zara, which had revolted from its allegiance to the republic. He accompanied the expedition to Constantinople, and, on the storming of the city, was the first who leaped on shore. After the various changes with respect to the imperial throne, which succeeded the second siege, Dandolo was nominated emperor, but in consequence of his age, and his pressing ties to Venice, the choice ultimately fell on Baldwin. But Venice, in the sharing of the imperial dominions, obtained a full moiety, and Dandolo was solemnly invested as prince of Romania. He ended his extraordinary life at Constantinople, at the age of ninety-seven.

DANDOLO (Andrew), a learned doge and historian of Venice, was born about 1310. He rose first to the office of procurator of St. Mark, and then to that of doge in 1343. Making war against the Turks with considerable success, he greatly extended Venetian commerce and opened her trade with Egypt. Genoa beaming jealous of this trade, a powerful Genoese fleet arrived in the gulf of Venice, and caused so much anxiety to the doge, that it brought on an illness which terminated his life, September 1354. Andrew Dandolo was a correspondent of Petrarch, and to him is ascribed the compilation of the sixth book of the Venetian Laws, and a Chronicle of Venice, written in Latin, and comprehending the History of the Republic, from its commencement to 1342. It was first published by Muratori in his collection of original Italian Historians.

DANEGELT, an ancient annual tax of the Anglo-Saxons, first of 1s. afterward of 2s. for every hide of land through the rean, and for maintaining such a number of forces as were thought sufficient to clear the British seas of Danish pirates, who then greatly annoyed our coasts. The danegelt was first imposed as a standing yearly tax on the whole nation, under king Ethelred, A. D. 991. King Stephen, on his coronation day, abrogated it for ever. No church, or church-land paid the danegelt; because, as it is said in an ancient Saxon law, the people of England placed more confidence in the prayers of the church than any military defence they could make!

DANG'ER, *v. a.*, & *n. s.*

DANG'EROUS, *adj.*

DANG'EROUSLY, *adv.*

DANG'ERLESS, *adj.*

DANG'EROUSNESS, *n. s.*

Minshew, from *danger*, death; but this seems far-fetched. To put to risk, hazard, or per; a state

Goth *danger*;

Fr. *danger*; from

Latin, *damniger*,

bringing or caus-

ing injur: or, says

of risk or hazard. It has been used in an obsolete sense for custody, as in the old French *dangerier*. See the first example.

In *danger* had he at his own gise  
The yonge girls of the diocise,  
And knew hircounseil and was of hir rede  
A garland haede he sette upon his hede.

Chaucer. *Prolog. to Cant. Tales.*

Fareth every knight thus with his wif as ye?  
Is this the lawe of king Artoure's hous?  
Is every knight if his thus *dangerous*?

Id. *Cant. Tales.*

Our craft is in *danger* to be set at nought.

Acts x. 27.

Fompey's son stands up  
For the main sodier; whose quality going on,  
The sides o' th' world may *danger*. *Shakespeare.*

He hath writ this to feel my affection to your honour,  
and to neither pretence of *danger*. Id.

A sort of naughty persons  
Have practis'd *dangerously* against your state,  
Dealing with witches and with conjurors. Id.

Wyser Raymundus, in his closet pent,  
Laughs at such *languer* and adventurément;  
When halfe his lands are spent in golden smoke,  
And now his second hopeful glasse is broke.

Bishop Hall's *Satires*. iv. 3.

It is just with God to permit those, which think  
they stand securely, to fall most *dangerously*.

Hammond on *Fundamentals*.

More *dange* now from man alone we find,  
Than from the rocks, the billows, and the wind.

Waller.

I shall not need to mind you of judging of the  
*dangerousness* of diseases, by the mildness of the part  
affected. Boyle.

Already we have conquered half the war,  
And the less *dangerous* part is left behind. Dryden.

He showed no less magnanimity in *dangerless* de-  
spising, than there in *dangerous* affecting, the multi-  
plying of kingdoms. Sidney.

It is *dangerous* self-flattery to give soft and smooth-  
ing names to sins in order to disguise. Mason.

Wealth based on wealth, nor truth nor safety buys,  
The *danger* gather as the treasures rise.

Johnson. *Vanity of Human Wishes*.

Deep in woe caves below the *dangerous* soil  
Blue sulphur flame, imprisoned waters boil. Darwin.

To me, Almightie, in thy mercy shining,  
Life's dart and *dangerous* portals thou didst ope;  
And softly a my mother's lap reclining,  
Breathed through my breast the lively soul of hope.

K. White.

Thy days of health, and nights of sleep; thy toils,  
By *danger* drained, yet guiltless; hopes  
Of cheerful old age and a quiet grave,  
With cross and garland over its green turf,  
And thy grand-children's love for epitaph;  
This do I see—and then I look within— Byron.

DANKE ISLES OF, three islands in the Pacific  
Ocean, seen by commodore Byron, in June  
1765; and which he supposed to be the same  
with those seen by Quiros, in the beginning  
of the seventeenth century, and named Solomon's  
Islands. They were very populous, but so sur-  
rounded with rocks on all sides, that it was not  
safe to attempt to land. The islands themselves  
had a more fertile and beautiful appearance than

any we had seen before,' says this navigator  
'and like the rest, swarmed with people, whose  
habitations we saw standing in clusters all along  
the coast. We saw also a large vessel under  
sail at a little distance from the shore; but  
our unspeakable regret we were obliged to leave  
the place without further examination, for it was  
surrounded in every direction by rocks and  
breakers, which rendered the hazard more than  
equivalent to every advantage we might procure.  
Long. 169° 28' W., lat. 10° 15' S.

DA'NGLE, *v. n.* } Swed. *dingla* or *dangla*.  
DA'NGLER, *n. s.* } seems, as Mr. Todd sug-  
DA'NGLING, *adj.* } gests, the most probable ety-  
mology; but Skinner derives it from Saxon *dung*,  
down, and hangan, hanging. To hang loose; to  
hang on and downwards; to follow. A dangle  
is a follower.

Go, bind thou up yon *dangling* aprico cks.

Shakespeare.

He'd rather on a gibbet dangle,  
Than miss his dear delight to wrangle. Hudibras.

Codrus had but one bed; so short, to boot,  
That his short wife's short legs hung *dangling* out. Dryden.

But have you not with thought beheld  
The sword hang *dangling* o'er the shield? Prior.

The presbyterians, and other fanaticks that dangle  
after them, are well inclined to pull down the present  
establishment. Swift.

A dangler is of neither sex. Raleigh.

In faithful memory she records the crimes  
Or real, or fictitious, of the times;  
Laughs at the reputations she has torn,  
And holds them *dangling* at arm's length on scorn. Cowper. Task.

DANIEL; דָּנִיֵּאל, Heb. i. e. my judge is  
God; the fourth of the greater prophets, was  
born in Judea, of the tribe of Judah, about the  
thirteenth year of the reign of Josiah, A. M.  
3376. He was led captive to Babylo, with  
other young Hebrews, after the taking of Jere-  
salem by Nebuchadnezzar. That prince gave  
them masters to instruct them in the language  
and sciences of the Chaldeans, and ordered them  
to be fed with the most delicate viands; but they  
desired the king's officers to allow them only  
pulse. The wisdom and conduct of Daniel  
pleasing Nebuchadnezzar, that monarch gave  
him several posts of honor. We need not par-  
ticularise them, or the few events of his life: they  
are contained in the prophecies universally attri-  
buted to him. It is believed that Daniel died in  
Chaldea, and did not take advantage of the per-  
mission granted by Cyrus to the Jews of return-  
ing to their own country. St. Epiphanius says  
he died at Babylon. The prophecies of Daniel  
concerning the coming of the Messiah, and the  
other great events of after times, are so clear and  
explicit, that, as St. Jerome tells us, Porphyry  
insisted that those which related to the kings of  
Syria and Egypt, chap. xi., must have been  
written after the times of Antiochus Epiphanes;  
whereas this prophecy was translated into Greek  
100 years before his time, and was in the hands  
of the Egyptians, who had no particular kind-  
ness for the Jews or their religion. Josephus  
says the prophecies foretelling the successes of  
Alexander, chap. viii. 3, xi. 3, were shown to him



Jews, in consequence of which they obtained several privileges from him. *Antiq. lib.*

The style of Daniel is not so lofty and ve as that of the other prophets; but it is clear and concise, and his narrations and visions are simple and natural; in short, he is more like a historian than a prophet. Part of the book, viz. from the fourth verse of chapter vi. to the end of chapter vii. was originally written in Hebrew, all the rest of the book is in Hebrew. The first six chapters are a history of the kings of Babylon, and what befel the Jews under their reign. In the last six he is altogether a prophet, foretelling not only what should happen to his own church and nation, but events in foreign princes and kingdoms were coming; and some of which appear to be even fulfilled.

DANIEL (Gabriel), a celebrated Jesuit, and one of the best French historians, was born at Paris in 1649. He taught polite literature, philosophy, and divinity, among the Jesuits; and was superior of their house at Paris, where he died in 1728. There are a great number of his works published in French, of which the principal are: 1. A History of France, of which he wrote an abridgment, in 9 vols. 12mo. 2. A History of the French Militia, in 2 vols. 4to. 3. Answer to the Provincial Letters. 4. A Discourse to the World of Descartes. 5. Letters on the Doctrines of the Theorists, and on Probabilities. 6. New Difficulties relating to the Rights of Brutes: and, 7. A Theological Treatise on the Efficacy of Grace.

DANIEL (Samuel), an eminent poet and historian, was born near Taunton in Somersetshire, in 1687, and educated at Oxford; but, leaving that university without a degree, he applied himself to history and poetry under the patronage of Lord Pembroke. He was afterwards tutor to Lady Ann Clifford; and, upon the death of her husband, was created poet laureat to queen Anne. In king James's reign he was appointed gentleman extraordinary, and afterwards the groom of the privy chamber to the queen. He wrote a History of England, dramatic pieces, and some poems, and died in 1689.

*Dank*, *n. s. & adj.* } Swed. *dunk*; Germ. *dunk*. }  
 { *tunk*. Skinner says, from the old German word *tunken*. Damp, humid; or inclining to that state. Milton uses it as a substantive.

He lies the maiden sleeping found,  
 The dank and dirty ground. *Shakespeare.*

They bound me, bore me thence,  
 And in a dank and dankish vault at home  
 They left me. *Id.*

Yet oft they quit  
 Me, and rising on stiff pinions tour  
 The aerial sky. *Milton.*

Through each thicket dank or dry,  
 A black mist, low creeping, he held on  
 His midnight search. *Id.*

As the skins of beasts and fowls herewith,  
 Keep them from growing dank in moist weather.  
*Grew.*

Dank steam the reeking marsh exhales,  
 And vapours, and volcanic gales. *Darwin.*

Along the leaguered wall and brittle bank,  
 Of the armed river, while with straggling light  
 The stars peep through the vapours dim and dank.  
*Byron.*

DANMONII, an ancient British nation, supposed to have inhabited the tract of country now called Cornwall and Devonshire, bounded on the south by the British Ocean, on the west by St. George's Channel, on the north by the Severn Sea, and on the east by the country of the Durotriges. Some other British tribes were also seated within these limits: as the Cossini and Ostidamni, which were probably particular clans of the Danmonii. Ptolemy names a few places, both on the sea-coasts and in the inland parts of their country, which were known to the Romans. The most considerable of these are the famous promontories of Rolerium and Ocrinium, now the Landsend and the Lizard; and the towns of Isca Danmoniorum and Tanare, now Exeter and Saltash. After the departure of the Romans, the British government was immediately revived amongst the Danmonii in the person of Vortigern.

DANTE (Aligheri), a most distinguished poet of Italy, was born at Florence in 1265, of an ancient and honorable family. Boccaccio, who lived in the same period, has left a very curious and entertaining treatise, on the life, studies, and manners of this extraordinary man; whom he regarded as his master, and for whose memory he professed the highest veneration. He relates that Dante, before he was ten years old, conceived a passion for the lady whom he has immortalised in his poems. Her age was near his own; and her name was Beatrice, the daughter of Folco Portinari, a noble citizen of Florence. The passion of Dante, however, seems to have been of the platonic kind; but on the death of his mistress, at the age of twenty-four, he fell into a deep melancholy, from which his friends endeavoured to raise him, by persuading him to marriage. He followed their advice, but unfortunately made choice of a Xantippe. The poet, not possessing the patience of Socrates, separated from her, and never afterwards admitted her to his presence. In the early part of his life he gained some credit in military character; distinguishing himself by his bravery in an action where the Florentines obtained a signal victory over the citizens of Arezzo. He became still more eminent by the acquisition of civil honors; and at the age of thirty-five rose to be one of the chief magistrates of Florence, being elected by the suffrages of the people. Italy was at that time distracted by the contending factions of the Ghibellines and the Guelphs: the latter, among whom Dante took an active part, were again divided into the Blacks and the Whites. Dante, says Gravina, exerted all his influence to unite these inferior parties; but his efforts were ineffectual, and he had the misfortune to be unjustly persecuted by those of his own faction. A powerful citizen of Florence, named Corso Donati, had taken measures to terminate these intestine broils, by introducing Charles of Valois, brother to Philip the Fair, king of France. Dante, with great vehemence, opposed this disgraceful project, and obtained the banishment of



Donati and his partizans. The exiles applied to pope Boniface VIII., and by his assistance succeeded in their design. Charles of Valois entered Florence in triumph, and those who had opposed his admission were banished in their turn. Dante took refuge at Signa, and afterwards at Arezzo, where many of his party were assembled. An attempt was made to surprise the city of Florence, by a small army which Dante is supposed to have attended; but the design miscarried, and our poet wandered in various parts of Italy, till he found a patron in the great Candella Scala, prince of Veron, whom he has celebrated. The high spirit of Dante was ill suited to courtly dependence; and he is said to have lost the favor of his Veronese patron by the rough frankness of his behaviour. From Verona he retired to France, according to Manetti; and Boccaccio affirms that he disputed in the theological schools of Paris with great reputation. The election of Henry count of Luxemburg to the empire, in November, 1308, afforded Dante a prospect of being restored to his native city, as he attached himself to the interest of the new emperor, in whose service he is supposed to have written his Latin treatise *De Monarchia*, in which he asserted the rights of the empire against the encroachments of the papacy. In 1311 he instigated Henry to lay siege to Florence; in which enterprise, however, he did not appear in person. The emperor was repulsed by the Florentines; and his death, in 1312, deprived Dante of all hope of re-establishment in Florence. After this he passed some years in Italy, in a state of poverty and distress, till he found an establishment at Ravenna, under the protection of Guido Novello da Polenta, the lord of that city, who received this illustrious exile with the most endearing liberality, continued to protect him through the few remaining years of his life, and extended his munificence to his ashes. Eloquence was one of the many talents which Dante eminently possessed, and on this account he was employed on fourteen different embassies. Guido sent him to negotiate a peace with the Venetians who were preparing to attack Ravenna. Manetti asserts that he was unable to procure a public audience at Venice, and returned to Ravenna by land, from his apprehensions of the Venetian fleet; when the fatigue of his journey, and the mortification of failing in the attempt to preserve his patron from the impending danger, threw him into a fever, which terminated in death on the 14th of September, 1321. He died in the palace of his friend; and the affectionate Guido paid him the most tender regard to his memory. He commended the body to be adorned with ornaments, and after being carried on a bier through the streets of Ravenna, by the most illustrious citizens, to be deposited in a marble coffin. He himself pronounced the funeral oration, and expressed his design of erecting a splendid monument in honor of the deceased: a design which his subsequent misfortunes rendered him unable to accomplish. This was afterwards done by Bernard Bembo, the father of the cardinal of that name. Boccaccio asserts that Dante began his *Inferno*, the work which has immortalised his name, and finished seven cantos of it before his exile; that in the plunder of

his house, on that event, the beginning of his poem was fortunately preserved, but remained for some time neglected, till its merit being accidentally discovered by an intelligent poet named Dino, it was sent to the marquis Malespina, an Italian nobleman, by whom Dante was then protected. The marquis restored these papers to the poet, and intreated him to proceed in the work. To this incident we are probably indebted to this celebrated poem, which Dante must have continued under all the disadvantages of an unfortunate and agitated life. It does not appear at what time he completed it; perhaps before he quitted Verona, as he dedicated the *Paradise* to his Veronese patron. The very high estimate in which this production was held by his countrymen, appears from a singular institution in the republic of Florence; which, in 1373, assigned a public stipend to a person appointed to read lectures on it. The critical dissertations that have been written on Dante are almost as numerous as those to which Homer has given birth; the Italian, like the Grecian bard, having been the subject of the highest panegyric, and of the grossest invective. Voltaire has spoken of him with that precipitate vivacity which so frequently led him to insult the reputation of the best writers. But more temperate and candid critics have sufficiently vindicated his claims as an original and most captivating poet. There are many valuable editions of his works, among which it will be sufficient to specify those of Conte Zapato, Venice, 1767, 3 vols. 4to.; and Parma, Bodoni, 1796, 3 vols. folio. There is an English translation of his *Comedia* by the Rev. H. Boyd; and another and much better by the Rev. H. F. Carey of Chiswick.

DANTON (George James), a celebrated French politician, who took an active part, during the French revolution, in erecting those bloody tribunals, and establishing that despotic power, to which he himself fell a victim. He was born at Arcis sur l'Aube, in 1760; was bred to the law, and became an advocate: with regard to religious opinions, he openly avowed himself an atheist; and, in politics, he was a decided republican: but having differed with Robespierre he was accused of monarchical opinions, and, being condemned by the revolutionary tribunal, was guillotined with eight other deputies at Paris on the 5th of April, 1794, in the thirty-fourth year of his age.

DANTZIC, or DANTZIG, the capital of West Prussia, is seated on a branch of the Vistula, about five miles above its embouchure into the Baltic. This city is famous in history on several accounts, particularly as having been formerly at the head of the Hanse towns. It is large, beautiful, populous, and rich; its houses being generally five stories high, and many of its streets planted. It is traversed by two branches of the Vistula, and consists properly of three towns: the Vorstadt, or Fore-town; the Altstadt, or Old-town; and the Rechstadt. The suburbs, called Old and New Scotland, are the best built parts of the place; and the Scotch have considerable privileges here, in consequence, as they tell us, of their gallant defence of the town under one of the family of Douglas, when it was besieged by the



**Poles.** In the time of king Charles II. there were about 53,000 of that nation in the neighbourhood, and Sir John Denham and Mr. Killigrew were sent to tax them by the poll, with the king of Poland's licence; which having obtained, they brought home £10,000 sterling, besides their charges in the journey.

Dantzic has a noble harbour; and is still an eminent commercial city, although it seems to have past its meridian: which it enjoyed probably about the time that the president De Thou wrote his *Historia sui Temporis*, in which he speaks so highly of its commerce and grandeur. It was then a republic, claiming a small adjacent territory, about forty miles round, under the protection of the king and republic of Poland. Its magistracy and the majority of its inhabitants are Lutherans; although other religious professions are tolerated. It has twenty-six parishes, with many convents and hospitals; and contains four dock-yards for building merchantmen. It has an annual fair, called the fair of St. Dominic, which begins on the 5th of August. Accounts are kept in florins, the value of which is much less than that of Holland or Germany, being not quite equal to 9½d. sterling. The chief public buildings are the cathedral, the church of St. Catherine, the Jesuits' college, the town-house, the arsenal, and the court of the nobles. The inhabitants were once computed to amount to 200,000; but later computations, and its memorable connexion with the late continental wars, have reduced them to little above 40,000 or 45,000.

The road, or gulf of Dantzic consists of an arm of the sea, sheltered from north winds by a tongue of land on which stands the small town of Hela. Its own shipping is numerous, but the foreign ships constantly resorting to it are more so: of these the British are the most in number, particularly when our corn laws admit of the importation of that commodity; Poland being the greatest magazine for corn in all Europe, and Dantzic the principal port for its exportation. Besides which, Dantzic exports considerable quantities of naval stores, potash, linen, and amber. The value of these, and still more that of corn, is of course fluctuating, but £1,500,000 sterling is considered a fair average of the annual value of its exports. See our article **CORN LAWS**. It imports, from various parts of Europe, wine, oil, groceries, woollens, silk, iron, copper, lead, skins, and furs.

Dr. Basching affirms that, as early as the year 997, Dantzic was a considerable commercial city. The inhabitants have often changed their masters, and have been under the protection of the English, Dutch, French, and Prussians in succession. The city is surrounded with ramparts which mount upwards of 100 brass cannon; and although it could not, through its situation, stand a long siege, by the facility it possesses of inundating the neighbourhood it has offered, as in 1807, an effectual resistance to assailants. In 1734 the inhabitants discovered a remarkable attachment and fidelity towards Stanislaus, king of Poland, not only when his enemies the Russians were at their gates, but even in possession of the city. This city was exempted by Frede-

rick the Great, king of Prussia, from those claims which he made on the neighbouring countries; notwithstanding which, Frederick William II., his successor, seized its territories, under pretence of their having been formerly part of Polish Prussia, and possessed himself of the port-duties. In 1784 it was blockaded by his troops, on various pretences; but by the interposition of the empress of Russia, and the king of Poland, they were withdrawn; and, a compromise having taken place, the city was restored to its former immunities. In 1793 the king of Prussia seized on the city itself with the remainder of the province, which he added to his dominions. Its internal government, however, was undisturbed; and thus it remained until 1807, when the French entered it after a long siege, and held it until the peace of 1814, when it returned to Prussia. It was blockaded for a great length of time previously, and ably, though not very humanely, defended by general Rapp. The German is the language in common use here. Dantzic is sixty-eight miles W.S.W. of Königsberg, thirty south-east of Marienburg, and 235 north-east of Berlin.

**DANUBE**, the largest and most considerable river in Europe, rising in the Black Forest, near Zunberg, and running north-east through Suabia, by Ulm the capital of that country, then running east through Austria, it passes by Ratisbon, Passau, Ens, and Vienna. It then enters Hungary, and runs south-east from Presburg to Buda, and so on to Belgrade; after which it divides Bulgaria from Morlachia and Moldavia, discharging itself by several channels into the Black Sea, in the province of Bessarabia. Towards the mouth it was called, by the ancients, the Ister; and it is now said that four of the mouths are choked up with sand, and that there are only two remaining. It receives sixty rivers, great and small, in its course; and runs near to, or washes the following cities and towns:—Eschingen, Ulm (where it begins to be navigable), Donawert, Neuburg, Ingoldstadt, Passau, Linz, Ips, Stein, Vienna, Presburg, Raab or Javaria, Comorn, Waitzen, Pest, Buda, Belgrade, &c. &c. It is so deep between Buda and Belgrade, that both the Turks and Christians have had men of war upon it; and yet it is not navigable to the Black Sea, on account of the cataracts. The Danube was generally supposed to be the northern boundary of the Roman empire in Europe. It was worshipped as a deity by the Scythians. It abounds in fish, and particularly in a large kind of sturgeon.

**DANUBE, CIRCLE OF THE UPPER**, one of the chief divisions of the kingdom of Bavaria. It has on its frontiers the circles of the Rezat, the Regen, and the Iser; Tyrol, the lake of Constance, and Wirtemberg. It contains 4350 square miles, and 470,000 inhabitants, mostly Catholics. The capital is Eichstadt, and the other chief towns are, Neuburg, Nordlingen, Dillingen, Gunzburg, Hochstadt, Pappenheim, Donauwerth, and Ingoldstadt. The surface is in general hilly, diversified with forests and lakes, particularly in the direction of the Suabian Alps: and, besides the Danube, it is watered by the Iller and the Lech. In the low country, corn, hemp, and flax abound.



but the majority of the peasantry rear cattle. Iron, coal, and copper, are the mineral productions, and in the towns the manufacture of paper and linen is carried on.

**DANUBE, CIRCLE OF THE LOWER**, another circle of Bavaria, consists of the greater part of Lower Bavaria Proper, and the principality of Passau. It borders on Bohemia, Upper Austria, and the circles of the Iser and Regen. Its area is 4335 square miles, and its inhabitants amount to 396,150. The surface is an alternate succession of mountains, valleys, and plains. It is also traversed by the Inn, the Ilz, and the Iser. The climate is mild except in the north-west; and the tracts on the south side of the Danube are so fertile in corn as to be accounted the granary of Bavaria: they have besides an excellent breed of horses. The chief productions are corn, flax, and hemp. In the larger towns there are manufactures of linen and other cloths, which, together with the natural productions, produce a brisk trade in the Danube, the Iser, and the Inn. The capital is Passau.

**DANVERS**, a township of Massachusetts, in Essex county, adjoining Salem on the north-west, in which it was formerly comprehended by the name of Salem village. It consists of two parishes, and was incorporated in 1757.

**DANVILLE**, a post town of the United States, in Kentucky, situated in a large fertile plain on Dick's River. It consists of about eighty houses. Thirty-five miles S.S.W. of Lexington, and 830 from Philadelphia.—Also a township in Vermont.

**DAP**, or **DAPE**, *v. n.*, probably the same with **DAB**, which see. Dr. Johnson says it is a corruption of dip.

I have taught him how to catch a chub by *dapping* with a grasshopper.

Walton.

**DAPATICAL**, *adj.* Lat. *dapiteus*, sumptuous.

Bailey.

**DAPHNE**, in ancient geography, a small district on the lake Samachonites, in the Higher Galilee, very pleasant, and plentifully watered with springs, which feed the Lesser Jordan, whence its name seems to arise, probably in imitation of that near Antioch.

**DAPHNE**, in botany, spurge laurel; a genus of the monogynia order and octandria class of plants; natural order thirty-first, vepreculæ: *cal.* none: *cor.* quadrifid and marcescent, enclosing the stamina: *fruit* a monospermous berry. Species thirty, of which the following are the most remarkable.—

1. *D. gnidium*, the flax-leaved daphne, is a low deciduous shrub: native of Italy, Spain, and about Montpellier. This species seldom grows higher than three feet. The branches are very slender, and ornamented with narrow, spear-shaped, pointed leaves, much like those of the common flax. The flowers are produced in panicles at the ends of the branches: they are small, come out in June, but are rarely succeeded by seeds in England.

2. *D. laureola*, the spurge laurel or evergreen daphne; a low evergreen shrub, common in some parts of this kingdom, also in Switzerland and France. This shrub seldom grows more than a yard or four feet high: it sends out many

branches from the bottom, and these are covered with a smooth light-brown bark that is very thick. The leaves sit close to the branches, and are produced in such plenty, that they have the appearance, at a small distance, of clusters at the end of the branches. They are spear-shaped, shining, smooth, and thick; their edges are entire. These leaves, when growing under the drip of trees, spread open, and exhibit their green color, pure, and untarnished: when planted singly, in exposed places, they naturally turn back with a kind of twist, and the natural green of the leaf is often alloyed with a brown tinge. This shrub is also valuable on account of the fragrance of its flowers; it blows the beginning of January, and will continue until the middle or latter end of April before the flower falls off. They make but little show; being small, and of a greenish yellow. They are succeeded by oval berries, which are first green, and afterwards black when ripe.

3. *D. mezereum*, the mezereon, or spurge olive, is a low deciduous shrub. It is a native of Germany, and has also been discovered in some woods near Andover in Hampshire. Of this elegant plant there are four varieties: 1. The white; 2. The pale red; 3. The crimson; and 4. The purple flowering. They are of low growth, seldom arising to more than three or four feet in height, and, therefore, are proper even for the smallest gardens. They will be in bloom in February, nay, sometimes in January, when few trees, especially of the shrubby tribe, present their honors. Each twig has the appearance of a spike of flowers of the most consummate lustre; and, whether beheld near or at a distance, it has a most enchanting appearance, and the air is perfumed with their odors to a considerable distance. Besides the beauty of the leaves, which come out after the flowers are fallen, and which are of a pleasant green color and an oblong figure, it will be full of red berries in June, which continue growing till the autumn. The root of the mezereon was long used in the Lisbon diet-drink, a remedy said to be good for several complaints, particularly nodes and other symptoms resisting the use of mercury. The composition of this diet-drink is described in the Edinburgh Physical Essays, by Dr. Donald Monro. On chewing the root it proves very pungent, and its acrimony is accumulated about the fauces, and is very durable. It is employed chiefly under the form of decoction; and enters the decoctum sarsaparillæ composition of the London college; but it has also been used in powder combined with some inactive one, as that of liquorice root. It is often usefully combined with mercury. The bark of the root, which is the most acrimonious part, is recommended, in the Pharmacopœia Chirurgica, to be steeped in vinegar, and applied to promote the discharge of issues. Mezereon has also been of use in tumors and cutaneous eruptions. The whole plant is very corrosive; and six of the berries, it is said, will kill a wolf. A woman gave twelve grains of the berries to her daughter who had a quartan ague; she vomited blood, and died immediately.

4. *D. villosa*, the hairy-leaved daphne, a low deciduous shrub; native of Spain and Portugal.



alks are ligneous, about two feet high, and orth branches alternately from the sides. Leaves are spear-shaped, plane, hairy on sides, and grow on very short foot-stalks. Flowers have very narrow tubes, are small, make no great show; they come out in and are not succeeded by ripe seeds in seed. This shrub, in some situations, remains leaves all winter in such beauty as to it to be ranked among the low-growing plants; but in others it is sometimes shat with the first black winds.

**DAPHNE**, in the Pagan mythology, daughter of river Peneus by the goddess Terra, of Apollo became enamoured. This passion was raised by Cupid; with whom Apollo, of his late conquest of the serpent Python, disputed the power of his darts. Daphne with horror his addresses, and endeavoured to elude his importunity by flight. Apollo pursued, and Daphne intreated the assistance of her father, who changed her into a laurel. Apollo then raised his head with the leaves of the laurel, and vowed that that tree should be for ever sacred to his divinity.

**DAPHNE**, a daughter of Tiresias, priestess in the temple of Delphi. She was consecrated to the service of Apollo by the Epigoni, or accords, others by the goddess Tellus. She was Sibyl on account of the wildness of her words and expressions when she delivered oracles. Her verses were generally in verse; and Homer, according to some, has introduced much of her in his compositions.

**DAPHNEPHORIA**, a festival in honor of Apollo, celebrated every ninth year by the Bœotians. It was then usual to adorn an olive bough with garlands of laurel and other flowers, and in the top a brazen globe, on which were depicted smaller ones. In the middle were placed a number of crowns and a globe of incense, and the bottom was adorned with a colored garment. The globe on the top imitated the sun or Apollo. That in the middle was an emblem of the moon, and the bottom of the stars. The crowns, which were 365 in number, represented the sun's annual revolution.

This bough was carried in solemn procession by a beautiful youth of an illustrious family, and whose parents were both living. He was called *δαφνιφόρος*, daphnephorus, laurel-bearer; and at the time executed the office of a priest of Apollo. Behind him followed a train of boys with branches in their hands. In this the procession advanced as far as the temple of Apollo Ismenius, where supplicatory hymns were sung to the gods.

**DAPHNIN**, in chemistry, the bitter principle of the laurel, first discovered by M. Vauquelin. From the alcoholic infusion of this bark the daphnin was separated by its concentration. Adding the tincture with water, filtering, adding acetate of lead, a yellow daphnate precipitate fell, from which sulphureted hydrogen freed the lead, and left the daphnin in small parent crystals. They are hard, of a yellow color, a bitter taste when heated, evaporate a scrid acid vapors, sparingly soluble in water but moderately in boiling water.

Vol. VII.

**DAP'IFER**, *n. s.* Lat. and Old Fr. *dapifer*; a dish carrier: formerly an officer of considerable rank at our coronations, and those of the kings of France. See **CORONATION**.

In France the barons and great men gave in like manner their attendance at the king's court. Such were the *dapifer*, butler, chamberlain, constable, chancellor, and others. *Madox's Hist. of the Ercheq.*

**DAPPER**, *adj.* } Belg. *dapper*; Teut. *DAP'FERLING*, *n. s.* } *tappir*; which signify brave, valiant; and therefore Dr. Johnson thinks this word is generally applied in contempt. But Minsheu suggests its possible derivation from *dapifer* (see above), and well defines it, neat; spruce; dainty. *Dapperling* is a diminutive of *dapper*.

The *dapper* ditteis that I won't devise  
To please youths' fancy.

*Spenser. Shepherd's Calendar.*

And on the tawny sands and shelves,  
Trip the pert fairies and the *dapper* elves. *Milton.*

A pert *dapper* spark of a magpie fancied the birds  
would never be governed till himself should sit at the helm.  
*L'Estrange.*

**DAPPLE**, *v. a. & adj.*, from apple, as *pommel* in the French. To variegate; to streak with different colors: that which is so streaked or variegated.

Horses that are *dappled* turn white; and old squires turn grisly. *Bacon.*

But under him a grey steed did he wield,  
Whose sides with *dappled* circles were endight.

*Spenser.*

The gentle day  
*Dapples* the drowsy east with spots of grey.

*Shakspeare.*

Come, shall we go and kill us venison?  
And yet it irks me the poor *dappled* fools,  
Being native burghers of this desert city,  
Should, in their own confines, with forked heads,  
Have their round haunches gored. *Id.*

The lark begins his flight,  
From his watch-tower in the skies,  
Till the *dappled* dawn doth rise. *Milton.*

The *dappled* pink, and blushing rose,  
Deck my charming Chloe's hair. *Prior*

The gods, to curse Pamela with her prayers,  
Gave the gilt coach and *dappled* Flanders mares.

*Pope.*

**DAR**, **DART**, or **DACE**, *n. s.*, a fish. See **DACE**.

**DARABJIRB**, or **DARAB-GUIERO**, a town of Persia, in the province of Kerman, surrounded by groves of lemon and orange trees, yielding such abundance of fruit that the juice is exported to every part of Persia. It is watered by a copious stream. A considerable portion of the town is in ruins, but it contains a population of 10,000 or 15,000, and was formerly very celebrated, being supposed to have been founded by the Darius Nothus of ancient historians. It was invested by Looft Ali Khan, in the year 1794, but he was compelled to relinquish the siege. Distant 150 miles north-east of Schiras.

**DARAH**, or **DRAS**, a country of Northern Africa, bounded on the north by Morocco, Gezula, and Tafilet, on the east and the south by the Great Desert, and on the west by Suz. It takes its name from the river Darah, or Dras, which

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passes through it, and is absorbed in the desert. The principal produce is indigo and dates. The inhabitants are Arabians and Mahomedans, and some of the districts of the country are dependencies of Morocco. It contains a superior breed of goats. Copper and antimony are found in the mountains, and in the southern part, at Atta and Takka, are places of rendezvous for the great caravan which passes to Timbuctoo from Morocco.

**DARANTASIA**, in ancient geography, a town of the Centrones, in Gallia Narbonensis, between Lemincum and Augusta Prætoria, called Forum Claudii by the Romans. It is now called Molitiers.

**DARAPTI**, among logicians, one of the modes of syllogisms of the third figure, whose premises are universal affirmatives, and the conclusion is a particular affirmative: thus,

**DAR** Every body is divisible;

**AP-** Every body is a substance;

**TI.** Therefore, some substance is divisible.

**DARCET** (John), a French physician and chemist, was born in 1725, at Douazit in Guienne. Being discarded by his father, who was a magistrate, for preferring the study of medicine to the profession of the law, he was obliged, while pursuing his studies, to teach Latin for his support, at Bourdeaux. Here he became acquainted with Montesquieu, with whom he went to Paris in 1742; remaining with him as a literary assistant till his death. He afterwards went with the duke de Lauraguais into Germany, and had an opportunity of critically examining the Hartz mines, in Hanover. At the peace he applied himself to technical chemistry, and the improvement of the porcelain manufacture, respecting which he drew up several memoirs presented to the Academy of Sciences in 1766 and 1768. He also demonstrated, about this time, the combustibility of the diamond; on which subject he addressed the academy in 1770. In 1762 he was made regent of the Faculty of Medicine at Paris; in 1771 he married the daughter of the chemist Rouelle; and in 1774 travelled over the Pyrenees, to study the geology of those mountains. He succeeded Macquer as a member of the Academy of Sciences, and director of the manufactory of Sevres, and became afterwards inspector-general of the assay of coins, and of the gobelin manufactory. His valuable life was preserved during the reign of terror, by Fourcroy, who procured the obliteration of his name from Robespierre's list; and he died in 1801, a member of the Institute, and of the conservative Senate.

**DARDANELLES**, two ancient and strong castles of Turkey, one of which is in Romania, and the other in Natolia, on each side of the ancient Hellespont, now the strait of Gallipoli, which opens a communication between the Archipelago, and the Propontis, or sea of Marmora. The mouth of the canal is four and a half miles over; and the castles which were built in 1659, to secure the Turkish fleet from the insults of the Venetians, are defended on each side by fourteen brass guns with chambers like mortars, to receive granite balls. They are twenty-two feet long, from twenty-five to twenty-eight inches

diameter in the bore, and lie on a paved terrace near the level of the water. They are called the Old Dardanelles, to distinguish them from two others built at the entrance of the strait, about ten miles to the south-west, one of which stands in like manner in Asia, and the other in Europe, and called the New Dardanelles. The ships that come from Constantinople are searched at the castle on the side of Natolia. The passage betwixt both these pairs of castles was forced by a British fleet under admiral Duckworth, in February, 1807.

**DARDANIA**, in ancient geography, 1. A district of Mæsia Superior on the south, now the south part of Servia, towards the confines of Macedonia and Illyricum. 2. A small district of Troas, along the Hellespont. 3. The ancient name of Samothracia; from Dardanus, who removed thither.

**DARDANUS**, a son of Jupiter and Electra, who, after the death of his brother Jason, left Samothrace, his native country, and passed into Asia Minor, where he married Batia, the daughter of Teucer king of Teucra. After the death of his father-in-law, he reigned sixty-two years. He built the city of Dardania, and was reckoned the founder of the kingdom of Troy. He was succeeded by Erichthonius. According to some, Corybas, his nephew, accompanied him to Teucra, where he introduced the worship of Cybele. Dardanus taught his subjects to worship Minerva, and he gave them two statues of the goddess, one of which is well known by the name of Palladium. According to Virgil, Dardanus was originally an Italian.

**DARE**, *v. a.*, *v. p.* & *n. s.*

**DAREFUL**, *adj.*

**DARING**, *adj.* & *n. s.*

**DARINGLY**, *adv.*

**DARINGNESS**, *n. s.*

*Sax. dearren, Belg. and Teut. darren; Lat. audere; probably from the Greek θάρσεν, to adventure. To be confident; to be prepared or bold for any purpose; to challenge; to defy. In Shakspeare only do we find dare used as a substantive. In Beaumont and Fletcher's Maid Tragedy, it is used for affrighting or amazing; and this seems to be the meaning in the phrase, to dare a lark or bird.*

*Dar* only of ghou that hath a cause aghens a nother be demed at wicked men, and not at hooli men!

*Wicklif. 1 Cor. vi.*

*She was so propre, and swete, and likerous, I dare well sain if she had ben a mous And he a cat he wolde hire hente anon*

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

*'Ah! dame,' quoth he, 'thou temptest me in vaine*

*To dare the thing which daily yet I rew;  
And the old cause of my continued paine  
With like attempt to like end to renew.'*

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

*I dare do all that may become a man;  
Who dares do more, is none.*

*Shakspeare.*

*Sextus Pompeius  
Hath given the dare to Cesar, and commands  
The empire of the sea.*

*Id.*

*We might have met them dareful, beard to beard,  
And beat them backward home.*

*Id.*



Shrimps are dipped up in shallow water with little round nets, not much unlike that which is used for *daring* larks.

*Dares* to be true! Nothing can need a lie,—  
The fault that needs it must grow two thereby.

Herbert.

He had many days come half seas over; and  
sometimes passing further, came and lay at the mouth  
of the harbour, *daring* them to fight.

Knolles.

Time! I *dare* thee to discover

Such a youth, and such a lover.

Dryden.

As larks lie *dared* to shun the hobby's flight. *Id.*

Masters of the arts of policy thought that they  
might even *dare* and *dare* Providence to the face.

E.uth.

The song too *daring*, and the theme too great.

Prior.

The last Georgick has many metaphors, but not so  
*daring* as this: for human passions may be more nat-  
urally ascribed to a bee than to an inanimate plant.

Addison.

Some of the great principles of religion are every  
day openly and *daringly* attacked from the press.

Atterbury.

Your brother, fired with his success,  
Too *daringly* upon the foe did press.

Halifax.

Grieve not, O *daring* prince, that noble heart.

Pope.

He turned not—spoke not—sunk not—fixed his  
look,

And set the anxious frame that lately shook:  
He gazed—how long we gaze despite of pain,  
And know, but *dare* not own, we gaze in vain!

Byron.

But with the breath which fills  
Their mountain-pipe, so fill the mountaineers  
With the fierce native *daring* which instills  
The stirring memory of a thousand years,  
And Evan's, Donald's fame rings in each clansman's  
ears! *Id.*

On that warm sod, uncrossed by wanderer's path,  
Some youthful blushing sweetness *dares* the bath;  
Half bold, half trembling, her last vesture thrown,  
Safe from all eyes, yet shrinking from her own.

Dr. T. Brown.

DARES, a Phrygian, who lived during the  
Trojan war, in which he was engaged, and of  
which he wrote the history in Greek. This history  
was extant in the time of Ælian; the Latin  
translation, now extant, is universally believed  
to be spurious, though it is attributed by some  
to Cornelius Nepos. This translation first made  
its appearance A. D. 1477, at Milan. Homer  
mentions Dares, Iliad, lib. v., ver. 10, & 27.

DARFUR, DARFOOR, or FUR, a large king-  
dom of Central Africa, between Abyssinia and  
Bornou. We are indebted for all our know-  
ledge of it to Mr. Browne, who resided here  
from 1793 to 1796. According to this writer it  
is bounded on the east by Kordofan, and the  
country of the Shilluks, which separates it from  
Sennar and Abyssinia; on the west by Bergoo,  
which divides it from Begherme and Bornou;  
while the regions to the south are occupied by  
barbarous nations, extending to, and inhabiting  
the Mountains of the Moon, and the rise of the  
Bahr-el-Abiad. It does not seem to contain any  
great river or lake; during the dry season, there-  
fore, all nature wears a parched and barren  
appearance; but the rainy season begins in June

and continues till September. This is the sowing season, and the king, with his attendants, goes out into the fields, and makes, with his own hand, the first holes in the ground. Water and vegetation are now most abundant. In the south the tamarind, plane, and sycamore are found. The heglig and the nebbek, having very hard wood, are two species peculiar to Darfur. A kind of bean and pea, used not for food but for being strung in beads, seems also indigenous here. Other plants largely produced are the mimosa nilotica, yielding a gum which is carried into Egypt; the water melon, the gourd, Cayenne pepper, hemp, and tobacco. But a small quantity of wheat is raised; the principal grains are the dokn, a species of millet, and another species of larger size, called the kassob. The harvest is conducted by women and slaves, who break off the ears with their hands, and carry it away in baskets; while the straw is left standing. The grain being threshed, is buried in the earth to preserve it. It is ground and boiled for food, and eaten either with milk or the juice of a particular kind of herb, which has a bitter and slightly acid taste.

The wild animals are the lion, hyena, leopard, wild buffalo, wolf, and jackall: herds of the jackall and hyena are said to enter the villages at night. Here are also found the rhinoceros, the elephant, the camelopardalis, the hippopotamus, and the crocodile; and still more abundantly the invaluable camel. The horses, asses, and sheep are inferior, but goats and horned cattle are numerous, and their flesh very good.

Gold is plentiful both to the east and west, and very fine copper is brought from the south. The rocks consist chiefly of gray granite; containing alabaster, various kinds of marble, sulphur, and fossil salt.

The houses are built of clay, with a coating of plaster; the roofs being flat, and formed of light beams of wood, with a clay covering. A house containing two dongas, the apartment for the stowage of property, two knournacs and two sukteias, both sleeping and sitting rooms, is considered fit for the accommodation of persons of supreme rank.

Mr. Browne did not conceive that the population could be more than 200,000 souls. Cobbe, the capital, contains about 6000; our traveller heard only of eight other considerable places, Sweini, Kourma, Cubcaba, Rii, Cours, Shoba, Gidid, and Gelle; although a native of the country named to Dr. Seetzen more than fifty. The capital is wholly occupied by foreign merchants, from Egypt and the eastern countries of Dongola, Kordofan, and Sennar. Other great towns abound also with Arabs and other foreigners.

On the death of the monarch, the crown, which is perfectly despotic, descends to the eldest son; or is seized by any stronger or more popular member of the royal family. The military have, in this case, the chief influence, and are always much courted. The usual residence of the sultan is at a village near Cobbe, called El Fasher. Mr. Browne, being admitted to an audience of state, found the monarch seated on his throne, under a lofty canopy, composed



of various stuffs of Syrian and Indian fabric, hung loosely on a light frame of wood, and spread with small Turkey carpets. The ministers, or meleks, were seated at some distance on the right and left, and behind them was a line of guards, bearing a spear and target, with caps, in which a black ostrich feather was stuck. The ground in front was filled with spectators and petitioners, to the number of 1500. On the monarch's left hand stood a person whose employment was to sound his praises, and who vociferated continually, 'See the buffalo, the offspring of a buffalo, a bull of bulls, the elephant of superior strength, the powerful sultan Abd-el-rach-man-el-rashid.' His revenue is derived from various sources, and often collected by troops who march through the territory, and seize the cattle until it is paid. The king is also an extensive merchant, exporting and importing every year a large quantity of goods on his own account.

The religion of Mahomet is professed universally and zealously. But the people are cheerful in their dispositions; and the females not immodest, nor, unless in the case of the great, are their faces veiled. A fermented liquor called merise, the same with the bouza of the negroes, is universally indulged in, however, and by both sexes. The men sometimes sit whole days over it. The intercourse of the sexes is extremely licentious, and polygamy has no bounds. The Furians are also considered as by no means conspicuous for honor or even honesty. No property is found to be safe out of the sight of the owner.

The grand intercourse of Darfur is with Egypt, and is carried on entirely by caravans, whose motions from Fur are, however, extremely uncertain, and sometimes two or even three years elapse without one. The caravan going to Egypt is much larger than the one returning, and often consists of 2000 camels. The water is carried in goat-skins or ox-hides, artificially covered to prevent evaporation, and every tenth camel is loaded with straw and beans. Among the articles sent to Egypt, the most important are slaves, taken in the negro countries of the south; ivory, the horns, teeth, and hide of the rhinoceros, the hippopotamus, and the camel. The imports comprise beads of all sorts, toys, glass, arms, light cloths, Barbary caps, carpets, silks, shoes, and writing-paper in large quantities. Commerce is transacted entirely by barter. There is also a considerable intercourse with Mecca, which takes the route by Suakem and Jidda, as much shorter than that by Egypt.

DARIC, in antiquity, a famous gold coin, first struck by Darius the Mede, about A. A. C. 538; probably during his stay at Babylon. From thence the darics were dispersed over the east, and into Greece; where they were also called stateres, and were the gold coins best known in Athens in ancient times. According to Dr. Bernard, the daric weighed two grains more than our guineas. Plutarch says, they bore on one side an archer clothed in a long robe, and crowned with a spiked crown, holding a bow in his left hand, and an arrow in his right; and on the other side the effigies of Darius. There were afterwards half darics.

DARIEN, or TERRA FIRMA PROPER, once the northern division of Terra Firma, or Castile del Oro, is now a province of Colombia, and is bounded on the north by the Spanish Main, or Caribbean Sea; on the east by Carthage; on the west by Panama; and on the south by the Pacific Ocean, and the province of Choco. Darien is one of the largest provinces of Tierra Firme: It is about 200 miles long, and eighty broad.

The Gulf of Darien, which is the mouth of the Rio Atrato, or rather a large arm of the Atlantic, is the most important part of the northern coast, and contains several islands of considerable size. The rivers are very large, but few of them navigable, owing to the shoals, bars, and rapids, in which they abound; most of them, however, yield grains of gold.

The province of Darien is thinly inhabited, and almost wholly by native tribes, who amount perhaps to 30,000; the unhealthiness of the climate and the impenetrable forests preventing the formation of European settlements. The valleys are so marshy, from the overflowing of the rivers, that the natives generally build their habitations in the branches of high trees.

The chief products are cotton and tobacco. The mouth of the Atrato, though wide, has many shoals; yet it serves to export much of the internal produce of the neighbouring provinces, and is a noted smuggling station, where European goods are exchanged for the gold of Choco. A small fort which protects the gold mines of Cana is the principal station on the frontiers of Choco: its garrison is sent monthly from Panama.

Santa Cruz de Cana is the capital, and was formerly a considerable place. There were also at one time nine other towns or missions, and several hamlets; but most of them have been abandoned. In this province the Scotch attempted a settlement in 1699; and for this project a fund was subscribed, amounting to about £900,000 sterling. The plan, however, completely failed, partly, it is said, through the jealousy of the English, but chiefly from the unhealthiness of the climate. Of 1200 individuals who embarked for the colony, not above thirty survived.

DARIEN, a town of the United States, in Liberty county, Georgia, on the banks of the North Channel of the river Altamaha, ten miles below Fort Barrington.

DARII, in logic, one of the modes of syllogism of the first figure, wherein the major proposition is an universal affirmative, and the minor and conclusion particular affirmatives: thus,

DA- Every thing that is moved is moved by another;

RI- Some body is moved;

I, Therefore, some body is moved by another.

DARIUS THE MEDE. See CYAXARES II.

DARK, *v. a., n. s. & adj.*, Saxon, *deorck*

DARK'EN, *v. a. & n. s.*, Irish *dorch*. By

DARK'ENER, *n. s.*, antiphrasis, from

DARK'ISH, *adj.*, *deorck*, to see, says

DARK'LING, *part.*, Minshew. To de-

DARK'LY, *adv.*, prive of light (one

DARK'NESS, *n. s.*, of our oldest verbs,

DARK'SOME, *adj.*, as Mr. Todd re-

DARK-WORKING, *adj.*, marks); the state



of being so deprived : not light ; opaque ; obscure ; blind. Hence gloomy, not cheerful ; not of a showy or vivid color. To darken is to make, as well as to grow, or gradually become, dark. Darkish is dusky ; that which is approaching a black or dark color. Darkling is a poetical participle to express the state of being without light. The meaning of the other derivatives seems sufficiently obvious.

And the sunne was *derked* and the eir, of the smoke of the pin. *Wiclif. Apoc. 9.*

Then the priest shall look : and, behold, if the bright spots in the skin of their flesh be *darkish* white. *Bible. Lev. 14.*

Who hath delivered us from the power of *darkness*, and translated us into the kingdom of his dear Son. *Colossians.*

Ther saw I first the *derke* imagining  
Of felonie and alle the compassing ;  
The cruel ire, red as any glode,  
The pikepurse, and eke the pale drede.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

Fair when that cloud of pride, which oft doth *dark*  
Her goodly light, with smiles she drives away.

*Spenser.*

For light she hated as the deadly bale,  
Ay went in desert *darkness* to remaine,  
Where paine none might her face see, nor she see any  
laine. *Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

What may seem *dark* at the first, will afterwards  
be found more plain. *Hooker.*

Such was his wisdom, that his confidence did sel-  
dom *darken* his foresight, especially in things near at  
hand. *Bacon.*

You must not look to have an image in any thing  
*lightsome* ; for even a face in iron, red-hot, will not be  
seen, the light confounding the small differences of  
*lightsome* and *darksome*, which shew the figure. *Id.*

Come, thick night,

And pall thee in the dunest smoke of hell,  
That my keen knife see not the wound it makes ;  
Nor heaven peep through the blanket of the *dark*,  
To cry, hold ! hold ! *Shakespeare. Macbeth.*

Fleance, his son, who keeps him company,  
Must embrace the fate of that *dark* hour. *Shakespeare.*

Meantime we shall express our *darker* purpose. *Id.*

The instruments of *darkness* tell us truths ;  
Win us with honest trifles, to betray us  
In deepest consequence. *Id.*

*Darling* stands  
The varying shore o' the world *Id.*

Cloud and ever-during *dark*  
Surrounds me ! from the cheerful ways of men  
Cut off. *Milton.*

He, here with us to be,  
Forsook the courts of everlasting day,  
And chose with us a *darksome* house of mortal clay. *Id.*

The wakeful bird  
Sings *darling*, and, in shadiest covert hid,  
Tunes her nocturnal note. *Id.*

The age, wherein he lived, was *dark* ; but he  
Could not want sight, who taught the world to see. *Denham.*

The lusts and passions of men do sully and *darken*  
their minds, even by a natural influence. *Tillotson.*

Thou wretched daughter of a *dark* old man.  
Conduct my weary steps. *Dryden and Lee's (Edipus).*

For well you know, and can record alone,  
What fame to future times conveys but *darkens* down. *Dryden.*

Mistaken blessing, which old age they call,  
'Tis a long, nasty, *darksome* hospital. *Id.*

All the light truth has, or can have, is from the  
clearness and validity of those proofs upon which it is  
received ; to talk of any other light in the under-  
standing, is to put ourselves in the *dark* ; or in the  
power of the prince of *darkness*. *Locke.*

Whether the *darkened* room to muse invite,  
Or whitened wall provoke the skewer to write. *Pope.*

All men of *dark* tempers, according to their degree  
of melancholy or enthusiasm, may find convents fitted  
to their humours. *Addison on Italy.*

Foul ministers, *dark-working* by the force  
Of secret, sapping gold. *Thomson.*

Must helpless man, in ignorance sedate,  
Roll *darling* down the torrent of his fate ?  
Must no dislike alarm, no wishes rise,  
No cries invoke the mercies of the skies ?  
*Johnson. Vanity of Human Wishes.*

Their quickness is owing to their presumption and  
rashness, and not to any hidden irradiation that in a  
moment dispels all *darkness* from their minds. *Burke.*

*Dark* will thy doom be, *darker* still  
Thine immortality of ill. *Byron. Siege of Corinth.*

So do the *dark* in soul expire,  
Or live like Scorpion girt by fire  
So writhes the mind Remorse hath riven,  
Unfit for earth, undoomed for heaven,  
*Darkness* above, despair beneath  
Around it flame, within it death ! *Byron.*

DARLING, *adj. & n. s.* Sax. *deorling*, the  
diminutive of *dear*. Favorite ; beloved. One  
much beloved.

Lo my child whom I have chosen ; my *derlyng* in  
whom it hath wel plesid to my soul, I schal putte my  
spirit on hym : and he schal telle doom to hethene  
men. *Wiclif. Matt. 12.*

Young Ferdinand they suppose is drowned,  
And his and my loved *darling*. *Shakespeare.*

In Thames, the ocean's *darling*, England's pride,  
The pleasing emblem of his reign does glide. *Halifax.*

She became the *darling* of the princess. *Addison.*

Have a care lest some beloved notion, or some *dar-  
ling* science, too far prevail over your mind. *Watts.*

And to find out our most beloved sin, let us con-  
sider what are those worldly objects or amusements  
which give us the highest delight ; this, it is proba-  
ble, will lead us directly to some one of our *darling*  
iniquities. *Mason.*

The text, that sorts not with his *darling* whim,  
Though plain to others, is obscure to him. *Cowper. Progress of Error.*

Save me, oh ! save me, from the sword dividing ;  
Give me my *darling* from the jaws of death ;  
Thee will I praise, and, in thy name confiding,  
Proclaim thy mercies with my latest breath. *K. White.*

DARLINGTON, a county of the United  
States, in Cheraws district, South Carolina,  
bounded on the south and south-west by Lynch's



Creek. It is thirty five miles long, and twenty-four broad.

DARLINGTON, a town of Durham, situated on a flat on the river Skerne. It stands on the great road from London to Edinburgh. It has a weekly market, and, excepting January and February, a fair once a fortnight through the year. This town carries on linen and woollen manufactures. A curious water machine for grinding optical glasses, and spinning linen yarn, has been erected here; the invention of a native of the town. It is nineteen miles south of Durham, and 247 north by west of London.

DARMSTADT, a neat town of Germany, the capital of the grand duchy of Hesse. It was fortified by a wall in 1330. The town contains a regency, a court of appeals, a consistory, and criminal court. The prince of Hesse Darmstadt entered into the late confederation of the states of the Rhine, and, by the treaty of alliance, received the title of grand duke, and royal highness. The palace of the landgrave Louis VII., and the modern residence of the grand duke, with its beautiful gardens, are principal objects: to which may be added, the town church with the tombs of the landgraves; the state house; the pedagogium, or academy; the public library; the library of the grand duke; the cabinet of natural history (containing a number of curious fossils); the military school; and the building appropriated to military exercises, an edifice 300 feet by 150, and capable of containing 3000 men. It is situated on a river of the same name, thirty miles north-west of Heidelberg, and contains 13,000 inhabitants.

DARN, or DEARNE, *v. a. & adj.* Ang.-Sax. *deorn*, secret, or concealed; Arm. and Wel. *darne*, a patch. To sew up, or conceal holes or rents by imitating the original texture: solitary; secret.

By many a *dearne* and painful perch,  
Of Pericles the careful search  
Is made. *Shakspeare. Pericles.*

He spent every day ten hours in his closet, in *darn-*  
ing his stockings, which he performed to admiration. *Swift.*

Will she thy linen wash, thy hosen *darn*? *Gay.*

DARN'EL, Sax. *derren*, hurtful. A grass of the temulentum species, hurtful to corn.

But while people were asleep, his enemy came, and sowed *darnel* among the wheat.

*Matt. xiii. 25. Campbell's Translation.*

He was met even now  
Crowned with rank fumiter and furrow-weeds,  
*Darnel*, and all the idle weeds that grow  
In our sustaining corn. *Shakspeare.*

No fruitful crop the sickly fields return;  
But oats and *darnel* choke the rising corn. *Dryden.*

DARNLEY'S ISLAND, a beautiful island in the Eastern seas, in Torres Strait, between New Holland and New Guinea. It is about fifteen miles in circumference, and varied with hills and plains covered with vegetation. The inhabitants are stout, and exceed the ordinary size. The men go perfectly naked, and the women nearly so. They dwell in conical huts, disposed in villages, and adorned with two or three human

skulls, and several strings of hands, five or six on a string. Their arms are bows and arrows, lances, and long clubs; and they have handsome canoes from fifty to seventy feet in length. They are apparently a treacherous race. Long. 142° 59' 15" E., lat. 9° 39' 30" S.

DARRAIN', *v. a.* Old Fr. *desrener*. By Julius referred to dare. 'It seems to me,' says Dr. Johnson, 'more probably deducible from *arranger la bataille*.' To prepare, or range troops for battle; to commence single combat.

And on the morwe, or it were day light,  
Ful prively two harnais hath he dight,  
Both suffisant and mete to *darraine*  
The bataille in the field betwix him tweine. *Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

Therewith they 'gan to hurlen greedily,  
Redoubted battle ready to *darraine*. *Spenser.*

Comes Warwick, backing of the duke of York;  
*Darrain* your battle; for they are at hand. *Shakspeare.*

The town-boys parted in twain, the one side calling themselves Pompeians, the other Cæsarians; and then *darraining* a kind of battle, but without arms, the Cæsarians got the over hand.

*Carew's Survey of Cornwall.*

DART, *v. a., v. n. & n. s.* Fr., Teut. and Arm. *dard*; Swed. *dart*; Ital. *dardo*; from Gr. *δάρω*. To throw a missile, or short lance; to project any thing offensive; to emit; to fly as a dart; to let fly. As a substantive, it is the weapon thrown or darted.

In alle thingis take ghe scheeld of feith in which  
ghe moun quenche alle the fyry *dartis* of the worst. *Wiclif. Effacies vi.*

Now, *darting* Parthia, art thou struck. *Shakspeare.*

He wets his tusks, and turns, and dares the war;  
The invaders *dart* their javelins from afar. *Dryden.*  
O'erwhelmed with *darts*, which from afar they  
fling.

The weapons round his hollow temples ring. *Id.*

Pan came, and asked what magic caused my smart;  
Or what ill eyes malignant glances *dart*. *Pope.*

See, prompt to ill, the insidious foe  
Now couched in secret bend the bow,  
Now to the string adjust the *dart*  
That thirsts to wound the guiltless heart.

*Merrick's Psalm.*

Glad zephyr leads the van, and waves above  
The barbed *darts*, and blazing torch of love;  
Reverts his smiling face, and pausing flings  
Soft showers of roses from aurelian wings. *Darwin.*

And that sarcastic levity of tongue,  
The stinging of a heart the world hath stung,  
That *darts* in seeming playfulness around,  
And makes those feel that will not own the wound;  
All these seemed his. *Byron.*

DARTFORD, a market town of Kent, in the road from London to Canterbury. Here was a celebrated nunnery, which Henry VIII. converted into a royal palace, and which is now a gentleman's seat. The river Darent will admit boats to bring up goods to the town. The first paper-mill in England was erected on this river by Sir John Spilman, to whom king Charles I. granted a patent with £200 a-year to encourage the manufactory. On this river also was the first



slitting iron bars to make wire. The town is the first that engaged in the rebellion of Wat and Jack Straw: the market on Saturday supplied with provisions. It is seven miles east of Gravesend, fifteen east by south of London.

**DEATMOOR**, an extensive moor and forest in Devonshire, reaching from Brent to Oaken, twenty miles from south to north, and in five and fifteen miles broad from east to west. It contains about 80,000 acres, and is bounded by the river Dart. Many sheep are reared here, but of a small kind, and subject to disease. The chief riches of the inhabitants of the moor are their black cattle, which thrive on the coarse herbage. Some thousands of acres of land have lately been cleared, and planned; much barren ground has also been converted into tillage, under the direction of the Earl of Tyrwhit, by order of his late majesty, George IV. of Wales. The French prison, formerly situated on this moor, is converted into an agricultural settlement for the poor.

**DEARTMOUTH**, a sea-port town in Devonshire, situated on the river Dart, near its fall into the sea; said to have been formerly called Clifton. It is an ancient corporation, and a borough sending one member to parliament. The town is large, well built, and populous; but the streets are narrow, though well paved. The harbour is large and safe, capable of containing 500 ships, and the inhabitants have a considerable trade with the south of Europe, and to Newfoundland. Dartmouth is esteemed a great nursery for the fishery employing nearly 3000, a number of which the owners are obliged to send to parliament to select from land men. It is a weekly market on Friday for corn and provisions, and one almost every day for fish. It was first mentioned in the reign of Richard I. by the name of Deartmouth, and again in the reign of Henry VI. It was sacked afterwards, but were repulsed, by the bravery of the women. Beside a daughter which was made, they took M. de la Roche, French general, three lords, and thirty-eight prisoners. It lies thirty miles east of Exeter, and 204 west by south of London.

**DEARTMOUTH**, a thriving sea-port town of the United States, in Bristol county, Massachusetts, on the west side of the Accushnet, seventy miles south of Boston. It was incorporated in 1786.

**DEARTMOUTH**, a town of the United States, in Wilkes county, Georgia, situated on the peninsula formed by the confluence of Broad and Savannah rivers, two miles from Fort James. Dartmouth is also a town of the United States, in Rockingham county, New Hampshire, north-west of the White Mountains: thirty-three miles east of Haverhill, and eighty-seven north of Portsmouth.

**DEWAR**, also called Nasserabad, a town in the province of Bejapore, Hindostan. Although not regularly fortified, it is by its situation very strong, and the ditches are good. The town is situated to the south of the fort, and is surrounded by a wall and ditch. In the year 1762 it was taken from the king of Bejapore by

Aurangzebe, and, soon after the decease of that monarch, fell into the hands of the Mahrattas, from whom it was taken by Tippoo in 1784, and retained by him till the year 1791, when it was retaken by the Mahrattas, assisted by the British, after a tedious siege of twenty-nine weeks. It has been lately ceded to the British.

**DARWIN** (Erasmus), an English physician and poet, was born in December, 1731, at Elston, near Newark. After receiving the early part of his education at Chesterfield, he was sent to St. John's College, Cambridge, where he studied medicine, and took his bachelor's degree in 1755. He was elected to one of Lord Chesterfield's scholarships, worth about £16 per annum. On leaving Cambridge, he attended the lectures of Dr. Hunter in London, and afterwards completed his medical studies at Edinburgh, where he took the degree of M.D. He first settled at Nottingham, as a physician; but, not meeting with the practice he hoped for, he went to Litchfield, where his knowledge and acquirements were justly appreciated. In 1757 he married the daughter of Charles Howard Esq., who died in 1770, leaving him three sons. Not long after the death of his wife, Dr. Darwin commenced his laborious work, the *Zoonomia*, but which he declined publishing for above twenty-five years. He next wrote his *Botanic Garden*, and *The Loves of the Plants*. About 1780 Dr. Darwin married the widow of colonel Pole, of Radbourne-hall, near Derby, who brought him a large fortune; and he removed, in consequence of this connexion, to Radbourne, with a view of settling in Derby. He continued in this neighbourhood till February 1802, when he removed to Breadwall Priory, about three miles distant, a commodious retirement for his age and infirmities, and at this place he died in his seventy-first year. The literary fame of Dr. Darwin rests on the *Botanic Garden*, with philosophical notes, in two parts; 1. *The Economy of Vegetation*; 2. *The Loves of the Plants*, 2 vols. 8vo.: *Zoonomia*, or the *Laws of Organic Life*, 4 vols. 8vo.: *Phytologia*, or the *Philosophy of Agriculture and Gardening*, 1 vol. 4to.: works which display not only the poet, but the botanist and the philosopher; though there is frequently too much sacrificed to imagination; and the author evinces a contempt for all religion. Dr. Darwin was also the author of several medical and philosophical papers in the *Philosophical Transactions*, a *Treatise on Female Education*, and a poem published since his death, entitled *The Temple of Fame*. He had likewise a principal share in the translation of Linnæus's *Systema Vegetabilium*, published in the name of the Botanical Society of Litchfield.

**DASH**, *v. a. v. n., n. s. & adv.* Goth. and Swed. *daska*; Scot. *dusch*. Serenius refers to the first as the etymology of our word, which Dr. Johnson considers in all its senses 'very doubtful.' Minsheu derives it from the Gr. *δασα*, *δισσω*, and defines it 'to bedash, dabble, bemire with dust.' This is at any rate not improbable. It is a word variously applied. It signifies to throw; to strike; to break to pieces by collision; to besprinkle; to agitate; to mingle fluids; to strike off in haste; to blot; to confound; to strike down. As a neuter verb, to fly



off; to rush through, so as to scatter; to strike, as a ship upon a rock. As a noun, it expresses collision; infusion; a stroke made with the pen; a sudden blow, or striking appearance. Dryden uses it adverbially to express the sound of falling water.

Happy shall he be, that taketh and *dapheth* thy little ones against the stones. *Ps. cxxxvii. 9.*

If you *dash* a stone against a stone in the bottom of the water, it maketh a sound. *Bacon.*

They that stand high have many blasts to shake them;  
And, if they fall, they *dash* themselves to pieces. *Shakespeare.*

This tempest,  
*Dashing* the garment of this peace, aboded  
The sudden breach on't. *Id. Henry VIII.*

David's throne shall then be like a tree,  
Spreading and overshadowing all the earth;  
Or as a stone, that shall to pieces *dash*  
All monarchies besides throughout the world. *Milton.*

His tongue  
Dropped manna, and could make the worse appear  
The better reason, to perplex and *dash*  
Maturest councils. *Id.*

If a woman once *dash* upon the rock of reproach,  
she hardly ever recruits her credit. *Bp. Taylor.*

Whacum, bred to *dash* and draw,  
Not wine, but more unwholesome law. *Hudibras.*

Nothing *dashed* the confidence of the mule like the braying of the ass, while he was dilating upon his genealogy. *L'Estrange.*

A man that cuts himself, and tears his own flesh, and *dashes* his head against the stones, does not act so unreasonably as the wicked man. *Tillotson.*

At once the blushing oars and brazen prow  
*Dash* up the sandy waves, and ope the depths below. *Dryden.*

Doeg, though without knowing how or why,  
Spurred boldly on, and *dashed* thro' thick and thin;  
Thro' sense and nonsense, never out or in. *Id.*

To *dash* this caviel, read but the practice of Christian emperors. *South.*

Some stronger power eludes our sickly will;  
*Dashes* our rising hope with certain ill. *Prior.*

Never was *dashed* out, at one lucky hit,  
A fool so just a copy of a wit. *Pope.*  
To *dash* over this with a line, will deface the whole copy extremely, and to a degree that, I fear, may displease you. *Id.*

There is nothing which one regards so much with an eye of mirth and pity, as innocence, when it has in it a *dash* of folly. *Addison.*

Middling his head, and prone to earth his view,  
With ears and chest that *dash* the morning dew. *Tickel.*

Torrents that from yon promontory's head  
*Dashed* furious down in desperate cascade  
Heard from afar amid the lonely night,  
That oft have led the wanderer right,  
Are silent at the noise. *Beattie.*

— Here Time's huge fingers grasp his giant mace,  
And *dash* proud Superstition from her base. *Darwin.*

I should be so.

Had I a knife even; but it matters not—  
Death hath a thousand gates; and on the marble,  
Even at the altar foot, whence I look down  
Upon destruction, shall my head be *dashed*,  
Ere thou ascend it. *Bp.*

DASTARD, *v. a., n. s. & adj.* } From *Sat.*  
DASTARDISE, *v. a.* } *αδαρπίζω*,  
DASTARDLY, *adj. & adv.* } terrify. *It.*  
affright; make faint-hearted; a coward; patron.

The cruelty and envy of the people,  
Permitted by our *dastard* nobles,  
Have suffered me by the voice of slaves to be  
Whooped out of Rome. *Shakespeare.*

*Dastard* and drunkard, mean and insolent  
Tongue-valiant hero, vaunter of thy might,  
In threats the foremost, but the last in fight. *Dryden.*

He had such things to urge against our marriage,  
As, now declared, would blunt my sword in battle,  
And *dastardise* my courage. *Id.*

Brawl and clamour is so arrant a mark of a *dastardly* wretch, that he does as good as call himself so that uses it. *L'Estrange.*

Bug-bear thoughts, in the minds of children, make them *dastards*, and afraid of the shadow of darkness ever after. *Locke.*

Curse on their *dastard* souls, they stand astonished! *Addison.*

DASYPUS, the armadillo, or tatou, in zoology; a genus of quadrupeds, belonging to the order of bruta. The dasy pus has neither fore-teeth nor dog-teeth; it is covered with a hard bony shell, intersected with distinct moveable zones or belts: this shell covers the head, the neck, the back, the flanks, and extends even to the extremity of the tail; the only parts to which it does not extend, are the throat, the breast, and the belly, which are covered with a whitish skin of a coarse grain, resembling that of a hen after the feathers are pulled off. The shell does not consist of one entire piece, like that of the tortoise; but is divided into separate belts, connected with each other by membranes, which enable the animal to move it, and even to roll itself up like a hedgehog. All the species of this animal are originally natives of the western continent, and are endowed with the faculty of extending and contracting their bodies, and of rolling themselves up like a ball, like the hedgehog, though not into so complete a sphere. They are very inoffensive, excepting when they get into gardens, where they devour the melons, potatoes, and other roots. They walk quickly; but can hardly be said to run or leap, so that they seldom escape the pursuit either of men or dogs. But they dig deep holes in the earth, and seldom go very far from their subterraneous habitations; or, when at a great distance, require but a few moments to make one. When taken, they roll themselves up, and will not extend their bodies unless they are held near a fire. There is no other method of making them come out from deep holes, but by forcing in smoke or water. The female generally brings forth four young ones every month; which is the reason why the species are so numerous, notwithstanding they are much sought after



nt of the sweetness of their flesh. The likewise make baskets, boxes, &c., of the which cover their heads. Linnæus enumerates species of dasytus, principally distinguished by the number of their moveable belts. Buffon, who prefers the arrangement of Buffon of Linnæus, enumerates ten species of dasytus.

**D**, among mathematicians, a term for such quantities, as are given, or known, in order to find other things thereby that are unknown.

Euclid uses the word data (on which he has a particular tract) for such spaces, lines, and angles, as are given in magnitude, or to which we are to find others equal. From the use of this word, data, it has been transplanted into other sciences, as philosophy, medicine, &c.; where it signifies any quantity which, for the sake of a calculation, is taken for granted to be true, without requiring an immediate proof for its truth; called also the given quantity, number, &c.

**D**CHET, a town in Buckinghamshire, near High Wycombe, with a bridge over the Thames, built in the reign of queen Anne, and noted for its freestone-quarries. It is situated in a valley surrounded on every side with steep hills.

**D**, v. a. & n. s. } Fr. *date*, from Ital. *data*, adj. } *dato*; Lat. *datum*. To assign, to give; a time noted or appointed; time and place at which a letter is written.

My date of wives hath he redde,  
Who hath slain his husbandes in his bedde.

Chaucer. *Canterbury Tales*.

His days and times are past,  
My reliance on his fracted dates  
Must my credit.

Shakespeare. *Timon*.

Then raise,  
The conflagrant mass, purged and refined,  
The new earth, ages of endless date,  
In righteousness.

Milton.

the declining of this fate, O friend,  
To immortality extend?

Denham.

Other's promise ties me not to time;  
And without a date, they say, are void.

Dryden.

He would spare, from steel receives his  
Fate;  
Elements, like men, submit to fate.

Pope.

the occasion of Elizabeth, from which we date  
the beginning of our language.

Johnson. *Plan of Dictionary*.

**D** is derived from the Latin *datum*, given, which signifies the place from whence, as well as when. Our ancient deeds had no dates, the month and year, to signify that they were made in haste, or in the space of a day, without longer and more mature deliberation. The grants began with these words, *præsentis futuris*, &c.; but the grants of prisoners, with *omnibus præsentibus literis* in-  
&c.

**D**, n. s. } Lat. *dactylus*. A species of palm.  
**D**, n. s. } of palm.

Take these keys, and fetch more spices, nurse,  
All for dates and quinces in the pastry.

Shakespeare.

in botany. See **PHENIX**

**DATE**, in law. A deed is good, though it mentions no date or has a false, or even an impossible date, as the 30th of February; provided the real day of its being dated or given, that is, delivered, can be proved. *Blackstone's Commentary*, vol. ii. p. 304.

**DATI** (Carlo), professor of polite learning at Florence, his native country, and the private friend of the poet Milton. The chief work to which Dati applied himself, was *Della Pittura Antica*, of which he published an essay in 1667. He died in 1675.

**DATISCA**, in botany, a genus of the dodecandria order, and diœcia class of plants; natural order thirty-fourth, miscellanæ. Male, *CAL.* pentaphyllous: *COR.* none: the anthers sessile, long, and fifteen in number. Female, *CAL.* bidentate: the *STYLES* three: *CAP.* triangular, three-horned, unilocular, perversus, polyspermous, inferior. Species two: 1. *D. Cannabina*, a native of Canada with a smooth stem; 2. *D. hirta*, a native of Pennsylvania with a rough hairy stem.

**DATISI**, in logic, a mode of syllogisms in the third figure, wherein the major is a universal affirmative, and the minor and conclusion particular affirmative propositions. Thus,

**DA-** All who serve God are kings;

**TI-** Some who serve God are poor;

**SI-** Therefore, some who are poor are kings.

The **DATIVE**, in Latin and Greek grammar, is the third case, and is used to express the state or relation of a person or thing to whose advantage or disadvantage some other thing is referred. In the English language, which has no dative, this relation is expressed by the prepositions *to* or *for*. In the Greek language, which has no ablative, the dative is used instead of it. See **ABLATIVE**.

**DATUM**, or **DATUS**, in ancient geography, a town of Thrace, situated between Neapolis and the river Nessus, built by a colony of Thracians, according to Eustathius; who places it on the sea-coast, near the Strymon, in a rich and fruitful soil, famous for ship-building and mines of gold; hence the proverb *Δαρος Αγαθων*, denoting prosperity and plenty. It was taken by Philip of Macedon, who changed its name to Philippi. It was afterwards famous for the defeat of Brutus and Cassius by Augustus and Antony.

**DATURA**, the thorn apple, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, and pentandria class of plants; natural order twenty-eighth, *luridæ*: *COR.* funnel-shaped, and plaited: *CAL.* tubular, angulated, and deciduous; *CAPS.* quadrivalved. There are seven species. *D. stramonium*, the common thorn-apple, rises about a yard high, with an erect, strong, round, hollow, green stalk, branching luxuriantly on every side; large, oval, irregularly angulated, dark green leaves; and from the divisions of the branches, large white flowers singly succeeded by oval, prickly capsules, growing erect, commonly called thorn apples. At night the upper leaves rise up and enclose the flowers. The blossoms have sometimes a tinge of purple or violet. The flowers consist of one large, funnel-shaped petal, having a long tube, and spreading pentagonal limb, succeeded by large roundish capsules of the size



of middling apples, closely beset with sharp spines. An ointment prepared from the leaves gives ease in external inflammations, and in the hæmorrhoids. Cows, horses, sheep, and goats, refuse this plant.

DAVAL (Peter Esq.) F.R.S., an eminent English mathematician. He was bred a barrister at law; was afterwards master in chancery; and at last accountant general of that court. He translated the Memoirs of the Cardinal de Retz, printed in 12mo. 1723. In the dispute concerning elliptical arches, when Blackfriars bridge was built, his opinion was applied for by the committee. His answer may be seen in the London Magazine for March 1760. He died January 8th, 1763.

DAVALLIA, in botany, a genus of the cryptogamia class, and order filices. Fructification in roundish distinct dots near the margin: INVOLUCRUM membranaceous, from the surface half-hooded, distinct, somewhat truncate, opening towards the margin. Species nineteen.

DAVANGIRI, a town of the south of India, province of Mysore, district of Chittledroog. It consists of 500 houses, with a small fort in the centre, and has an extensive manufacture of blankets. It carries on a good trade with the Carnatic and its vicinity.

DAUB, *v. a. v. n. & n. s.* *Fr. dauber; Belg. dabben; Irish diob,*  
 DAUBER, *n. s.* *(mortar). To smear;*  
 DAUBERY, *n. s.* *cover with something*  
 DAUBING, *n. s.* *adhesive, and gross,*  
 DAUB'Y, *adj.* *as mortar. Hence, to paint coarsely and vilely; to cover with gaudy or showy ornaments; to flatter. As a neuter verb, to play the hypocrite. Daubery and daubing are both used in the sense of the substantive daub; and dauby is an adjective, signifying viscous, adhesive.*

She took for him an ark of bulrushes, and daubed it with slime and with pitch. *Exodus.*

When the wall is fallen, shall it not be said unto you, Where is the daubing wherewith ye have daubed it? *Ezekiel xiii.*

Since princes will have such things, it is better they should be graced with elegance, than daubed with cost. *Bacon.*

So smooth he daubed his vice with shew of virtue, He lived from all attainer of suspect. *Shakspeare.*

I cannot daub it further;  
 And yet I must. *Id.*

She works by charms, by spells; and such daubry as this is beyond our element. *Id.*

They snatched out of his hands a lame imperfect piece, rudely daubed over with too little reflection. *Dryden.*

Let him be daubed with lace, live high, and whore; Sometimes be lousy, but he never poor. *Id.*

A sign-post dauber would disdain to paint The one-eyed hero on his elephant. *Id.*

Not in vain the industrious kind With dauby wax and flowers the chinks have lined. *Id.*

Let every one, therefore, attend the sentence of his conscience; for, he may be sure, it will not daub nor flatter. *South.*

Hasty daubing will but spoil the picture, and make it so unnatural as must want false light to set it off. *Ottway.*

The treacherous tapster, Thomas,  
 Hangs a new angel two doors from us,  
 As fine as daubers hands can make it. *South.*

And did you step in to look at the grand picture of your way back?—'Tis a melancholy daub! my lord, not one principle of the pyramid in any one group. *South.*

If a picture is daubed with many bright and glaring colours, the vulgar admire it as an excellent piece. *South.*

DAUBENTON (Louis-Jean Marie), an eminent French anatomist and naturalist, born at Montbar in Burgundy, on the 29th of May, 1716. His father designed him for the church; but on his death, in 1736, Daubenton relinquished that pursuit for the study of physic and natural history; and in three years after took his degree at Rheims; after which he returned to his native country with the design of following the profession of medicine. But the celebrated Buffon was also a native of Montbar, having succeeded before Dufay in the superintendency of the botanic garden, selected Daubenton to assist him in his improvements and arrangements. In 1742 Buffon procured for him the place of demonstrator of the cabinet of natural history, with a salary of only 500 francs, which was afterwards raised to 2000. The cabinet of natural history, which was of immense service, was arranged and in a great measure collected by his means. The appearance of the History of Quadrupeds, wherein he gave the dissection and description of 182 species, gained him a very high reputation, but raised the jealousy of Reaumur, who then considered himself at the head of natural history. About this time Buffon was persuaded to separate himself from Daubenton; but their intimacy afterwards revived, and continued till Buffon's death. Daubenton was admitted a member of the Academy of Sciences in 1744; and contributed many valuable dissertations on natural history to its memoirs. But his service to science was not confined to his pen and the press: from 1775 he gave lectures on natural history in the college of medicine; and in 1783 on rural economy. In 1784 he published his Instructions to Shepherds, a work of great excellence. In 1794, when France was ruled by a lawless rabble, it became a matter of necessity with Daubenton to make application to the section of Sans-culottes for a certificate of civism, to enable him to hold his place in the garden of plants. His request was made under the title of Shepherd Daubenton; and it was granted to him under that name with the greatest facility. At the garden of plants the Convention appointed him professor of mineralogy; and he gave lectures during the ephemeral existence of the Normal School. He was also the author of a Methodical View of Minerals, and a contributor to both the French encyclopædias. In 1799 he was elected a member of the conservative senate; but the first meeting he attended he fell from his seat in an apoplectic fit. Speedy assistance being procured, he was restored to his senses, and calmly pointed out, in different parts of his body, the progress of the paralysis, which terminated his life on the 1st of January 1800 in his eighty-third year.



5, the carrot, in botany: a genus of order, and pentandria class of plants; forty-fifth, umbellatæ: con. a little amorphodite. The fruit bristly with

There are six species; but the one merits attention is the *D. carota*, the carrot. There are several varieties, the orange, and the purple carrot; the orange is the most esteemed. It is propagated by seeds, sown at different times of the year, to afford a supply for all times. The season for sowing the crop is soon after Christmas. The ground should be open, and in a warm sandy soil, well dug to a good depth, that the seeds meet with no obstruction in running, and to make them forked. The next crop should be sown in February, and the third in autumn; and lastly in the end of October those which are to stand the winter. It will be fit for use in March, before any spring ones; but they are seldom so well tasted. Carrots were first introduced into England by the Flemings, in the reign of Elizabeth.

NANT (Charles), LL.D., an eminent civilian, eldest son of Sir William Nant, was born in 1656, and educated in the law. He wrote several political tracts, and plays. He was in 1685 empowered, master of the revels, to inspect the plays for the stage, that no immoralities were presented; and was also inspector of exports and imports. His *Essays on the Law* reprinted in 5 vols. 8vo in 1771.

er (John), bishop of Salisbury, the eminent merchant in London, where he died in 1570. He took his degree of Master of Arts at King's College, Cambridge, in 1587, and D.D. in 1609, when he was elected Bishop of Salisbury, and is chiefly known as the friend of James I. to the synod of 1604.

er (Sir William), an eminent poet, died in 1606. After some stay at the court he entered into the service of Frances, Countess of Richmond, and afterwards of the Duke of Buckingham. Upon the death of the Duke, Lord Brooke created poet laureate. He wrote *Andromeda* at Paris, where he formed a company, carrying over a considerable number of his countrymen, especially weavers, to Virginia; his company were seized by some ships, and he was carried prisoner to the Tower of Wight, and then to the Tower of London, where, by the mediation of Milton, he was set at large. At the Tower he wrote comedies being presented up an opera, to be performed by the Italian opera house in Charter-house yard, which was afterwards removed to the Cockpit Lane, and was much frequented for its Madagascars, and other poems, and died in 1648. He died in 1668.

TRY, an incorporate town of Norfolk, situated near the sources of the Great Ouse, which flow into opposite seas.

It is seventy-two miles N. N. W. from London, and ten from Northampton. The manor formerly belonged to John of Gaunt who had a castle here. The ancient priory is in ruins, but parts of it are inhabited by the poor. On a hill in the neighbourhood are some strong entrenchments occupied by Charles I. before the battle of Naseby. The ground formerly was used as a race course. The town is very narrow and badly paved, and the church but a poor piece of architecture. The affairs of the corporation are managed by thirteen burgesses, one of whom is annually chosen bailiff, a recorder, town clerk, two head wardens, and twenty common councilmen. The bailiff acts as justice of the peace and coroner of the inquest, and the bailiff and ex-bailiff, with the recorder, constitute a quorum of the corporation, and can attach for debts under £100, or, in criminal cases, commit the accused to the county-gaol. Daventry has a considerable manufacture of whips, and a good market for provisions on Wednesday.

DAUGHTER, *n. s.* ? Sax. *dohter*; Goth.

DAUGHTERLY, *adj.* *ḡdauhtar*; Runic *dotter*; Germ. *dohter*; Dut. *dochter*. A female child; the wife of a son; in the plural, the females of a country. A female taken into the relation of a child, or addressed tenderly. Any female deity or imaginary personage. Daughterly is like, or behaving with the duty of, a daughter.

Jacob went out to see the daughters of the land.

Genesis.

Daughter, be of good comfort, thy faith hath made thee whole.

Matt. ix. 22.

A daughter hadden they betwix hem two  
Of twenty yere, withouten any mo,  
Saving a child that was of half yere age  
In cradle it lay and was a propre page.

Chaucer. *Cant. Tales.*

Your wives, your daughters,

Your matrons, and your maids, could not fill up  
The cistern of my last.

Shakespeare.

Are you at leisure, holy father, now,  
Or shall I come to you at evening mass?—  
—My leisure serves me, pensive daughter, now Id.

Sir Thomas liked her natural and daughterly affection for him.

Cavendish's *Life of More.*

Now Aurora, daughter of the dawn,

With rosy lustre purpled o'er the lawn.

Pope.

Commerce, however we may please ourselves with the contrary opinion, is one of the daughters of fortune, inconstant and deceitful as her mother.

Johnson. *Thoughts on Agriculture.*

Is thy face like thy mother's, my fair child!

Ada! sole daughter of my house and heart?  
When last I saw thy young blue eyes they smiled,  
And then we parted,—not as now we part,  
But with a hope.

Byron.

DAVID, דָּוִד, Heb. i. e. beloved, king of Israel, and Hebrew poet, was born at Bethlehem A.A.C. 1085, and died A.A.C. 1015, after having reigned seven years and a half in Hebron, and thirty-three in Jerusalem. We have a complete and faithful portrait of this great prince and poet of the Jews in Scripture; and while in this portrait no friend of revelation will pretend that we can exhibit a faultless character, the infidel Bayle allows him to have been a great and justly distin-



guished monarch and poet; and we may refer to his *Historical and Critical Dictionary*, for a full and tolerably impartial disquisition on the subject.

DAVID (—), a celebrated modern French painter, was born about the middle of the last century, and became the pupil of Vien, an artist of considerable eminence. He was painter to the unfortunate Louis XVI. and in September, 1790, presented to the legislative body a picture, representing his entrance into the national assembly. He was afterwards a deputy from Paris to the national convention, where he voted for his royal master's death. With perfect consistency he became a member of the committee of Public Safety during the reign of terror, and closely connected himself with Robespierre. In January, 1794, he was president of the convention. On the fall of Robespierre, he contrived to elude the danger for some time; but at length, in May, 1795, he was committed to the Luxembourg. His professional friends, however, procured his liberation; but during the following winter he joined a new society of terrorists, assembled near the pantheon, and became their first president; and in 1799 attempted to re-establish the jacobin club. About this time he was made a member of the National Institute for the class of painting; and Buonaparte, in 1800, appointed him painter to the government. During the imperial domination, David enjoyed his highest reputation as a painter, and exercised considerable influence over the measures adopted by the government for the cultivation of the fine arts. On the restoration of the Bourbons he was exiled to Brussels, where he continued to employ his talents till the time of his death, which took place December the 29th, 1825. His best paintings are—The Rape of the Sabines; The Oath of the Horatii; The Death of Socrates; Napoleon presenting the Imperial Eagles to his Troops; Mars Disarmed by Venus and the Graces, a work executed at Brussels; and The Coronation of Napoleon, exhibited in London in 1822, and said to be the largest painting ever made on canvass. David was clearly of a most cruel and sanguinary disposition in the height of his political career, and it seems to have infected at one time the efforts of his genius. The deputy Reboul found him, in 1792, in the prison of La Force, calmly sketching the prisoners who were going to execution: 'What are you about,' said Reboul, 'I am catching the last impulses of nature in these rascals,' replied David. He will be thought by some of our readers a characteristic painter of Napoleon presenting the Imperial Eagles.

DAVID I., king of Scots, succeeded his brother Alexander I., A. D. 1124, and died at Carlisle, A. D. 1153. See SCOTLAND.

DAVID II., king of Scots, succeeded his father Robert Bruce, A. D. 1320, when only seven years of age. His nonage proved disastrous to Scotland, and afforded Edward Baliol the opportunity of usurping the crown, by the aid of the English.

DAVID'S (St.), an episcopal town of South Wales, in Pembrokeshire, seated in the barren soil on the river Ilen, not a mile from the sea. It

was once a considerable place, and which are now demolished. The cathedral structure. The see has a bishop, chancellor, treasurer, four arch-deacons, prebendaries, eight vicars choral, &c. church formerly stood a college.

Well, near this place, is occasionally on account of its medicinal virtues. cape, near it, there is a prospect into It is twenty-four miles north-west of and 266 west by north of London.

DAVIDSON, a county of the United States, in Mero district, in Tennessee, bounded north by the state of Kentucky, on the Sumner, and on the south by the Indian territory. Its chief town, Nashville, lies at the great bend of Cumberland River.

DAVIES (Sir John), a distinguished man, and poet, born at Tisbury, in Wiltshire, 1570, received his academical education at Queen's College, Oxford, and removed to the Middle Temple to study the law; being called to the bar, was expelled the society, for an insult which he publicly offered to the recorder of London. He now retired to his estate at Tisbury, where he wrote his celebrated poem, *Sum*, a poem, and courted the patronage of Elizabeth by writing, under the name of Hymns of Astrea, twenty-six acrostic poems. In 1601 he was restored to the bar, and in the same year was chosen a member of parliament for Corfe Castle, and took a distinguished part in the suppression of the rebellion of James I., and became successively attorney-general, and justice of the peace. He was made a sergeant at law, and knighted in 1607 he accompanied the chief justice on a progress through the counties of Monmouth, Fermanagh, and Cavan, and drew up a report of the circuit. He soon after visited Ireland before the king an account of that country, which he seems to have exercised his function with great impartiality and purity, and on his return assiduously recommenced his labors. In 1612 he published *A Discourse of the true Causes why Ireland has never been subdu'd and brought under Obedience to the Crown of England*, until the Beginning of His Majesty's happy Reign. During the first parliament was convoked for Ireland, formed by a general representation of Catholics and Protestants, and Sir John was chosen a member of the house of commons. He published in 1614, *A Declaration concerning the Prince of Wales*; and the year following, *Reports of Cases adjudged in the King's Bench in Ireland*. Soon after, returning to England, he went several circuits as a judge, and was elected member for Newcastle-under-Lyme, but was subsequently raised to the office of justice of England, but almost immediately fell off by a fit of apoplexy, in December, 1615. His poems were reprinted in 1773, and form a part of various modern collections. His prose works were collected in one volume, under the title of *Historical Tracts*, by Thomas Davies. This acute lawyer and politician married a daughter of lord Audley, but



in his family, his son proving an ideot, his daughters of a remarkably flighty. His second daughter married lord

A (Henry Catherine), a celebrated the youngest son of Antonio Davila, a noble of Cyprus. He was born in an ancient castle in Padua, but was early into France. At the age of eight, he distinguished himself in the military scenes country; and at the siege of Amiens, he fought under Henry IV., received a wound in the knee. After peace was established, he withdrew into Italy, and entered the service of the Venetians. While at Venice, he wrote his admirable History of the Civil Wars of France, from the death of Henry II. in 1547 to the peace of Vervins in 1598. He continued to serve the republic of Venice with great distinction, till he was murdered, in 1631, by a Venetian, called Il Turco, who entered a room of an hotel where he and his family were sitting, and, being repulsed for his refusal to pay, discharged a pistol at the king, and shot him dead in an instant. His son Antonio, a youth of eighteen, revenged the death of his father by killing the murderer on the spot.

S (John), a famous navigator in the 17th century, was born at Sandridge, near Exeter in Devonshire; and distinguished himself by making three voyages to the northern parts of America, in order to find out a north-west passage to the East Indies; in which he discovered the Straits which bear his name. He performed five voyages to the East Indies, the last of which he was slain in an encounter with some Japanese, near the island of Malacca, on the 27th of December, 1691. He wrote an account of a second voyage to discover the north-west passage; and of the East Indies; and other tracts.

STRAIT, a narrow sea, lying between the north-east of America, and the western coast of Asia; running north-west from Cape Henry, Lat. 60° N. to Baffin's Bay in 80° N. to long. 75° W. communicating with the Gulf of St. Lawrence, which lies to the north of this strait, of the North Main, or James's Island.

ON (William), a statesman of Scottish birth, became secretary of state to queen Anne.

His early life is little known, but in 1672 he was employed on a mission to Brabant; and commissioned, in a similar manner, to the states of Holland. In 1683 he was employed confidentially in Scotland; and acquired considerable fame as a diplomatist and clerk of the council. On his return, he was sent on a second embassy into the Low Countries, where he made secretary of state. Camden says that he was raised to this office in order to conceal the mysterious transaction which proved his ruin. When the council opened to bring Mary queen of Scots to trial, the name of secretary Davison was inserted, but it does not seem that he was present when it was opened, or ever assisted at the trial. The unhappy princess's counsel resolved upon, it only remained to execute in the manner of it, and here Davison

differed with Walsingham, being of opinion that it should be open; upon which the latter pretended sickness, which threw the business of drawing up the warrant and bringing it to the queen for signature, on Davison. If Davison's apology, indeed, may be believed, he acted throughout under dictation; but he was tried in the Star Chamber for revealing the secrets of the queen's council, fined 10,000 marks, and sentenced to imprisonment during her majesty's pleasure; a copy of the proceedings being sent to king James to account for the death of his mother. The fine was rigorously levied; but he was assisted from time to time with small sums of money, and recommended to king James by the friendship of the earl of Essex. His final fortunes and time of death are not known.

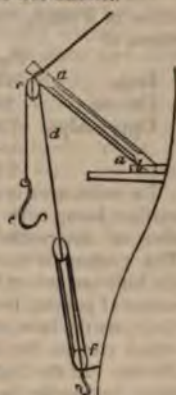
DAVIT, in a ship, a long beam of timber, used as a crane whereby to hoist the flukes of the anchor to the top of the bow, without injuring the sides of the ship as it ascends; an operation which, by mariners, is called fishing the anchor. The anchors being situated on both the bows, the davit may be occasionally shifted, so as to project over either side of the ship, according to the position of that anchor on which it is employed. The inner end of the davit is secured by being fixed in the fore channels *b*, and upon the outer end is hung a large block *c*, through which a strong rope traverses, called the fish-pendent *d*; to the foremost end of which is fitted a large iron hook *e*, and to the after end a tackle or complication of pulleys *f*; the former of which is called the fish-hook, and the latter the fish tackle. The anchor being previously raised to the cat head, the fish-hook is fastened upon its flukes; and the effort of the tackle being transmitted to the hook, by means of the fish-pendent, draws up that part of the anchor sufficiently high upon the bow to fasten it. There is also a davit of a smaller kind occasionally fixed in the long-boat, and employed to weigh the anchor therein.

DAULE, a large navigable river of Quito, in the province of Guayaquil, which, after a course of sixty miles, falls into the Guayaquil, in lat. 2° 8' S., on the west side. Its shores are covered with estates and gardens belonging to the inhabitants of Guayaquil, and abound in delicious fruits. It gives name to a small district.

DAUNT, *v. a.* } Fr. *domter*; Lat. *domiter*;  
DAUNTLESS, *adj.* } but perhaps more immediately derived to our language from Goth. and Swed. *dana*, signifying to make faint, amazed. To affright, discourage, intimidate. A dauntless man is he who cannot readily be intimidated.

Metellus, the fowle cherle, the swine  
That with a staf beraft his wif hire lif,  
For she drank wine, though I had ben his wif.  
Ne shuld he nat have daunted me fra drink.

Chaucer, *Can't. Tuler.*





**DAUPHIN**, a title given by the court of France to the presumptive heir of the crown, on account of the province of Dauphiné, which in 1349 was given to Philip VI. on this condition, by Hubert II. dauphin of Viennois. He is styled the eldest son of France. His crown is a circle of gold set round with eight fleur-de-lis, closed at the top with four dolphins, whose tails conjoin under a fleur-de-lis.

**DAUPHIN**, in geography, a county of Pennsylvania, formerly contained in that of Lancaster. Its form is triangular; and it is surrounded by the counties of Mifflin, Cumberland, York, Berks, and Northumberland.

**DAUPHINE'**, an extensive south-east province of France, containing the three departments of

	Population.	Chief Towns.
Iseré,	471,660,	Grenoble.
Drôme,	253,372,	Valence.
Upper Alps,	124,763,	Gap.

849,795.

Its entire area is about 6700 square miles, the surface being very mountainous, and the lower division intersected by a ridge of the Alps. The pasture is universally good, except where the hills are covered with forests. They contain mines of copper, iron, and lead. The principal rivers are the Iseré, the Durance, and the Drome, which rise in the Alps, and terminate in the Rhone. In the higher mountains it is cold and sharp, but on the banks of the Rhone the climate is warm. The valleys produce corn, flax, and olives; and the sides of the hills are covered with vines. The culture of silk is also prosecuted with success, particularly in Valence, Romans, Pierrelatte, and Montelimart. Cheese is a principal article of export. The ecclesiastical dignitaries are one archbishop (of Vienne), and three bishops (Grenoble, Valence, and Gap).

**DAVY** (sir Humphrey, bart.), one of the most distinguished chemists of the age, was born at Penzance, in Cornwall, December 17th, 1779. After having received the rudiments of a classical education, he was placed with a surgeon and apothecary, who pronounced him an 'idle and incorrigible boy.' He had, however, already distinguished himself at school, and a taste for chemistry, which he displayed in some experiments on the air contained in sea-weed, attracted the attention of Mr. Gilbert, afterwards president of the royal society, and of Dr. Beddoes. The latter, who had just established a pneumatical institution at Bristol, offered him the place of assistant in his laboratory. Here Davy discovered the respirability and exhilarating effect of the nitrous oxide. He published the results of his experiments, under the title of *Chemical and Philosophical Researches*, &c., London, 1800. This work immediately obtained him the place of professor of chemistry in the royal institution at the age of twenty-two. In 1803 he was chosen a member of the Royal Society. His lectures at the Royal Institution were attended by crowded and brilliant audiences, attracted by the novelty and variety of his experi-



ments, the eloquence of his manner, and the clearness of his exposition. His experiments with the galvanic battery, his decomposition of the earths and alkalies, and his discovery of metallic bases, his demonstration of the nature of the oxymuriatic acid (so named because it gave the name of chlorine), &c., obtained him an extensive reputation; and, in 1806, he received the prize of the French Institute. In 1814 he was elected a corresponding member of that body. Having been elected professor of chemistry to the board of agricultural chemistry, he delivered lectures on agricultural chemistry for ten successive years, and, in 1813, published *Elements of Agricultural Chemistry*. His next discovery was of no less importance to humanity than his former researches, and valuable to science. The numerous experiments arising from fire-damp in mines led him upon a series of experiments on the nature of the explosive gas, the result of which was the invention of his safety-lamp. In 1819 he visited Italy, and made some successful attempts to unravel the Heraclean manuscripts. In 1820 he succeeded Sir Humphrey Banks, as president of the royal society. In 1824 he visited Norway for the purpose of making some scientific investigations. On his voyage he proved the efficacy of his experiments in preserving the copper of ships, by coating it in part with a certain quantity of the same time the trigonometrical measurements of Denmark and Hanover were conducted in his direction, by chronometrical observations with the measurements in England. The distinguished philosopher died May 29th, 1829, at Geneva, whither he had gone for the purpose of his health. Besides the works already mentioned, the most important are *Electrical Researches*; *Elements of Chemical Philosophy*, vol. i. 1802; *Bakerian Lectures*, 1803; *Researches on the Oxymuriatic Acid, and the Fire-Damp*, 1816. He also communicated some valuable papers to the *Philosophical Transactions*, and the journals of Nicollo.

**DAVY** (William), a clergyman, who was educated at Baliol College, Oxford, where he obtained the degree of B.D. was curate of Launceston, Devonshire, and the editor, printer, and publisher of a work entitled, 'A System of Christian Religion; or, some of the most important of the Christian Religion in connexion with the several Virtues and Vices of Man,' containing occasional Discourses: being a compilation of the best sentiments of the polite writers on the same subjects, both ancient and modern, on the same subjects, properly connected and improved; particularly adapted to the use of chiefs of families and students in the churches, and for the benefit of mankind in general,' 26 vols. 8vo. 1785-1807. The singularity of this production is said to be this:—'Having completed his preliminary arrangements, he issued proposals for publishing his work in description; but, being unpatronised and he had no success. Undaunted by this disappointment, he determined to become



ith a press which he constructed as many worn and cast-off types from a country printing-office) as set up two pages, he fell to work. Every operation with the assistance of domestic only, and working off a time, he finished forty copies of the ges. Twenty-six copies he distributing the universities, the bishops, the y, and the reviews, expecting to de- come quarter or other that patronage ee to which he fancied himself en- second time disappointed, he would n his project, but contracted his ving in future to spare his expenses le had reserved only fourteen copies, number he limited the impression of ork. After years of unremitting toil, mpleted in 26 volumes. Disdaining ance, for which he could ill afford put the books in boards with his own then took a journey to London for s purpose of depositing a copy in principal public libraries of the me- Quarterly Review.

is. Supposed by Skinner so named te; by Junius to be corrupted from Germ. *tul*, and *dol* in the Bavarian ving the same signification. The bird

S (Richard), a learned critic of the y, was born in 1708, in Leicestershire. ucated at Market Bosworth, and ad- der of Emanuel College, Cambridge, e became a fellow in 1731, and in the degree of M.A. He distinguished his violent asperity towards Bentley, published a proposal for printing by n a translation into Greek verse of Paradise Lost; but the plan did not In 1738 he was appointed master of mmar-school at Newcastle-upon-Tyne. published his *Miscellanea Critica*, a specimen of an intended emenda- of all the Attic poets. But neither sign ever completed; the *Miscellanea*, gained the author great reputation, and edition of it, with additions, was in 1781, by Dr. Burgess, bishop r. He resigned his schools in 1749, to Heworth, where he died in 1766.

v. a. & n. s. Scot. *dalk*. To mark tion. A word among workmen for pture, or incision, in their stuff.

v. n. & n. s. } The past participle, according to Mr. versions of Purley, v. ii.), of Anglo- an, to grow light. To become day; minous. Hence to glimmer; to ap- rely; to commence. The dawn, or used for the time between the first of the sun's light and sun-rise.

a to dawn towards the first day of the Mary Magdalene to see the sepulchre.

Matthew. (slept, oblivious of my pain; ed, and Phœbus shined in vain. Pope. er circumstances diffuse a dawn of serene soul. Id.

In such an enterprise to die is rather The dawn of an eternal day, than death. Byron.

DAX, an old town of France, in Gascony, situated on a plain on the left bank of the Adour, a bridge across which unites it to the suburb, Sablar. It has a wall flanked with towers, and a castle. The place has been long celebrated for its mineral waters. In the middle of the town is a large and deep spring which throws out warm water in large quantities. The surrounding country is flat and sandy, but productive. To the north-west is an immense forest. Population 4400. It is twenty-five miles north-east of Bayonne, and eighty-five south by west of Bourdeaux.

DAY, n. s.

TO-DAY, adv.

DAILY, adj. & adv.

DAY-BED, n. s.

DAY-BOOK,

DAY-BREAK

DAY-DREAM,

DAY-LABOR,

DAY-LABOREE,

DAY-LIGHT,

DAY-LILY,

DAYSMAN,

DAY-SPRING,

DAY-STAR,

DAY-TIME,

DAY-WOMAN

DAY-WORK.

Ang.-Sax. *dæg*; Goth.

Swed. and Belg. *dag*; Teut.

*tag*; Icel. *dagur*; Lat. *dies*;

all probably from Gr. *ἡμέρα*,

light. Minsheu says from

Heb. *דָּאָג*, to fly; or from

the Belg. *dacht*, i. e. *de acht*

(of aught, or some value),

as Belg. *nacht*, night, is

from *nie acht*, no value.

The last conjecture is cu-

rious, and the coincidence

remarkable. We leave the

decision of these conflict-

ing etymologies with the

learned reader. The time

between sun-rise and sun-

set; from noon to noon; from one evening to another; or from midnight to midnight; or between any two points marking an artificial division of time of this kind; light, sunshine; any specified or appointed time; particularly a time appointed to give judgment, and therefore that judgment given; the period of human life; any remarkable period; time in general. To-day appears simply to signify on this day. The meaning of the compounds is obvious, except perhaps that of daysman, which signifies an umpire or judge. Dr. Johnson says, 'a surety.' But the instances from Job ix. and Spenser seem to confirm the former meaning, which is what Ainsworth gives. Wiclif clearly uses it for 'judgment,' in 1 Cor. iv.

And to me it is for the leeste thing that I be deemed of ghou or of mannys *dat*, but neither I deme mysilf. Wiclif. 1 Cor. iv.

I worche a werk in ghoure *daies*, a werk that ghe schulen not bileene if ony man schal telle it ghou. Id.

And God called the light *day*, and the darkness he called night. And the evening and the morning were the first *day*. Bible. Gen. i. 5.

For he is not a man, as I am, that I should answer him, and we should come together in judgment. Neither is there any *daysman* betwixt us, that might lay his hand upon upon us both. Id. Job. ix. 32, 33.

To-day, if ye will hear his voice, harden not your hearts. Psalm xcv. 7.

Upon a *day* he got him more monie Than that the persone gat in monethes twice. And thus with fained flattering and gapes, He made the persone and the people his apes. Chaucer. Prol. to Cant. Tales.



After him reigned Gutheline his heir,  
The justest man and truest in his days.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

By this the drooping daylight 'gan to fade,  
And yield his room to sad succeeding night. *Id.*

For what art thou,  
That makest thyself his daysman, to prolong  
The vengeance prest? *Id.*

Bavaria hath been taught, that merit and service  
doth oblige the Spaniard but from day to day.

*Bacon.*

In the daytime Fame sitteth in a watch-tower, and  
sieth most by night; she minglcth things done with  
things not done, and is a terror to great cities. *Id.*

How many hours bring about the day,  
How many days will finish up the year.

*Shakespeare.*

Much are we bound to heaven  
In daily thanks, that gave us such a prince. *Id.*

The noble Thanes do bravely in the war;  
The day almost itself professes yours,  
And little is to do. *Id. Macbeth.*

Calling my officers about me, in my branched  
velvet gown; having come down from a daybed,  
where I have left Olivia sleeping.

*Id. Twelfth Night.*

Thou shalt buy this dear,  
If ever I thy face by daylight see.

Now go thy way. *Id.*

I meant to make her fair, and free, and wise,  
Of greatest blood, and yet more good than great:  
I meant the daystar should not brighter rise,  
Nor lend like influence from his lucent seat.

*Ben Jonson.*

True labour in the vineyard of thy lord,  
Ere prime thou hast the' imposed daywork done.

*Fairfax.*

Or objects new  
Casual discourse draws on, which intermits  
Our day's work. *Milton.*

Both God exact daylabour, light denied,  
I fondly ask? *Id.*

In one night, ere glimpse of morn,  
His shadowy flail hath threshed the corn  
That ten daylabourers could not end. *Id.*

The breath of heaven, fresh-blowing, pure and  
sweet,  
With day-spring born, here leave me to respire. *Id.*

Sunk though he be beneath the wat'ry floor;  
So sinks the day-star in the ocean bed,  
And yet anon repairs his drooping head. *Id.*

I saw you every day, and all the day;  
And every day was still but as the first:  
So eager was I still to see you more. *Dryden.*

Would you the' advantage of the fight delay,  
If, striking first, you were to win the day? *Id.*

Or if my debtors do not keep their day,  
Deny their hands, and then refuse to pay,  
I must with patience all the terms attend. *Id.*

I watched the early glories of her eyes,  
As men for daybreak watch the Eastern skies. *Id.*

Daylabour was but an hard and a dry kind of live-  
lihood to a man that could get an estate with two or  
three strokes of his pen. *South.*

We have, at this time of day, better and more  
certain means of information than they had.

*Woodward.*

Yet are we able only to survey  
Drawings of beams, and promises of day.

*Prior.*

Cease, man of woman born! to hope  
From daily trouble, and continued grief.

I think, in these days, one honest man  
to acquaint another who are his friends.

If bodies be illuminated by the ordinary  
tick colours, they will appear neither of the  
daylight colours, nor of the colour of the light  
them, but of some middle colour between both.  
*Newton's*

Of night impatient, we demand the day  
The day arrives, then for the night we pray  
The night and day successive come and go  
Our lasting pains no interruption know. *Blount.*

My ants never brought out their corn but  
at night when the moon did shine, and kept it  
ground in the daytime.

Thy daily labours of the bee  
Awake my soul to industry;  
Who can observe the careful ant  
And not provide for future want?

The past is all by death possessed,  
And frugal fate, that guards the rest,  
By giving, bids us live to-day. *Id.*

Are these the questions that raise a storm  
In minds of men at this day? If ever the  
constitution of England should fall in these  
(and they will fall together), it is not presby-  
terian hierarchy that will rise upon their ruins.

Thus Genius rose and set at ordered times,  
And shot a day-spring into distant climes,  
Ennobling every region that he chose;  
He sunk in Greece, in Italy he rose.

*Cowper's Table.*

Parting day

Dies like the dolphin, whom each parting  
With a new colour as it gasps away,  
The last still loveliest, till—'tis gone—and all.

DAY, CIVIL. See CHRONOLOGY.

DAY, NATURAL. See CHRONOLOGY.

DAY, SIDEREAL; DAY, SOLAR. See  
NOMY.

DAYS OF GRACE, in commerce, are  
a customary number of days allowed for the  
payment of a bill of exchange, &c., after the  
date comes due. Three days of grace are allowed  
in Britain; ten in France and Dantzic;  
Naples; six at Venice, Amsterdam, Rotterdam  
and Antwerp; four at Francfort; five in  
Hamburg, &c. In Britain the  
grace are given and taken as a matter of  
the bill being only paid on the last day.  
In other countries, where the time is much  
it would be thought dishonourable for a man  
to take advantage of it; bills are therefore  
on the very day they fall due.

DAYS OF GRACE, in law, are those  
granted by the court at the prayer of the defend-  
ing plaintiff.

DAY (Thomas), a benevolent English  
born in the metropolis, in 1748. While  
young, he was left heir to a fortune of  
£10,000 by the death of his father, who was  
lecturer of the customs. He received  
part of his education at the Charter-house,  
and was afterwards sent to Corpus Christi  
Oxford. Leaving Oxford he entered of the  
Temple, and, having been disappointed



on, took two foandling girls, with  
in of modelling their minds and  
The former he placed with a milliner,  
er he took under his own instruction,  
his scheme fruitless, he gave it up,  
er to a school. He is principally  
he author of the History of Sandford  
m, a tale for youth, bearing no small  
to Rousseau's *Emilius*. Mr. Day's  
were more theoretical and sentimental  
ed to the world as he found it: an  
(which occasioned his death. Having  
ich he wished to ride, he would not  
to be previously broke in, by those  
employed in the task, but, undertaking  
ement of it himself, was thrown from  
nd received a severe kick on the head,  
he died, September 8th, 1789.

COAL, in natural history, a name given  
ers of England, and the people who  
l countries, to that seam or stratum of  
hich lies uppermost in the earth. See

v. a. } Sax. *dægian*, to shine.  
v. a. & v. n. } Mæss.-Goth. *dagsian*;  
MENT, n. s. } Goth. and Swed. *dasa*.  
wer with light, so as to confuse or  
r both daze and dazzle may be regarded  
e active verb. Hence to dazzle is also  
th surprise; to astonish; and 'a dazed  
the North of England, is one of a  
ring countenance. As a neuter verb,  
s to be overpowered with light; to  
nd.

such glory and advancement wayne,  
ing beames do daze his feeble eyes,  
he welkin way most beaten playne;  
with whirling wheelcs, inflames the skyers  
it made to burne, but fayrely for to shyne.  
Spenser. *Faerie Queene*.

glass, which lent mine eyes their light,  
waxe dym, and daseled all with dread;  
ill, wyll now forsake me quite,  
of health abandoneth my head.

Guscoigne.

e to be represented in such an imaginary  
they rather dazzle men's eyes than open  
Bacon.

ght maketh the eyes dazzle, insomuch as  
oking against the sun would cause blind-  
Id.

mine eyes? or do I see three suns?  
Shakspeare.

Mysteries

the sun, *dazzling*, yet plain to all eyes.

Donne. *Satires*.

te the glistening armies, as they stand,  
ing beames, which dazed the wond'ring eye.  
Fairfax.

Those heavenly shapes  
le now this earthly with their blaze  
dy bright. Milton.

uman kind, all dazed in open day,  
Miss, and blindly miss their way.  
Dryden.

d! to dazzle let the vain design;  
thought, or touch the heart, be thine.

Pope.

books as with women, where a certain  
f manner and of dress, is more engaging  
L. VII.

than that glare of paint and airs and apparel, which  
may dazzle the eye, but reaches not the affections.

Hume

We gaze and turn away, and know not where,  
Dazzled and drunk with beauty, till the heart  
Reels with its fulness; there—for ever there—  
Chained to the chariot of triumphal Art,  
We stand as captives, and would not depart.

Byron.

DAZE, in natural history, a name given by  
our miners to a glittering sort of stone, which  
often occurs in their works; and, as it is an un-  
profitable substance, is one of those things they  
call weeds. The word is applied by them to  
every stone that is hard and glittering; and there-  
fore comprehends the whole genus of the telangia,  
or stony nodules, which have the flakes of talc in  
their substance.

DEACON, n. s. } Gr. *διακονος*. A minis-  
DEACONESS, } ter or official servant of the  
DEACONRY, } church, from *δια*, empha-  
DEACONSHIP. } tic; and *κονειν*, to serve.  
See the following article. Deaconry is both the  
office of a deacon, and a sort of hospital or re-  
ligious house at Rome.

Also (it bihoueth) *dekenes* to be chaast, not double  
tunged. Wiclif. 1 *Tymo*. iii.

Likewise must the *deacons* be grave, &c.

Bible. 1 *Tim*. iii.

When a contemptuous bold *deacon* had abused his  
bishop, he complained to S. Cyprian, who was an  
arch-bishop, and indeed S. Cyprian tells him he did  
honour him in the business that he would complain to  
him. Bp. Taylor.

Timothy was to prefer those who formerly had been  
employed by the church as *deaconesses*, and had dis-  
charged that office with faithfulness and propriety.

Macknight on 1 *Tim*. v. 10.

There were fourteen of these *deaconries* or hospitals,  
at Rome, which wore reserved to the cardinals. Du  
Cange gives in their names. Chambers.

DEACON, in civil polity, the praeses of a cor-  
poration, in the royal boroughs of Scotland.

DEACON, in ecclesiastical polity, *διακονος*, a  
servant, one whose business is to baptize, read  
in the church, and assist at the celebrations of  
the eucharist. Seven deacons were instituted by  
the apostles, Acts vi., which number was retained  
a long time in several churches. Their office was  
to serve in the Agapæ, and to distribute the bread  
and wine to the communicants. Another part  
of their office was to be a sort of directors to the  
people in the exercise of their public devotions  
in the church; for which purpose they used cer-  
tain forms of words, to give notice when each  
part of the service began. Whence they are  
sometimes called *cirokerukes*, or holy criers of  
the church. Deacons had, by license from the  
bishop, a power to preach, to reconcile penitents,  
to grant absolution, and to represent their  
bishops in general councils. Their office out of  
the church was to take care of orphans, widows,  
prisoners, and all the poor and sick who had any  
title to be maintained out of the revenues of the  
church; to enquire into the morals of the people,  
and to make their report to the bishop. Whence,  
on account of the variety of business, it was usual  
to have several deacons in the same church. In  
the Romish church, it is the deacon's office to

G



by statues, or unbreathing stones,  
on other, and looked *deadly* pale.

*Shakespeare.*

the queen, my lord, is *dead* :

— She should have died hereafter.

*Id. Macbeth.*

sold sometimes higher, and sometimes  
ding to the quick vent and abundance, or  
e and scarcity.

*Carew.*

doth Halbus his *deade-doing* quill  
in rusty scabbard ?

*Bishop Hall. Satires. vi. l.*

light was only deferred until they might  
disorders by the *dead* darkness of the

*Hayward.*

g over Amanns, then covered with deep  
came in the *dead* winter to Aleppo.

*Knolles.*

have no power at all, nor shift  
off at a *dead-lift*.

*Hudibras.*

y never care how many others  
till, without regard of mothers,  
us, or children, so they can  
up some fierce *dead-doing* man.

*Id.*

and of the night, when the men and their  
all fast asleep.

*L'Estrange.*

(the cavity) was closed up, the bell  
sounded more *dead* than it did when just bo-  
ded in the open air.

*Boyle.*

er from her hopeless lover fled  
dainful glances shot him *dead*.

*Dryden.*

from high, with just disdain,  
spired with vital life again.

*Id.*

out a blank remains, a *dead* void space,  
ife, that promised such a race

*Id.*

and sitting, though I alter not the draught,  
each the same features over again, and  
*dead* colouring of the whole.

*Id.*

excite heard, and up he ran with haste,  
him why he looked *deadly* man ?

*Id.*

omy eyes betray a *deadness*,  
d languishing. *Dryden and Lee's Edipus.*

schoolboys, set to cuff,  
suffess that they have done enough,  
olly weary.

*Ortery.*

as life, to hope for the favours of mercy  
expect an harvest in the *dead* of winter.

*South.*

cannot bear the *dead* weight of unemployed  
span their hands, nor the uneasiness it is  
ing at all.

*Locke.*

the *dead* shall rise and live again, is beyond  
any of reason, and is purely a matter of

*Id.*

them would be quickly *deadened* by counter-  
*Glennville's Scepis Scientifica.*

ken truth, drops *dead-born* from the press,  
as gazette, or like the last address. *Pope.*

the *dead* and *dead* does a prayer appear, that is  
in the most elegant forms of speech, when  
rightened by solemnity of phrase from the  
kings.

*Addison.*

isms are great instances of that activity  
atural to the human soul, and which is not  
er of sleep to *dead*en or abate. *Spectator.*

but is left under *dead* walls and dry ditches.

*Arbutnot.*

Anodynes are such things as relax the tension of  
the affected nervous fibres, or destroy the particular  
acrimony which occasions the pain ; or what *deadens*  
the sensation of the brain, by procuring sleep.

*Id. on Diet.*

A little rill of scanty stream and bed—

A name of blood from that day's sanguine rain :

And Sanguinetto tells ye where the *dead*

Made the earth wet, and turned the unwilling waters  
red.

*Byron.*

But, bark !—that heavy sound breaks in once  
more,

As if the clouds its echo would repeat,

And nearer, clearer, *deadlier* than before !

Arm ! arm !—it is—it is—it is—the cannon's opening roar !

*Id.*

DEAD-EYE, in maritime affairs, a sort of round  
flattish wooden block, usually encircled with a  
rope, or with an iron band, *g*, and  
pierced with three holes through the  
flat part, in order to receive a rope  
called the lanyard *h*, which, corres-  
ponding with three holes in another  
dead-eye *i*, creates a purchase employed  
for various uses, but chiefly to extend  
the standing rigging. In order to form  
this purchase, one of the dead-eyes is  
fastened in the upper link of each  
chain on the ship's side, which is made  
round to receive and encompass the  
hollowed outer edge of the dead-eye.  
After this the lanyard is passed alter-  
nately through the holes in the upper  
and lower dead-eyes, till it becomes  
six-fold ; and is then drawn tight by  
the application of mechanical powers.



DEAD-LIGHTS, certain wooden ports, which are  
made to fasten into the cabin windows, to prevent  
the waves from gushing into the ship in a high  
sea ; and, as they are made exactly to fit windows,  
and are strong enough to resist the waves, they  
are always fixed in on the approach of a storm,  
and the glass lights taken out, which must other-  
wise be shattered to pieces by the surges, and  
suffer great quantities of water to enter the  
vessel.

DEADLY FEUD, in English law-books, a pro-  
fession of irreconcilable enmity, till a person is  
revenged by the death of his enemy. See FEUD.  
Such enmity and revenge were allowed by law in  
the time of the Saxons. If any man was killed,  
and a pecuniary satisfaction was not made to the  
kindred, it was lawful for them to take up arms  
and revenge themselves on the murderer : this  
was called deadly feud ; and probably was the  
original of an appeal.

DEAD SEA, in geography, a lake of Judea, into  
which the river Jordan discharges itself. See  
ASPHALTITES.

DEAD WATER, at sea, the eddy water just  
astern of a ship ; so called because it does not pass  
away so swift as the water running by her sides  
does. They say that a ship makes much dead-  
water when she has a great eddy following her  
stern.

DEAF, *v. a. & adv.*

DEAFEN, *v. a.*

DEAFLY, *adv.*

DEAFNESS, *n. s.*

weak : and this seems confirmed by an *oh.*

Sax. *aðearian*, *dear* ;

Goth. *deif* ; Dan. *doev*.

Minshew says, Teut.

*daub*, from Heb. דאב,



meaning of the word in our language, i. e. sterile, unprofitable. To deprive of hearing; to stun: wanting the sense of hearing, totally or partially; dull; determined against a request or solicitation: applied also to sounds heard imperfectly, i. e. weakly. It requires to before the thing or sound that ought to be heard.

And by so myche more thei wondriden and seiden,  
he hided wel alle thingis and he made deefe men to  
here and dumble men to speke. *Wiclif. Mark 7.*

A good wif was ther of beside Bathe,  
But she was some del defe, and that was scathe.  
*Chaucer. Prolog. to Cant. Tales.*

Come on my right hand, for this ear is deaf.  
*Shakespeare.*

I will be deaf to pleading and excuses;  
Nor tears nor prayers shall purchase out abuses. *Id.*

Hearing hath deafed our sailors; and if they  
Know how to hear, there's none know what to say.  
*Donne.*

I found such a deafness that no declaration from  
the bishops could take place. *King Charles.*

A swarm of their aerial shapes appears,  
And fluttering round his temples, deafs his ears.  
*Dryden.*

But Salus enters: and, exclaiming loud  
For justice, deafens and disturbs the crowd. *Id.*

Nor silence is within, nor voice express,  
But a deaf noise of sounds that never cease;  
Confused and chiding like the hollow roar  
Of tides receding from the insulted shore. *Id.*

Those who are deaf and dumb, are dumb by conse-  
quence from their deafness. *Holder.*

Whilst virtue courts them; but, alas, in vain!  
Fly from her kind embracing arms,  
Deaf to her fondest call, blind to her greatest charms.  
*Rowe.*

If any sins afflict our life  
With that prime ill, a talking wife,  
Till death shall bring the kind relief,  
We must be patient, or be deaf. *Prior.*

Thus you may still be young to me,  
While I can better hear than see:  
Oh ne'er may fortune shew her spite,  
To make me deaf, and mend my sight. *Swift.*

Hope, too long with vain delusion fed,  
Deaf to the rumour of fallacious fame,  
Gives to the roll of death his glorious name.  
*Pope.*

The Dunciad had never been writ, but at his re-  
quest, and for his deafness; for, had he been able to  
converse with me, do you think I had amused my  
time so ill? *Id.*

From shouting men, and horns, and dogs, he flies,  
Deafened and stunned with their promiscuous cries.  
*Addison.*

Wheel in wide circle, form in hollow square,  
And now they front, and now they fly the war,  
Pierce the deaf tempest with lamenting cries,  
Press their parched lips, and close their blood-shot  
eyes. *Darwin.*

DEAFNESS arises commonly either from an  
obstruction or a compression of the auditory  
nerve; from some collection of matter in the  
cavities of the inner ear; from the auditory pas-  
sage being stopped up by some hardened excre-  
ment; or lastly, from some excrescence, a swelling  
of the glands, or some foreign body introduced  
within it.

There are also diseases of the internal ear that  
admit of no distinct classification, and sometimes  
such defects of the auditory nerves, either as a  
whole or in part, as to occasion this unhappy  
peculiarity. The sensibility of these nerves, like  
that of the rest of the body, becomes also weak-  
ened by age and various diseases, so as to  
occasion what is properly called a loss of  
hearing.

Our object in this paper is to consider deafness  
distinctly, and as a disease. Its unhappy con-  
sequence, in those who are born deaf, DUMENESS,  
is an entirely different topic: at least in a non-  
logical point of view. We shall first treat of  
both distinctly, and then, in the latter article,  
give some account of the modern efforts to  
ameliorate the situation of those in whom these  
disorders are hopeless. And,

1. Of deafness from deficiency in the auditory  
organs.—We are said to possess more accurate  
and detailed descriptions of the anatomy of the  
ear than of any other part of the body: in our  
articles ANATOMY and PHYSIOLOGY we shall be  
seen to avail ourselves of them. But it is re-  
markable that the profession of an aurist is  
almost new to the medical world, and that many  
diseases and deficiencies of the organs of the  
ear are yet to be explained. We have perhaps,  
therefore, less of the just application of know-  
ledge to its diseases than to those of any other  
part. See ACCOUSTICS.

The office of individual portions of this com-  
plicated organ, for instance, has been but very im-  
perfectly ascertained. Numerous observations  
seem to indicate that considerable injuries and  
deficiencies of the membrana tympani may take  
place without producing much effect upon the  
faculty of hearing. Persons who, by driving  
smoke taken in at the mouth, in large volumes  
through the ears, indicate a deficiency of this  
kind, are often found acute in the perception of  
sounds; and Sir Astley Cooper mentions an  
instance in which the membrana tympani of one  
ear being totally destroyed, and that of the other  
nearly so, by disease, it appeared that the deaf-  
ness was inconsiderable, and that sound was  
most readily perceived by the ear in which no  
trace of the membrane could be discovered. In  
the same case, the ear was nicely susceptible of  
musical tones, the individual played well on the  
flute, and sang perfectly in tune. The power of  
accommodating the ear to differing intensity of  
sound was, indeed, lost for some time after the  
destruction of the membrane: it, however,  
gradually returned; and at the period of ex-  
amination there was no distress arising from that  
deficiency.

Where deafness has followed the accidental  
destruction or continued disease of this mem-  
brane, it would appear to arise more directly,  
therefore, from its effect on neighbouring or-  
gans, as on the membranes of the fenestra, and  
the fluid of the labyrinth, which seem to be es-  
sential to the distinct conveyance of sound. The  
tympanum is, in fact, only one of the outward  
portals of this mysterious temple, though the last  
of them at which the sound arrives.

Its functions seem to be analogous with those  
of the pinna, or outward ear, i. e. to regulate



ect, only in a more perfect degree, the and impressions of sound. In the case noted, after this membrane had been so ly injured, the muscles of the external sed to acquire a new power of moving and backwards, which was regularly in the effort to catch an indistinct sound. ple of the pinna, we need hardly observe, a frequently removed without any abiding o the hearing. And in cases where the has never been formed, the functions of ear have been found perfect. Scarpi rs the fenestra rotunda as a species of tympanum. So long, therefore, as the ear is sound and healthy, all the essential ns of this organ will proceed.

practical remark may be permitted us a very common practice. Sir Hans has observed, 'that among the many in England who had applied to him on of deafness, the far greater part were nto their complaints by too often picking rs, and thereby bringing humors, or ul- ispositions, on them.'—*Phil. Trans.* No. 406.

*diseases of the meatus auditorius, or ex- sage of the ear.*—In this passage, and ions, arise the most common impediments eg. The exact, healthy quantum of ce- or wax, which should be here secreted, er been ascertained. But in a diseased this part of the ear the cerumen has ad completely stopping up the passage, etimes forming a false tympanum. The a hardened and permanently lodged on panum is a frequent and uniform cause less. The common application of warm or this accumulation has never been in- upon. This passage is also subject to on, which produces a great thickening of eguments, and consequent obstruction. or, exuding from the ulcerated surface, tes in the passage, and is accompanied ach factor. This disease generally yields application of solutions of the metallic of muriated mercury in lime-water; or dated zinc; or to the use of the unguen- largiri nitratum; calomel, or other alte- being taken at the same time. (Saunders). us excrescences and other extraneous es sometimes require to be removed by eal means from this passage.

*diseases or obstructions of the Eustachian* this forms, in fact, the body of the drum, ay be allowed the phrase, of which the largely consists. Communicating with of the palate, it admits a portion of air erbalance that in the meatus, and assists ly, during the vibrations of the tym- in perfecting the distinct sensation of Inveterate deafness is therefore often d by the disease or obstruction of this ad its cavity. When air is no longer ere, the tympanum is unduly forced and d inward, and thus cannot vibrate as in endicular state.

uctions of this tube arise frequently from ic ulcers in the throat, or sloughing in iche maligna. The deafness ensues on

the healing of the ulcers, that is, when the ob- struction is complete. The descent of a nasal polypus into the pharynx, and enlarged tonsils, have also been known to close the tube. Some- times the cavity has been found filled with mucus.

The only symptom to which medical men can advert in this case is, that when the patient blows, with his nose and mouth stopped, he does not experience that peculiar sensation, which arises from the inflation of the tympanum. He speaks only of the loss of sense, and complains of no particular symptom. In this respect the deafness differs from all other species.

Sir Astley Cooper has, however, introduced a method of relieving this previously incurable disease of the ear, by puncturing the tympanum. The effect is said to be an instantaneous resto- rative to the faculty of hearing. But there is some difficulty in keeping open the puncture, which is, in point of fact, to become, in this case, an artificial Eustachian tube. A large hole diminishes the perfection of the returning tension sense, and a small one is perpetually closing. If the membrane also be much lacerated or de- tached at its circumference, the tension will be lessened; yet even, in these cases, the patient receives an evident benefit.

The instrument, in this operation, is passed through the meatus and the anterior or inferior part of the tympanum. The position of the manubrium of the malleus demanding this pre- caution: a little crack will immediately be heard like that which is occasioned in pricking a com- mon drum, particularly if the tube be entirely closed, as the sound will then be more acute, from the rapid entrance of the air. The instru- ment must not penetrate far into the tympanum, lest it should pierce its vascular lining; and the escape of blood injure the operation.

4. We come now to the more numerous and important diseases of the internal ear.—It is evident that deafness often exists when no ap- parent cause or morbid affection appears; and that it arises from a nervous insensibility, in some cases, which no surgical aid can remove. The tympanum will appear perfect, and exercise, apparently, its usual functions; and the secretions of the meatus seem healthy. In some cases, complaint is made of great noises in the head, and, as they often correspond with the beating of the pulse, this has been traced to a peculiar perception of the pulsation of the arteries. The organic causes of some of these diseases are even traceable to the brain. Where the deafness has been preceded by local inflammation in the head, evacuations, particularly local ones, are generally prescribed; such as the application of leaches and blisters to the neck and behind the ears; and the general antiphlogistic plan should be pursued more or less, according to the nature of the pletoric symptoms.

Imperfect circulation, on the other hand, and general debility, will sometimes be the cause of deafness; when the usual stimulants of elec- tricity and galvanism have been found effec- tual, and stimulating liquids may be cautiously dropped into the ear. In the swelling, or en- largement of neighbouring parts of the head or



neck, through scrophulous or syphilitic affections, these disorders, of course, must be attended to, as the root of the disorganisation.

Mr. Saunders has described, at some length, one of the most common and important diseases, connected both with the external and internal ear; and, at the same time, one of the most common causes of deafness that occur. We mean the puriform discharge, or 'running,' as it is popularly called, from the tympanum. He considers it under three states or stages: 1. A simple puriform discharge. 2. A puriform discharge, complicated with fungi and polypi. 3. A puriform discharge, with a caries of the tympanum. The time of transition from one of these stages to another is quite uncertain. In some instances, years do not affect it; and, in others, it seems to advance, almost at once, to a carious state of the bone.

This puriform discharge from the tympanum, he insists, is a local disease, and does not depend on any disordered state of the constitution: general remedies are, therefore, inefficacious. But, as a bad state of health is unfavorable to the healing of any parts, so, in this particular complaint, any disordered condition of the habit should be corrected. The chief dependence is to be placed on direct applications to the parts affected. Injections of vitriolated zinc, acetate of lead, &c., are very efficacious in suppressing the discharge; and their effects may be aided by the external employment of blisters and setons. The fungous and polypous excrescences must be removed or destroyed by mechanical means; they are only incidental occurrences, and their removal reduces the disease to the first stage.

The deafness during the continuance of this discharge is sometimes very considerable, when the real injury which the organ has sustained is trivial. In the first stage, the mere thickening of parts, or the collection of the discharge, must impede the action of the intervening machinery between the external and internal parts of the ear; and, in the second, the mechanical obstruction of the fungous or polypi excludes the pulses of sound. On this account there is often a remarkable increase of the power of hearing, when the discharge is suppressed in the first and second stages. But as the parts are invisible, it is difficult, if not impracticable, to decide *a priori*, how far the power of hearing can be restored. This, however, is no valid objection to attempting the cure. The sense will not be rendered worse by a failure; and if the discharge should be stopped, the disease which caused it is removed, the organ safe from farther injury, and the patient freed from an offensive malady. In the last stage, the sense is almost, if not totally, destroyed; and although the discharge be stopped, the patient's hearing will be very little, if at all, improved.

When this disease is cured, the tympanum is exposed to the free ingress and egress of the air, and the mucilaginous discharge inspissates, as the mucus of the nose, by the exhalation of its watery parts. By this accident the patient's deafness increases at intervals, for which he often seeks relief. The practitioner, on sounding the ear, perceives this hardened matter; and con-

ceiving, as is really the case, that it is an augmentation of deafness, is tempted to it. But nothing stimulative, nor attempts, can be safe, for there is great danger of reproducing the discharge. Having a discharge has pre-existed, it will be to leave it to spontaneous separation.

*Anatomy and Diseases of the Ear.*

This is frequently the disorder of the ear, attended with violent inflammations of the membrane, and even with delirium; remarkable in its fluctuations, the tooth-ache is popularly but most improperly treated by similar stimulating applications. Individuals who have the care of children should be too observant of the nature of the discharges from the ear, and should consult a good medical opinion as to their treatment.

DEAL, *v. a., v. n. & n. s.* } Sax.

DEALER, *n. s.* } *deal*;

DEAL'ING, *n. s.* } Belg.

Gr. *διδωμι*, says Minsheu, to distribute. These are clearly the leading ideas in all its various applications. To divide; to distribute in portions; to dispose of; to scatter; to give to different persons; to trade; to transact business; to negotiate and mediate between different parties; taking various positions, as to deal *by*, deal *in*, and so on. As a substantive, it expresses the party divided or distributed; the act of apportioning out a pack of cards; a fir, divided, split, or sawn out from the tree; a dealer is a trader, or distributor of commodities for profit. Dealing, the trade, and hence any kind of business, or intercourse.

Deal thy bread to the hungry, and that which is cast out to thy house. *In*

And with the one lamb, a tenth deal of wool, and the fourth part of an hin of oil. *Ex*

The treacherous dealer dealeth treachery to the spoiler spoileth. *L*

He kept his patient a ful great while in houres by his magike naturel. *Chaucer. Prol. to*

Neither can the Irish, nor yet the English, think themselves wronged, nor hardly have that which is none of their own given. *Spens*

When men's affections do frame that they are in defence of error more easily than, for the most part, sound belief and maintenance of truth.

Concerning the dealings of men with government, and unto whom the execution belongeth, they have their judge, who is heaven.

But this was neither one pope's nor one prince's destiny: he must write a story that means to tell of all their dealings in

Sometimes he that deals between men raiseth his own credit with both, by pretence of interest than he hath in either.



generally better to *deal* by speech than by  
by a man himself, than by the mediation

*Id.*

with them that weep, doth ease some *deal*;  
scouted at is double death. *Shakspeare.*

Two deep enemies,  
my rest, and my sweet sleep's disturbers,  
that I would have thee *deal* upon. *Id.*

What these are!

even hard *dealings* teach them to suspect  
bluntness of others. *Id.*

A *deal* of cold business doth a man mispend  
of part of life! In scattering compliments,  
aiming visits.

*Ben Jonson.*

he hated me, I should know what passion to  
it. *Sidney.*

In the night she weeps, and her tears fall  
her cheeks along, and none of all  
gives comfort her. Perfidiously  
would have *dealt*, and now are enemy.

*Dante. On the Lamentat. of Jeremy.*

men were commanded to remain in the  
to govern the people, easy to be *dealt* with  
my stand in fear. *Hayward.*

gracious *dealings* with men, are the aids and  
is necessary to us in the pursuit of piety.

*Hammond.*

Who then shall guide  
let? Who defend? Will they not *deal*  
with his followers, than with him they *dealt*?

*Milton.*

also found, that a piece of *deal*, far thicker  
would easily imagine, being purposely inter-  
wist my eye, placed in a room, and the  
flight, was not only somewhat transparent,  
and quite through a lovely red.

*Boyle on Colours.*

did not only exercise this providence towards  
people, but he *dealt* thus also with other

*Tillotson.*

they and sell, they *deal* and traffic. *South.*  
some never so much as doubted of the  
their spiritual estate; and, if so, they have  
no more reason, a great *deal*, to doubt of it.

*Id.*

with a broken truncheon *deals* his blows.

*Dryden.*

ill *deal* the more civilly with his two poems,  
thing ill is to be spoken of the dead. *Id.*  
from the vengeance of thy darts,  
she's devoted issue felt,  
sing through the skies the feathered deaths  
is *dealt*. *Id.*

some *deals* not fairly by his own mind, nor  
is own understanding aright. *Locke.*

the fond maids in palmistry he *deals*,  
the secret which he first reveals. *Prior.*

on the merits of the cause, as well as of the  
have been thus *dealt* with by their country.

*Swift.*

How can the muse her aid impart,  
skilled in all the terms of art?

in harmonious numbers put

a *deal*, the shuffle, and the cut? *Id.*

in communion with these small *dealers* in wit and  
to give themselves a title from their first

*Id.*

picture forbids even the countenancing a  
in his cause; which is a popular way of  
justice, that some men have *dealt* in,  
that success which they proposed to  
a. *Atterbury.*

Wherever I find a great *deal* of gratitude in a poor  
man, I take it for granted there would be as much  
generosity if he were a rich man. *Pope.*

You wrote to me with the freedom of a friend,  
*dealing* plainly with me in the matter of my own  
trifles. *Id.*

Among authors, none draw upon themselves more  
displeasure than those who *deal* in political matters.  
*Addison.*

The business of mankind, in this life, being rather  
to act than to know, their portion of knowledge is  
*dealt* them accordingly. *Id.*

True logick is not that noisy thing that *deals* all in  
dispute, to which the former ages had debased it.  
*Watts's Logick.*

How Spain prepares her banners to unfold,  
And Rome *deals* out her blessings and her gold.

*Tickell.*

The nightly mallet *deals* resounding blows.

*Gay.*

Nature seldom forms an universal genius; but  
*deals* out her favours in the present state with a par-  
simonious hand. *Mason.*

I do readily admit that a great *deal* of the wars,  
seditions, and troubles of the world did formerly  
turn upon the contention between interests that went  
by the names of protestant and catholic. *Burke.*

The Goth, the Christian, Time, War, Flood, and  
Fire

Have *dealt* upon the seven-hilled city's pride;  
She saw her glories star by star expire,  
And up the steep barbarian monarchs ride,  
Where the car climbed the capitol. *Byron.*

DEAL, in carpentry, a thin kind of fir plank,  
formed by sawing the trunk of a tree into a great  
many longitudinal divisions, of greater or less  
thickness according to the purposes it is in-  
tended to serve. A good method of seasoning  
planks for deal, is to throw them into salt water  
as soon as they are sawed, and keep them there  
three or four days, frequently turning them. In  
this case they will be rendered much harder, by  
drying afterwards in the air and sun; but neither  
this, nor any other method yet known, will pre-  
serve them from shrinking. Rods of deal expand  
laterally, or cross the grain, in moist weather, and  
contract again in dry.

DEAL, in geography, a market town and sea-  
port of Kent, between Dover and Sandwich, and  
supposed to be the Dola of Nennius, and situa-  
ted on a flat and level coast. The town of Deal,  
except it may be the sea's shrinking a little from  
it, is in much the same condition in which it  
ever was, even from the earliest accounts. Dr.  
Halley has proved, in his *Miscellanea Curiosa*,  
that Julius Cæsar landed here, August 26th,  
A. A. C. 55. The great conveniency of landing  
has been of infinite service to the place; so that  
it is large and populous, divided into the upper  
and lower towns, adorned with many buildings,  
and is in effect the principal place on the Downs.  
To the south of the town is a castle, surrounded  
by a ditch; it consists chiefly of a round tower,  
containing apartments for the captain and other  
officers, and a battery. The batteries and mar-  
tello towers, constructed during the late war,  
command from the eminences, every access to the  
shore. Anchors, cables, &c., are always ready to



happy days that may come soon. I am a very  
thankful mother and to January and Feb-  
ruary, which I will suppose will very much  
of you and me. I am sure that much of  
me of December and January will be much  
of you.

[illegible]

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WASHER, L. J. 1910. In the  
and the... 5-10. The...  
which is the... of... the  
...

At the same time, in the Netherlands, the government was not supposed to provide any special funding for housing.

[illegible]

The laws and revenues, or portions, of civilized  
nations, even of your own in the islands; they were  
not only to be in concert with the policy for the same  
and, not finally for government in common accordance  
as for your law. Hence is further said in these  
pages that we are for that purpose. Bacon.

There was up the road, away with her to the country,  
and beyond a waiting Montgomery.

He will no longer carry the banner of the changed  
world.

For with time as you, it, it that's too much too  
the,

Interest of the 1st and 2nd series, the currency double.

1820. As there are two branches of ecclesiastical discipline in England, the one with the king like ours in those times Henry VIII., upon suppression of monasteries, transferred from them to the king, and the other, to the pope and chapters, as there are two sources of ecclesiastical discipline; there is the one branch which appeared in those times, in the king's chapter, the other first appearing, as much as ours in the chapters, the chapters then increased, and the monarchical authority, and giving the monarchs the means to restrain them. There is the one branch which was, by a shorter course, installed by virtue of the king's letters patent, without election or confirmation. This word is also applied to the chief officers of certain particular churches or chapters; as the dean of the king's chapel, the dean of the chapter, the dean of St. George's chapel at Windsor, and the dean of Beeking in Essex. The dean and chapter are the council of the bishop, to assist him with their advice in affairs of religion, as well as in the temporal concerns of his see. When the rest of the clergy were settled in the several parishes of each diocese, there were reserved for the celebration of divine service in the bishop's own cathedral; and the chief of them, who presided over the rest, obtained the name of dean, or dean, being, probably, at first appointed to superintend ten canons or prebendaries. The chapter, consisting of canons or prebendaries, are sometimes appointed by the king, sometimes by the bishop, and sometimes

stated to have been. The first is the removal of the 100,000 to 150,000 to the new station, and the second is the removal of the 100,000 to the new station. The first is the removal of the 100,000 to the new station, and the second is the removal of the 100,000 to the new station.

There is growing a sense of responsibility among the Iowa country of Minnesota. The last year 24,000 acres of land, a twenty-three year old, and for me with great satisfaction of the time returned the chief support of the land and the important business. It is a very serious commitment to develop a large new source of the country of the country. It is not a small thing. The little business is the

**DEAR GENTLE LADY OF MILES**  
 now is the season here, with an  
 and immediate upon. Cost and  
 chief manufacturers. It has a variety  
 and four Easter Monday in  
 18th. It has twelve miles west of  
 fifteen of Massachusetts, and 211 in  
 London.

DEAN OF GUTHRIE, is Scotland's  
judge of a quid-quo. The new  
Edinburgh, and most of the great  
Scotland, is a member of, and the  
town-council; many more in the town  
takes two votes in office.

DEAR, R. & S. ) SEE DEPT.  
 DEAR, R. & S. ) SEE DEPT. OF AGRIC.  
 DEAR, R. & S. ) SEE DEPT. OF AGRIC.  
 DEAR, R. & S. ) SEE DEPT. OF AGRIC.  
 DEAR, R. & S. ) SEE DEPT. OF AGRIC.

They do feed to meek, heavenly  
With Hercules and Hebe, and the rest  
Of Venus' downy, through her bosom

The whole seems dedicated as altar  
as to a goddess, in respect of the gr  
friendship between them two.

It is rarely brought, and then also enough with such a fine.

Your brother Glo'ster hates you  
—Oh, no, he loves me, and he holds

My brother holds you well, and in do  
hath help to effect your ensuing marriage

That kiss  
I carried from thee, dear ; and my true  
Hath virgin'd it e'er since. *Id.*

Where life is *deave*, who cares for coy  
That, spent, is counted gaine; and spar  
Bo. Hall.

O fleeting joys  
Of Paradise, dearbought with lasting  
He who hates his neighbour mortal  
too, must profess all the dearthness of fri  
readiness to serve him.



See, my *dear*,  
fish nature has adorned the year.

*Dryden.*

all *dearly* pay for faith forsworn;  
and swords, and shields, on Tyber born.

*Id.*

ought blessings happen every day,  
now not for what things to pray.

*Id.*

the pleasing moments, in absence my  
ing, either to read something from you,  
something to you; yet I never do it but  
with a sensible regret, that I cannot pour  
what my heart is so big with, which is  
just to your *dear* self (in a passionate re-  
and gratitude) than I can tell you.

*Lady Russell's Letters.*

prohibit tenants from plowing, which is  
earnest of corn.

*Swift.*

the directors cheat the South-sea year?

en'son when it sold so *dear*,  
est joy was *dearer* than the rest.

*Pope.*

*Id.*

*dear* name, she bathes in flowing tears,  
he tomb.

*Addison's Ovid.*

the time this compliment was paid me,  
much gratified by it. The approbation of  
er has been, and ever will be, *dearer* to  
most dignified and lucrative stations in

*Bishop Watson.*

hope to vex a thousand eyes!  
malice, *dearer* than the prize!

*Dr. T. Brown.*

f. Sax. *depe*, from *deþuan*, to injure.  
Bitter; hateful; grievous. An obso-  
but frequently used in this sense by

ere in this wise his lif he ledde,  
him so in pees and eke in werre,  
no man that Theseus hath *derre*.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

ah boldness brought thee to their mercies,  
in terms so bloody, and so *dear*,  
hine enemies!

*Shakespeare. Twelfth Night.*

Let us return,  
a what other means is left unto us  
e peril.

*Id. Timon.*

Some *dear* cause  
salment wrap me up a-while:  
known aright, you shall not grieve  
this acquaintance.

*Id. King Lear.*

had met my *dearest* foe in heaven,  
d seen that day.

*Id. Hamlet.*

banished son, with his *dear* sight  
and bloodless.

*Id. Titus Andronicus.*

LY, *adv.* Sax. *dearn*. Secret, or  
DAHN. Here applied to deep and  
sing.

as chanced them by a forest side  
er succour from the scorching ray,  
d a rueful voice, that *dearly* cried  
ing shrieks.

*Spenser.*

H, *n. s.* The third person, according  
ike, of *deþuan*, to injure. Minshew  
elg. *dier*, dear, and *tiit*, time: a dear  
rtid, as used with the Goths, says  
on, 'a time of dearness.' It is meta-  
plied to the mind.

In times of *dearth*, it drained much coin out of the  
kingdom, to furnish us with corn from foreign parts.

*Bacon.*

Pity the *dearth* that I have pined in,  
By longing for that food so long a time.

*Shakespeare.*

Of every tree that in the garden grows,  
Eat freely with glad heart; fear here no *dearth*.

*Milton.*

The French have brought on themselves that *dearth*  
of plot, and narrowness of imagination, which may be  
observed in all their plays.

*Dryden.*

There have been terrible years *dearths* of corn, and  
every place is strewn with beggars; but *dearths* are  
common in better climates, and our evils here lie much  
deeper.

*Swift.*

DEATH, *n. s.* Sax. *deað*; Belg. *dood*;  
DEATH-BED, Teut. *tod, todt, thot*; from  
DEATH'FUL, *adj.* Gr. *thavaroç*, says Minshew  
DEATH'LESS, *adj.* or the Heb. *דוה*, *doth*.  
DEATH-LIKE, } The cessation or extinction  
DEATH'S-DOOR, } of life; the state of the  
DEATH'S-HEAD, } dead; the immediate cause  
DEATH'S-MAN, } or causer of death; the  
DEATH-WATCH. } final perdition of wicked

men. A death's man is a public executioner:  
death's door, a near approach to death. A death-  
watch is an insect making a ticking noise, like a  
watch, and supposed to presage death. The  
other compounds seem to require no explana-  
tion.

For the sorrows that is aftr God worchith penance  
into stidefast heelte, but sorrow of the worlde worchith  
*death*.

*Wiclif. 2 Cor. vii.*

They cried out, and said, O thou man of God, there  
is *death* in the pot.

*2 Kings iv. 40.*

He is the mediator of the New Testament, that by  
means of *death*, for the redemption of the transgre-  
ssions, they which are called might receive the promise  
of eternal inheritance.

*Heb. ix. 15.*

Thou shalt die the *deaths* of them that are slain in  
the midst of the seas.

*Ezekiel xxviii. 8.*

We pray that God will keep us from all sin and  
wickedness, from our ghostly enemy, and from ever-  
lasting *death*.

*Church Catechism.*

They were adradde of him as of the *death*.  
His wanning was ful fayre upon an *heth*.

*Chaucer. Prol. to Cant. Tales.*

He answered naught, but in a traunce still lay,  
And on those guileful dazed eyes of his  
The cloude of *death* did sit.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

As in manifesting the sweet influence of his mercy,  
on the severe stroke of his justice; so in this, not to  
suffer a man of *death* to live.

*Bacon.*

Time itself, under the *deathful* shade of whose  
wings all things wither, hath wasted that lively virtue  
of nature in man, and beasts, and plants.

*Raleigh.*

In swinish sleep

Their drenched natures lie, as in a *death*.

*Shakespeare.*

I had rather be married to a *death's head*, with a  
bone in his mouth, than to either of these.

*Id.*

He's dead; I'm only sorry

He had no other *deathman*.

*Id.*

*Death*, a necessary end,

Will come when it will come.

*Id. Julius Caesar.*



Sweet soul, take heed, take heed of perjury;  
Thou art on thy *death-bed*. *Id. Othello.*

Life, by this *death* abled, shall controll  
*Death*, whom thy *death* slew; nor shall to me  
Fear of first or last *death* bring miserie,  
If in thy life's book my name thou enroll.

*Donne. Divine Poems.*

There was a poor young woman, that had brought  
herself even to *death's* door with grief for her sick  
husband. *L' Estrange.*

No blacks, nor soul-bells, nor *death's-heads* on our  
rings, nor funeral sermons, nor tombs, nor epitaphs,  
can fix our hearts enough upon our frail and miserable  
condition. *Bishop Hall. Sermon 30.*

On seas, on earth, and all that in them dwell,  
A *deathlike* quiet and deep silence fell. *Waller.*

Blood, death, and *deathful* deeds, are in that noise,  
Ruin, destruction at the utmost point. *Milton.*

A *deathlike* sleep!

A gentle wafting to immortal life! *Id.*

God hath only immortality, though angels and hu-  
man souls be *deathless*. *Boyle.*

I myself knew a person of great sanctity, who was  
afflicted to *death's-door* with a vomiting.

*Taylor's Worthy Communicant.*

These are such things as a man shall remember  
with joy upon his *death-bed*; such as shall cheer and  
warm his heart, even in that last and bitter agony.

*South's Sermons.*

He must his acts reveal,  
From the first moment of his vital breath,  
To his last hour of unrepenting *death*. *Dryden.*  
Then round our *death-bed* every friend should run,  
And joy us of our conquest early won. *Id. Fables.*

Your cruelty was such, as you would spare his life  
for many *deathful* torments. *Sidney.*

Faith and hope themselves shall die,  
While *deathless* charity remains. *Prior.*

A *death-bed* repentance ought not indeed to be ne-  
glected, because it is the last thing that we can do.

*Atterbury.*

Of, as in airy rings they skim the heath,  
The clam'rous lapwings feel the leaden *death*. *Pope.*

Black Melancholy sits, and round her throws  
A *death-like* slumber, and a dread repose. *Id.*

These eyes behold  
The *deathful* scene; princes on princes rolled. *Id.*

Misers are muckworms, silkworms beaus,  
And *deathwatches* physicians. *Id.*

He caught his *death* the last county-sessions, where  
he would go to see justice done to a poor widow-woman.

*Addison.*

The solemn *deathwatch* clicked the hour she died.

*Gay.*

We learn to presage approaching death in a family  
by ravens, and little worms, which we therefore call  
a *deathwatch*. *Watts.*

*Death* opens the gate of fame, and shuts the gate  
of envy after it,—it unlooses the chain of the captive,  
and puts the bondsman's task into another man's  
hands. *Sterne.*

Heavens! on my sight what sanguine colours  
blaze!

Spain's *deathless* shame! the crimes of modern days  
When avarice, shrouded in religion's robe,  
Sailed to the west, and slaughtered half the globe.

*Darwin.*

Ever since the passing of the acts, which punish  
with *death*, the stealing in shops, or houses, or on  
board ships, property of certain stated values, juries  
have, from motives of humanity, been in the habit of

frequently finding by their verdicts, that  
stolen were worth much less than had  
proved. *Sir I.*

Horribly beautiful! but on the verge  
From side to side, beneath the glittering  
An Iris sits, amidst the infernal surge,  
Like Hope upon a *death-bed*, and, unwo  
Its steady dyes, while all around is tort  
By the distracted waters.

DEATH is generally considered as t  
tion of the soul from the body; in w  
it stands opposed to life, which consis  
union. Physicians have defined de  
total stoppage of the circulation of t  
and a cessation of the animal and vital  
consequent thereon, as respiration,  
&c. The signs of death are in many c  
uncertain. If we consult what Wi  
Bruchier have said on this subject, w  
convinced, that between life and death  
is so very undistinguishable, that all t  
of art can scarcely determine where the  
and the other begins. The color of t  
the warmth of the body, and the supp  
the joints, are but uncertain signs of  
subsisting; while, on the contrary, the  
of the complexion, the coldness of the  
stiffness of the extremities, the cessati  
motion, and the total insensibility of  
are but uncertain marks of death begu  
same manner also, with regard to t  
breathing; these motions are often so  
it is impossible to perceive them. T  
to be a caution against hasty burials,  
in cases of sudden death, drowning,  
DROWNING.

DEATH, in law. The law makes a c  
between natural and civil death. 1. C  
takes place, where a person is not actu  
but adjudged so by law. Thus, if an  
for whose life an estate is granted, re  
yond sea, or is otherwise absent, sev  
and no proof of his being alive, he st  
counted naturally dead. 2. Natu  
means a person actually dead.

DEATH-WATCH, in natural history,  
of fermes, so called on account of an  
tion, that its beating or ticking in a s  
is a sure sign of death. See FERMES.

DEAURATE, *r. u. & part. pass.*

DEAURATION, *n. s.* } ro  
gilded.

And while the twilight and the rowis re  
Of Phœbus' light were *deaurat* alike.

*Chaucer. Comp. of Blac*

DEBACCHATION, *n. s.* Lat. *de*  
A raging; a madness.

DEBARR, *r. a.* From *de* and *bar*.  
To exclude; to preclude; to shut out  
thing; to hinder.

The same boats and the same building  
in countries *debarred* from all commerce by  
mountains, lakes, and deserts. *Raleig*

Not so strictly hath our Lord imposed  
labour, as to *debar* us when we need  
Refreshment, whether food, or talk betw  
Food of the mind.

are client's poverty  
turney of his wanted fee?

*Bishop Hall's Satires*, v. 3.

aided to make us easy, is employed in  
ad fotters upon us, in *debarring* us of  
d in crossing our most reasonable de-

*Swift*.

v. a. Lat. from *de* and *barba*,  
his beard.

v. a. & n. Fr. *debarquer*. To dis-  
EMBARK. Also to strip a tree of

it appears that the branches of *de*-  
a produce fewer leaf-buds, and more  
high last circumstance I suppose must  
ir being sooner or later *debarked* in the

*Darwin*.

v. a. } Old Fr. *debas*, from *de*  
n. s. } and *base*. See *BASE*. To  
NT. } reduce, degrade, adulterate,  
ngth.

of taking God's name in vain, to *de*-  
th such frivolous disputes. *Hooker*.

chased and hard, no stone

ugh to touch them on. *Hudibras*.

f the coin, which was much adulterated  
the times and troubles of king Stephen

*Hale*.

ided to teach, that pleasure and sen-  
sation into beasts. *Brown on the Odyssey*.

hed *debasement* of that sprightly faculty,  
us to be made the interpreter to a goat

*Government of the Tongue*.

ge possessions has not leisure to consi-  
derable expense, and will not *debase* him-  
agement of every trifle. *Dryden*.

others, yet himself not free;

t by power, *debased* by dignity. *Id.*

you raise silver, you *debase* gold; for  
condition of two things put in opposite  
h as the one rises, the other falls.

*Locke*.

be careful of not letting his subjects  
and betray him into a meanness of ex-

*Addison*.

v. a., v. n. & n. s. } Fr. *debattre*;  
L. adj. } Ital. *debatire*,  
L. } from Lat. *ba-*  
L. } *tuo*, to beat.

NT. } To controvert,  
nd for: as a neuter verb to delibe-  
u or upon); to dispute. Debate-

table; liable or likely to be con-  
debate, a formal and personal dis-  
roversy.

pride the bodi ghyunye more wors-  
om it faillide, that *debate* be not in the

*Wiclif*, 1 Cor 12.

use with thy neighbour himself, and  
ecret to another. *Proverbs* xxv. 9.

r Hoste, A, Sire, ye shuld ben hende,  
a man of your estat,  
e will have no *debat*.

*Chaucer*, *Cant. Tales*.

Your several suits  
considered and *debated* on.

*Shakespeare*.

f heaven doth give successful end

at bleedeth at our doors,

with lead on to higher fields,

swords but what are sanctified. *Id.*

Without *debatement* further, more or less,

He should the bearers put to sudden death. *Id.*

Have I not vowed for slunning such *debate*,

(Pardon ye Satyres), to degenerate?

And, wading low in this plebeian lake,

That no salt wave shall froath upon my backe.

*Bp. Hall*, *Satires*, iv. 4.

The French requested, that the *debatable* ground,  
and the Scottish hostages, might be restored to the  
Scots. *Hayward*.

He could not *debate* any thing without some com-  
motion, even when the argument was not of moment.

*Clarendon*.

'Tis thine to ruin realms, o'erturn a state;  
Betwixt the dearest friends to raise *debate*. *Dryden*.

A way that men ordinarily use, to force others to  
submit to their judgments, and receive their opinion  
in *debate*, is to require the adversary to admit what  
they alledge as a proof, or to assign a better. *Locke*.

He presents that great soul *debating* upon the sub-  
ject of life and death with his intimate friends.

*Tatler*.

It is to diffuse a light over the understanding, in  
our enquiries after truth, and not to furnish the tongue  
with *debate* and controversy. *Watts's Logic*.

It is knowledge and experience that make a *debater*.  
*Chesterfield*.

DEBAUCH', v. a. & n. s. } Fr. *desbaucher*;  
DEBAUCHEE', n. s. } from Lat. *deba-*  
DEBAUCHER, } chor, to offer sa-  
DEBAUCHERY, } crifice to Bacchus:  
DEBAUCHMENT. } anciently written

in our language *deboise* and *debosh*. To corrupt;  
to violate; to vitiate, whether by lewdness or  
intemperance: a fit or habit of intemperance or  
lewdness. Debauchery, the constant practice of  
them. A debauchee is one who is himself de-  
voted to lewdness or excess; a debaucher, one  
who corrupts others, or seduces them into vice.

Here do you keep a hundred knights and squires  
Men so disordered, so *debauched*, and bold,  
That this our court, infected with their manners,  
Shews like a riotous inn. *Shakespeare*, *King Lear*.

Reason once *debauched*, is worse than brutishness.

*Bp. Hall*, *Contemplations*.

They told them ancient stories of the ravishment  
of chaste maidens, or the *debauchment* of nations, or  
the extreme poverty of learned persons.

*Taylor's Rule of Holy Living*.

This it is to counsel things that are unjust; first, to  
*debauch* a king to break his laws, and then to seek  
protection. *Dryden's Spanish Friar*.

The first physicians by *debauch* were made;

Excess began, and sloth sustains, the trade.

*Dryden*.

A man must have got his conscience thoroughly  
*debauched* and hardened, before he can arrive to the  
height of sin. *South*.

Could we but prevail with the greatest *debauchees*  
among us to change their lives, we should find it no  
very hard matter to change their judgments. *Id.*

Oppose vices by their contrary virtues; hypocrisy  
by sober piety, and *debauchery* by temperance.

*Spratt*.

He will for some time contain himself within the  
bounds of sobriety; till within a little while he reco-  
vers his former *debauch*, and is well again, and then  
his appetite returns. *Calamy*.

No man's reason did ever dictate to him, that it is  
reasonable for him to *debauch* himself by intemperance  
and brutish sensuality. *Tillotson*.



*Debauched* from nature, how can we relish her genuine productions? As well might a man distinguish objects through the medium of a prism, that presents nothing but a variety of colours to the eye, or a maid pining in the green sickness prefer a biscuit to a cinder. *Smollet.*

DEBE'L, *v. a.* } Lat. *debello*. To conquer; to overcome in  
DEBE'LLATE, *v. a.* } war. Obsolete.  
DEBELLA'TION, *n. s.*

It doth notably set forth the consent of all nations and ages, in the approbation of the extirpating and *debelling* of giants, monsters, and foreign tyrants, not only as lawful, but as meritorious even of divine honour. *Bacon's Holy War.*

Him long of old

Thou didst *debel*, and down from heaven cast  
With all his army. *Milton.*

DEBENTURE, *n. s.* } Lat. *debentur*, of  
DEBENTURED, *part.* } *debeo*, to owe. A note of debt, generally now used respecting goods entitled to an allowance at the custom-house.

You modern wits, should each man bring his claim,  
Have desperate *debentures* on your fame;  
And little would be left you, I'm afraid,  
If all your debts to Greece and Rome were paid. *Swift.*

DEBENTURE is used at the custom-house for a kind of certificate, signed by the officers of the customs, which entitles a merchant, exporting goods, to the receipt of a bounty or draw back. The forms of debentures vary according to the merchandise exported.

DEBILITATE, *v. a.* } Lat. *debilito*, of *de*  
DEB'ILE, *adj.* } and *habilis*, fit, pro-  
DEBILITA'TION, *n. s.* } per. To weaken; make  
DEB'ILITY, *n. s.* } unfit for exertion; to en-  
masculate. *Debile* is weak, enfeebled. The substantives express a confirmed or habitual state of weakness.

I have not washed my nose that bled,  
Or foiled some *debile* wretch, which without note  
There's many else have done. *Shakspeare.*

Methinks I am partaker of thy passion,  
And in thy case do glass mine own *debility*. *Sidney.*

The weakness cannot return any thing of strength, honour, or safety to the head, but a *debilitation* and ruin. *King Charles.*

The spirits being rendered languid, are incapable of purifying the blood, and *debilitated* in attracting nutriment. *Harvey on Consumptions.*

In the lust of the eye, the lust of the flesh, and the pride of life, they seemed as weakly to fail as their *debilitated* posterity ever after. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

Aliment too vaporous or perspirable will subject it to the inconveniences of too strong a perspiration, which are *debility*, faintness, and sometimes sudden death. *Arbuthnot.*

Thus Conscience pleads her cause within the breast,  
Though long rebelled against, not yet suppressed,  
And calls a creature formed for God alone,  
For Heaven's high purposes, and not his own,  
Calls him away from selfish ends and aims,  
From what *debilitates* and what inflames. *Cowper. Retirement.*

DEBIR, in ancient geography, a city of Palestine, in the southern part of the tribe of Judah, not far from Hebron. It is called Kirjath-sepher, and Kirjath-sanna. Josh. xv. 15, 49.

DE-BOIS-BLANC, an island of the States, belonging to the north-western part of which was a voluntary gift of the Chippewas, at the treaty of peace, concluded by general Wayne, at Greenville, in 1795.

DEB'ONAIR, *adj.* } Fr. *debonnaire*  
DEBONAIR'LY, *adv.* } bably from *de bono*  
Civil; gentle; courteous; well-bred; gay.

He, in the first flowre of my freshest age,  
Betrothed me unto the only haire  
Of a most mighty king, most rich and sage;  
Was never prince so faithful and so faire,  
Was never prince so meek and *debonnaire*. *Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

Crying, let be that lady *debonair*.

Zephyr met her once a-maying;  
Filled her with thee, a daughter fair,  
So buxom, blithe, and *debonair*.

The nature of the one is *debonair* and agreeable to the other, retired and supercilious; the one is cheerful and saturnaline. *Hovell's Vocal.*

And she that was not only passing fair,  
But was withal discreet and *debonair*,  
Resolved the passive doctrine to fulfil.

DEBORAH, דְּבוּרָה, Heb.; i.e. a nurse of Rebecca, whom she accompanied to Padanaram, and survived. She lived in family to an advanced age, and died near where she was buried under an oak xxiv. 59. xxxv. 8.

DEBORAH, a prophetess, poetess, and Israel, who excited Barak to deliver his people from the oppressions of Jabin. See Her message to Barak, her reproof of cowardice, and her song upon the victory recorded in Judges iv. & v. She died about A. M. 2651.

DEBRUISED, in heraldry, a term peculiar to the English, by which is intimated the restraint of any animal, debarred of its natural freedom, by any of the ordinaries being laid over it. *Argent*, a lion rampant; or *debruised* by a fesse; *gules* a chevron. *Charleston.*

DEBT, *n. s.* } Old Fr. *debte*;  
DEBT'ED, *part.* } *bitum*, of *debeo*,  
DEBT'OR, *n. s. & adj.* } That which is  
DEBT-ROLL, *n. s.* } due to another;

tion. *Debted* is used by Shakspeare for a modern word indebted. A debtor is owed money or any other obligation.

I am *debtor* both to the Greeks and to the Latins, both to the wise and to the unwise. *Rom.*

This worthy man ful wel his wit besette;  
Ther wiste no wight that he was in *dette*,  
So stedfastly dide he his governance  
With his bargeines and with his cheersance. *Chaucer. Prolog.*



one that died greatly in debt: Well, says gone, then he hath carried five hundred with him into the other world.

*Bacon's Apophthegms.*

my lord, has paid a soldier's debt;

but till he was a man,

he died. *Shakespeare. Macbeth.*

amount to three odd ducats more

I debited to this gentleman. *Shakespeare.*

your latter hazard back again,

dearly rest debtor for the first. *Id.*

merchant's debt-rolle new defac't,

cracked manour crosst his books at last.

*Bp. Hall's Satires, iv. 1.*

great loss a sea of tears is due;

whole debt not to be paid by you.

*Waller.*

tion of imperial grandeur is imitated by all subordinate sorts of it, as if it were a mirror. They must be cheated of a third of estates; two other thirds they must ex-  
pense; so that they remain debtors for all the provisions of life, and have no way to satisfy, but out of the succours and supplies

*Cowley.*

with, a thousand pounds in debt,

his horse, and in a mighty fret

his day and night.

*Swift.*

ist is but a mad ridiculous derider of piety; critic makes a sober jest of God and religion; it is easier to be upon his knees than to do action: like an impudent debtor, who dares to talk familiarly to his creditor, with-  
out what he owes. *Pope.*

look upon the debtor side, I find such in-  
conveniences, that I want arithmetick to cast  
but when I look upon the creditor side, I  
see but blank paper. *Addison.*

If he his ample palm

happily on ill-fated shoulder lay

down, strait his body, to the touch

of his, as whilom knights were wont,

an enchanted castle is conveyed. *Philips.*

who sleeps too much, borrow the pillow of

*A Spanish Proverb, quoted by Johnson.*

NATIONAL. See FUNDS, and NA-  
TIONAL.

DEBILITATION, *n. s.* Lat. *debilitatio*. A  
debility or weakening.

DEBILITATED, *adj.* Lat. *debilitatus*.  
Weakened, or cut off.

DEC, *n. s.* } Gr. *δεκα*; Lat. *decas*.

*n. s.* } The sum of ten; a num-

bering ten. A decagon (adding *γωνια*,

is a figure in plane geometry, contain-

ing ten angles.

is not only out in the number of some

decades of a few years, but might be wide

decades, and divers decades of years.

*Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

cycles and periods of years; as, decades

and chiliads, chiefly for the use of compu-

tation, chronology, and astronomy.

*Holder on Time.*

is by ten; whole decades, when they dine,

as Trojan slave to pour the wine. *Pope.*

DECADENCE, *n. s.* Fr. *decadence*. Decay;

DECAY.

DECAGYNIA, from *δεκα*, ten, and *γυνη*, a woman, an order in the class decandria, consist-  
ing of plants, whose flowers are furnished with  
ten stamina, and the same number of styles. See  
BOTANY.

DECALOGUE, *n. s.* Gr. *δεκαλογος*. The  
ten commandments given by God to Moses.

The commands of God are clearly revealed both in  
the decalogue and other parts of sacred writ.

*Hammond.*

DECALOGUE, in theology, the ten command-  
ments, which were engraved by God on two  
tables of stone. The Jews, by way of eminence,  
call these commandments, after Deut. x. 4, the  
ten words, from whence they had afterwards the  
name of decalogue. The church of Rome has,  
in some catechisms, united the second command-  
ment, in an abridged form, with the first; and,  
to make their number complete, has divided the  
tenth into two. The reason is obvious. See  
Stillingfleet's Works, vol. vi. It should, in fair-  
ness, however, be added, that Jews, as well as  
Christians, have divided the commandments dif-  
ferently.

DECA'MP, *v. n.* } Fr. *decamper*. To shift

DECA'MPMENT, *n. s.* } the camp; to move off.

The act of shifting the camp.

The king of Portugal would decamp on the twenty-  
fourth in order to march upon the enemy. *Tatler.*

DECANT, *v. a.* } Fr. *decanter*; Lat. *de-*

DECA'NTER, *n. s.* } *canto*. To pour off gently

DECANTA'TION, } by inclination. A decanter

is a vessel made for receiving wine perfectly  
clear.

Take aqua fortis and dissolve it in ordinary coined  
silver, and pour the coloured solution into twelve  
times as much fair water, and then decant or filtrate  
the mixture, that it may be very clear. *Boyle.*

They attend him daily as their chief,

Decant his wine, and carve his beef. *Swift.*

DECANUS, in Roman antiquity, an officer  
who presided over the ten officers, and was head  
of the contubernium, or serjeant of a file of  
soldiers.

DECA'PITATE, *v. a.* } Lat. *decapito*. To

DECAPITATION, *n. s.* } behead. A behead-

ing, or DECOLLATION, which see.

DECAPOLIS, in ancient geography, a dis-  
trict beyond Jordan, almost wholly belonging to  
the half tribe of Manasseh; before the captivity,  
called Bethsan; but after, occupied by heathens.  
It comprises, as the name denotes, ten principal  
cities on the other side of the Jordan, except  
Scythopolis, which stood on this side, but its  
territory lay on the other.

DECA'PROTI, DECEMPRIMI, in Roman an-  
tiquity, officers for gathering the taxes. The de-  
caproti were also obliged to pay for the dead, or  
to answer to the emperor, for the quota parts of  
such as died out of their own estates.

DECASPERMUM, in botany, a genus of the  
monogynia order and icosandria class of plants:  
CAL. perianth turbinated, quinquefid at the apex:  
COR. five roundish petals. The stamina are  
many filiform filaments, a little shorter than the  
corolla: PERICARP. is a dry, globular, decemlo-  
cular berry, with solitary egg-shaped seeds.

DECASTYLE, in the ancient architecture, a  
building, with an ordnance of ten columns in  
front, as the temple of Jupiter Olympus was.



DECAY, *v. a.*, & *n.* & *n. s.* } *Fr. decheoir*;  
 DECAYER, *n. s.* } *from Lat. de*  
*and cado.* To impair; to make less in value; to  
 decline; to lose excellence; to be impaired.

And if thy brother be waxen poor, and fallen in  
*decay* with thee, then thou shalt relieve him.

*Levit. xxv. 35.*

Cut off a stock of a tree, and lay that which you  
 cut off to putrefy, to see whether it will *decay* the rest  
 of the stock.

*Bacon.*

Infirmity, that *decays* the wise, doth ever make  
 better the fool.

*Shakespeare.*

I am the very man

That, from your first of difference and *decay*,

Have followed your sad steps. *Id. King Lear.*

Your water is a sore *decayer* of your whorson dead  
 body.

*Id. Hamlet.*

She has been a fine lady, and paints and hides  
 Her *decays* very well.

*Ben Jonson.*

And those *decays*, to speak the naked truth,

Through the defects of age, were crimes of youth.

*Denham.*

He was of a very small and *decayed* fortune, and  
 of no good education.

*Clarendon.*

In Spain our springs, like old men's children, be  
*Decayed* and withered from their infancy.

*Dryden.*

The monarch oak,

Three centuries he grows, and three he stays

Supreme in state, and in three more *decays*.

*Dryden.*

By reason of the tenacity of fluids, and attrition of  
 their parts, and the weakness of elasticity in solids,  
 motion is much more apt to be lost than got, and is  
 always upon the *decay*.

*Newton.*

Each may feel increases and *decays*,  
 And see now clearer and now darker days.

*Pope.*

Now kindred merit fills the sable bier,  
 Now lacerated friendship claims a tear;  
 Year chases year, *decay* pursues *decay*;  
 Still drops some joy from withering life away.

*Johnson. Vanity of Human Wishes.*

Alas! the lofty city! and alas!  
 The trebly hundred triumphs! and the day  
 When Brutus made the dagger's edge surpass  
 The conqueror's sword in hearing fame away!  
 Alas, for Tully's voice, and Virgil's lay,  
 And Livy's pictured page!—but these shall be  
 Her resurrection; all beside—*decay*.

*Byron*

DECCAN, or the Country of the South, an  
 extensive region of Hindostan, bounded on the  
 north by the Narbuddah, and on the south by the  
 Krishna, or Kistnah river, extending across the  
 peninsula from sea to sea. It was possessed,  
 in former times, by the rajah of Telingana, and  
 the Hindoo princes, and first invaded by the  
 Mahommedans in 1293. They plundered the  
 city of Deoghir, now called Dowlatabad, and the  
 Tagara of Ptolemy. In the year 1306 the city  
 and fortress were taken, and the rajah, Ram Deo,  
 carried to Delhi. In 1323, Warunkul, the ca-  
 pital of Telingana, was also taken by the Ma-  
 hommedans, and the Hindoo dynasty overthrown.  
 For some time the Deccan remained subject to  
 Delhi, till the governor having rebelled, laid the  
 foundation of an independent state, under the  
 title of the Bhamenee sultans, whose capital was  
 Aalberga; this was in 1347. The Bhamenee  
 dynasty, consisting of fourteen persons, conti-  
 nued till the year 1518. On the dissolution of  
 this empire, the Deccan was subdivided into the  
 five following states: the Adil Shahy, or Beja-

pore kingdom; the Kootub Shahy, or  
 the Nizam Shahy, or Ahmednagar  
 maud Shahy, or Berar; the Beered  
 Beeder.

During the reign of Aurungzebe  
 states were reduced, and the Deccan  
 nexed to the kingdom of Delhi. It  
 divided into six governments, viz.  
 Ahmednagar, Beeder, Golconda, Be-  
 Berar. In subsequent reigns, these g-  
 came under the superintendence of  
 who, taking advantage of the weak  
 court of Delhi, after the Persian in  
 1739, threw off his allegiance, becam-  
 dent, and fixed his court at Hydera-  
 Mahrattas, however, were now rising  
 and the nizam was obliged to cede  
 territories now constituting the do-  
 the peishwa. See HINDOSTAN.

DECEASE, *v. n.* & *n. s.* *Lat. deced-*  
*from de and cado,* to fall. To die; to  
 death.

He tells us Arthur is *deceased* to—

Lands are by human law, in some plac-  
 owner's *decease*, divided unto all his  
 some, all descendeth to the eldest son.

You shall die

Twice now, where others, that mortal  
 In her fair arms holds, shall but once

His latest victories still thickest came,  
 As, near the centre, motion doth increas-  
 Till he, pressed down by his own weigh-  
 Did, like the vestal, under spoils *decease*.

DECEIT, *n. s.*

*Old Fr. de*

DECEITFUL, *adj.*

*deceptus;*

DECEITFULLY, *adv.*

*capió, capto*

DECEITFULNESS, *n. s.*

*A taking b*

fallacy; a cheat: deceitful is, fraudulent  
 degree: deceitfulness, tendency to de-

My lips shall not speak wickedness, nor  
 utter *deceit*.

The care of this world, and the *deceit*  
 riches, choke the word, and he becometh

His demand

Springs not from Edward's well-meant hu-  
 But from *deceit*, bred by necessity.

I grant him blood

Luxurious, avaricious, false, *deceitful*.

Exercise of form may be *deceitfully* di-  
 course.

Those, which are plain-hearted in them-  
 the bitterest enemies to *deceit* in others.

*Bp. Hall's Cont.*

Outward appearances are *deceitful* gu-  
 judgment, or affections.

The lovely young Lavinia once had f-  
 And fortune smiled, *deceitful* on her bi-

Human nature is the same now as it wa-  
 heart as *deceitful*; and the necessity of  
 knowing, and keeping it, the same.

He, who still expects *deceit*,

Only teaches how to cheat. *Johnson*

A true artist should put a generous  
 spectators, and effect the noblest designs b  
 thods.



IVE, *v. a.*ABLE, *adj.*VABLENESS, *n. s.*

VER,

ING, *part.*

hence to mislead, guide into error, by design or otherwise. Deceivable is liable for fraudulent, and for being liable regularly exposed to fraud. Deceivable expresses both artfulness, and a liable to be deceived.

gaze through occasional taken by the com-  
ment *disregard* me, and by that it slough me.

*Wiclif. Romayne vii.*

born about with ech wynd of techyng in  
ardness of men in sutil witt to the *dissegu-*  
rower.

*Id. Effesies 4.*

all deceivableness of unrighteousness

*2 Tim. ii. 10.*

ing themselves with their own *deceivings*,  
by feast with you.

*2 Pet. ii. 13.*

to wonder thing though it be so ;

jealous can *deceiven* thee,

is yet can I more craft than he.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

is to be forborne in consumptions, for that  
of the wine prey upon the viscid juice of  
intercommon with the spirits of the body,  
mine and rob them of their nourishment.

*Bacon.*

not to consider of deformity, not as a sign,  
more *deceivable*, but as a cause which seldom  
the effect.

*Id.*

Perkin's dismissal out of France, they in-  
it not as if he were detected for a counter-  
er.

*Id.*

no more, ladies, sigh no more ;

ten were *deceivers* ever :

foot in sea, and one on shore ;

to one thing constant never.

*Shakespeare.*

are worthy to be *deceived* that value things as  
a.

*Bishop Hall. Contemplations.*

ceived nothing but fair promises, which  
deceivable.

*Hayward.*

O ever failing trust

strength ! and oh, what not in man

is and vain !

*Milton.*

was not only *deceivable* in his integrity, but  
els of light in all their clarity.

*Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

we happy he that loves not, lives !

neither hope nor fear *deceives*

those who no hostage gives.

*Denham.*

named a feeble cry with trembling notes,

weak voice *deceived* their gasping throats.

*Dryden.*

voices, actions, or gestures, which men have  
sly compact agreed to make the instruments of  
ing their thoughts one to another, are not the  
instruments of *deceiving*, so as to denominate  
ing them a liar or *deceiver*.

*South.*

have been *deceived* into an opinion, that  
a divine right of primogeniture to both estate  
er.

*Locke.*

ten the heart-expanding bowl,

all the kind *deceivers* of the soul.

*Pope.*

at has a great patron, has the advantage of  
gence and *deceivableness*.

*Government of the Tongue.*

out disguising our motives, we may impose  
on ; but at the same time we impose upon our  
and, whilst we are *deceiving* others, our own

hearts *deceive* us : and, of all impostures, self-deception  
is the most dangerous, because least suspected.

*Mason.*

I have not loved the world, nor the world me ;  
But let us part fair foes : I do believe,  
Though I have found them not, that there may be  
Words which are things,—hopes which will not *de-*  
*ceive*,

And virtues which are merciful, nor weave  
Snares for the failing.

*Byron.*

DECEMBER, *n. s.* Lat. *december*. The last  
month of the year, named *december*, or the  
tenth month, when the year began in March.

What should we speak of

When we are old as you ? When we shall hear

The rain and wind beat dark *December*. *Shakespeare.*

Men are April when they woo, and *December* when  
they wed.

*Id. As You Like It.*

DECEMBER is the month wherein the sun en-  
ters the tropic of Capricorn, and makes the  
winter solstice. Among the ancient Romans,  
December was under the protection of Vesta.  
Romulus assigned it thirty days, Numa reduced  
it to twenty-nine, which Julius Caesar increased  
to thirty-one. In the reign of Commodus this  
month was called, by way of flattery, Amazonius,  
in honor of a courtesan, whom that prince pas-  
sionately loved, and had painted like an Ama-  
zon ; but this name died with that tyrant. At  
the end of December they had the juveniles  
ludi ; and the country people kept the feast of  
the goddess Vacuna in the fields, having then  
gathered in their fruits, and sown their corn ;  
whence seems to be derived our popular festival  
called harvest-home.

DECEMPEDA, *δεκαπους*, from *decem*, ten,  
and *pes*, a foot ; ten-foot rod, an instrument  
used by the ancients in measuring. It was a  
rule, or rod, divided into ten feet ; the foot was  
subdivided into twelve inches, and each inch  
into ten digits. The decempeda was used both  
in measuring land, like the chain among us ; and  
by architects, to give the proper dimensions and  
proportions to the parts of their buildings, which  
use it still retains.

DECEMPEDAL, *adj.* Lat. *decempeda* ; from  
Gr. *δεκα*. Ten feet in length.

DECEMVIRI, ten magistrates of absolute  
authority among the Romans. The privileges  
of the patricians raised dissatisfaction among the  
plebeians ; who, though freed from the power of  
the Tarquins, still saw that the administration of  
justice depended upon the will and caprice of  
their superiors ; and it was at length agreed  
that ten new magistrates, called decemvir,  
should be elected from the senate, to put the  
project into execution. Their power was abso-  
lute, all other offices ceased after their electi-  
on, and they presided over the city with regal au-  
thority. They were invested with the badges of  
the consul, in the enjoyment of which they suc-  
ceeded by turns ; and only one was preceded by  
the fasces, and had the power of assembling the  
senate, and confirming decrees. The first de-  
cemviri were, Appius Claudius, T. Genucius,  
P. Sextus, Sp. Veturius, C. Julius, A. Manlius,  
Ser. Sulpitius, Pluricius, T. Romulus, and Sp.  
Posthumius ; A.U.C. 302. Under them the



laws, which had been exposed to public view, were publicly approved of as constitutional, and ratified by the priests and augurs, in the most solemn manner. They were ten in number, and were engraved on tables of brass; two were afterwards added, whence they were called the laws of the twelve tables, *leges XII tabularum*, and *leges decemvirales*. The decemviral power, which was at first beheld by all ranks of people with the greatest satisfaction, was continued; but in the third year after their creation, the decemviri became odious on account of their tyranny; and the attempt of Ap. Claudius to ravish Virginia totally abolished the office. Consuls were again appointed, and tranquillity re-established in the state. There were other officers in Rome called decemviri, who were originally appointed in the absence of the prætor, to administer justice. Their appointment became afterwards necessary, and they generally assisted at sales, called *subhastationes*, because a spear, *hasta*, was fixed at the door of the place where the goods were exposed to sale. They were called decemviri *litibus judicandis*. The officers, whom Tarquin appointed to guard the Sybilline books, were also called decemviri. They were originally two in number, called *duumviri*, till A. U. C. 388, when their number was increased to ten, five of whom were chosen from the plebeians and five from the patricians. Sylla increased their number to fifteen, hence called *quindecimviri*.

DE'CENCE, or } Fr. *decence*; Lat. *de-*  
DE'CENCY, *n. s.* } *cent*, it becometh. Pro-  
DE'CENT, *adj.* } priety of form or man-  
DE'CENTLY, *adv.* } ner, principally the lat-  
ter; modesty. Decent is, becoming; fit; suit-  
able; and hence sometimes applied to that  
which is grave or formal.

Come, pensive nun, devout and pure,  
Sober, stedfast, and demure,  
All in a robe of darkest grain  
Flowing with majestick train,  
And sable stole of Cyprus lawn  
O'er the decent shoulders drawn. Milton.

Those thousand *decencies* that daily flow  
From all her words and actions. Id.

They could not *decently* refuse assistance to a per-  
son, who had punished those who had insulted their  
relation. Broome.

And must I own, she said, my secret smart,  
What with more *decence* were in silence kept? Dryden.

Since there must be ornaments both in painting  
and poetry, if they are not necessary, they must  
at least be *decent*; that is, in their due place, and but  
moderately used. Id.

Past hope of safety, 'twas his latest care,  
Like falling Cæsar, *decently* to die. Id.

The consideration immediately subsequent to the  
being of a thing, is what agrees or disagrees with that  
thing; what is suitable or unsuitable to it; and from  
this springs the notion of *decency* of indecency, that  
which becomes or misbecomes. South.

In good works there may be goodness in the ge-  
neral; but *decence* and gracefulness can be only in the  
particulars in doing the good. Sprat.

Immodest words admit of no defence;  
For want of *decency* is want of sense. Roscommon.

Performed what friendship, justice, truth  
What could he more, but *decently* retire?

Were the offices of religion stript of all the  
*decencies* of worship, they would not make  
impression on the minds of those who assist at

She speaks, behaves, and acts just as she  
But never, never reached one generous thought  
Virtue she finds too painful an endeavour,  
Content to dwell in *decencies* for ever.

Sentiments which raise laughter, can ve-  
be admitted with any *decency* into an heroic

Give every bishop income enough, not  
of worldly pomp and fashionable luxury, but  
able him to maintain works of charity, and  
decent provision for his family. Bishop

DECENNIAL, *adj.* From Lat. *decem*.  
Continuing for the space of ten years.

DECENNALIA, ancient Roman  
celebrated by the emperors every tenth  
their reign, with sacrifices, games, and  
for the people. Augustus first instituted  
solemnities, in which he was imitated by  
cessors.

DECENNOVAL, *adj.* } Lat. *decem*  
DECENNOVARY } *novem*.  
to the number nineteen.

Meton, of old, in the time of the Pelopon-  
war, constituted a *decennoval* circle, or of  
years; the same which we now call the golden  
age.

Seven months are retrenched in this  
*novary* progress of the epacts, to reduce the  
of her motion and place to those of the sun.

DECEPTION, *n. s.* } From Lat.  
DECEPTI'ILITY, } See DECEIT.  
DECE'PTIBLE, *adj.* } the act or  
DECE'PTIOUS, } fraud. Deceit  
DECE'PTIVE, } and decepti  
DECE'PTORY, } press a liab-

imposture; deceptions and deceptive, the  
or design of deceiving. Deceptory, a  
Johnson, is, containing means of deceit

Yet there is a credence in my heart,  
That doth invert the' attest of eyes and ears  
As if those organs had *deceptive* functions,  
Created only to calumniate. Shakspeare.

Reason, not impossibly, may meet  
Some spacious object by the foe suborned,  
And fall into *deception* unaware.

The first and father cause of common error  
common infirmity of human nature; of which  
*deception* condition, perhaps, there should not  
other evicton, than the frequent errors  
ourselves commit.

Being thus divided from truth in themselves  
are yet farther removed by advenient *deception*

All *deception* is a misapplying of those signs  
by compact or institution, were made the  
men's signifying or conveying their thoughts

Some errors are so fleshed in us, that they  
tain their interest upon the *deceptibility* of our  
natures. G.

DECERPT, *adj.* } Lat. *decerptus*  
DECERPTIBLE, *adj.* } ped; taken off.  
DECERPTION, *n. s.* } which may be  
taken off; the act of taking off.



are *deceptions* of our parents, then I  
seen guilty of all the sins that ever were  
by my progenitors ever since Adam.

*Glancille.*

STATION, *n. s.* Lat. *decratio*. A  
; a striving; a dispute.

SSION, *n. s.* Lat. *decessio*. A de-  
going away.

ARM, *v. a.* Fr. *decharmer*. To coun-  
harm; to disenchant.

standing the help of physick, he was sud-  
ed by *decharming* the witchcraft. *Harvey.*

DE, *v. a.* & *v. n.* Fr. *decider*; Ital.  
DELY, *adv.* *decidere*; Lat. *decido*, from *de* and *ca-*

DE, *n. s.* *do*, or *scindo*. To cut  
short a controversy,

DE, *adv.* says Minsheu. To  
fix an event or is-

DESS, *n. s.* sue; to determine.  
DEY.

is a judge of controverted matters.  
the act or habit of determining, and  
of determining promptly. *Decisory*,  
sermine.

The time approaches,  
d with due *decision* make us know  
shall say we have, and what we owe.

*Shakespeare.*

Pleasure and revenge  
is more deaf than adders to the voice  
roe *decision*. *Id.*

approach'd, when fortune should *decide*  
out enterprise, and give the bride.

*Dryden.*

arms are to the last *decision* bent,  
une labours with the vast event. *Id.*

council oft, and oft in battle tried,  
at thy master and the world *decide*.

*Grancille.*

is no ill *decider* in common cases of pro-  
party is out of the question. *Swift.*

reflection, though it carries nothing per-  
se in it, yet creates a mighty confidence in  
and strengthens him much in his opinion.

*Atterbury.*

direct appeal to God for the *decision* of  
er, which can by no other means be de-

*Id.*

shall *decide*, when doctors disagree,  
oldest casuists doubt? *Pope.*

think that a jester or a monkey, a droll  
can be proper judges or *deciders* of con-

*Watts.*

For on the event,  
view of this bloody day, depends  
fate of kingdoms. *Philips.*

enabled myself with answering any argu-  
the opponents in the divinity-schools  
just the articles of the church, nor ever  
tr authority as *decisive* of a difficulty; but  
ch occasions to say to them, holding the  
sent in my hand, 'En *sacrum codicem*!'

*Bp. Watson.*

ENCE, *n. s.* Lat. *decidentia*. The  
being shed, or of falling away; the  
g away.

ring the *decidence* of their horn, do fall  
scit that it annually rotteth away, and  
reneweth again.

*Broune's Vulgar Errors.*

- VII.

DECIDUOUS, *adj.* } Lat. *deciduus*. Fall-  
DECIDUOUSNESS, *n. s.* } ing; not perennial;  
not lasting through the year.

In botany, the perianthium, or calyx, is *deciduous*,  
with the flower. *Quincy.*

DECIL, in astronomy, an aspect or position  
of two planets, when they are distant from each  
other a tenth part of the zodiac.

DECIMAL, *adj.* Lat. *decimus*. Numbered  
or multiplied by ten.

In the way we take now to name numbers by mil-  
lions of millions of millions, it is hard to go beyond  
eighteen, or, at most, four-and-twenty *decimal* pro-  
gressions, without confusion. *Locke.*

DECIMAL ARITHMETIC, the art of computing  
by decimal fractions. See ARITHMETIC, Index.

DECIMATE, *v. a.* } Lat. *decimus*. To  
DECIMATION, *n. s.* } tithe; to take the tenth;  
a tithing; a selection by lot of every tenth sol-  
dier, in a general mutiny, for punishment.

By *decimation* and a tithed death,  
Take thou the destined tenth. *Shakespeare.*  
A *decimation* I will strictly make  
Of all who my Charinus did forsake;  
And of each legion each centurion shall die.

*Dryden.*

DECIMATION was a punishment inflicted by  
the ancient Romans, on such soldiers as quitted  
their posts, or behaved themselves cowardly in  
the field. The names of the guilty were put into  
an urn, or helmet, and as many were drawn out  
as made the tenth part of the whole number,  
and those were put to the sword, and the others  
saved. The ancient Roman militia, to punish  
whole legions when they had failed in their duty,  
made the soldiers draw lots, and put every tenth  
man to death for an example. The Romans  
had also the vicesimatio, and even centesimatio,  
when only the twentieth or hundredth man suf-  
fered by lot.

DECIPHER, *v. a.* Fr. *dechiffrer*, from *de*  
and *cipher*. See CIPHER. To explain that  
which is written in ciphers; hence to unfold;  
to explain; to write out.

Zelma, that had the same character in her heart,  
could easily *decipher* it. *Sidney.*

Assurance is writ in a private character, not to be  
read, nor understood, but by the conscience, to which  
the Spirit of God has vouchsafed to *decipher* it.

*South.*

Could I give you a lively representation of guilt  
and horroir on this hand, and point out eternal wrath  
and *decipher* eternal vengeance on the other, then  
might I shew you the condition of a sinner hearing  
himself denied by Christ. *Id.*

Then were laws of necessity invented, that so every  
particular subject might find his principal pleasure  
*deciphered* unto him, in the tables of his laws.

*Locke.*

DECIPHERING, the art of reading or explain-  
ing ciphers. See CIPHER.

DECIUS (Cn. Metius), a native of Pannonia,  
sent by the emperor Philip, to appease a sedition  
in Mœsia. Instead of obeying his master's com-  
mand, he assumed the imperial purple, and  
soon after marched against him, and, at his  
death, became the only emperor. He signalised  
himself against the Persians; but when he  
marched against the Goths, he pushed his horse

H



into a deep marsh, from which he could not extricate himself, and perished, with all his army, by the darts of the barbarians, A. D. 251, after a reign of two years.

**DECIUS MUS**, the name of three patriotic Romans, viz. 1. a celebrated consul, who, after many glorious exploits, devoted himself to the gods manes, for the safety of his country, in a battle against the Latins, about 340 years before the Augustan age. 2. His son, Decius Mus, imitated his example, and devoted himself, in like manner, in his fourth consulship, when fighting against the Gauls and Samnites. 3. His grandson also did the same in the war against Pyrrhus and the Tarentines.

**DECK**, *v. a. & n. s.* ? Sax. *decan*, *ðecan* ;  
**DE'CKER**, *n. s.* } Bel. *decken*, from Lat.  
*tego, tectum*. To cover ; to adorn ; ornament ;  
 dress. A deck is the covering of a ship's hold.

His goodly image, living euermore  
 In the diuine resemblance of your face,  
 Which with your vertues ye embellish more,  
 And natue beauty deck with heuenlie grace.

*Spenser. Sonnets.*

We have also raised our second decks, and given  
 more vent thereby to our ordnance, trying on our  
 nether overloop.

*Raleigh.*

Sweet ornament ! that decks a thing diuine.

*Shakespeare.*

Long may'st thou live to wait thy children's loss,  
 And see another, as I see thee now,  
 Decked in thy rights, as thou art stalled in mine.

*Id.*

Her keel plows hell,

And deck knocks heaven.

*Ben Jonson.*

The ruder Satyre should go ragged and bare,  
 And show his rougher and his hairy hide,  
 Tho' mine be smooth, and deckt in carelessse pride.

*Bp. Hall. Defiance to Envy.*

Ye mists and exhalations, that now rise  
 From hill or steaming lake, dusky or grey,  
 Till the sun paint your fleecy skirts with gold ;  
 In honour to the world's great Author, rise !  
 Whether to deck with clouds the uncoloured sky,  
 Or wet the thirsty earth with falling showers,  
 Rising or falling, still advance his praise.  
 Now the dew with spangles decked the ground,  
 A sweeter spot of earth was never found.

*Dryden.*

At sun-set to their ship they make return,  
 And snore secure on decks till rosy morn.

*Id. Æneid.*

If any, born and bred under deck, had no other information but what sense affords, he would be of opinion that the ship was as stable as a house.

*Glanville.*

Besides gems, many other sorts of stones are regularly figured : the amianthus, of parallel threads, as in the pile of velvet ; and the selenites, of parallel plates, as in a deck of cards.

*Grew.*

It was intended by the means of these precepts, not to deck the mind with ornaments, but to protect it from nakedness ; not to enrich it with affluence, but to supply it with necessities.

*Johnson. Preface to Preceptor.*

**DECK**, the planked floors of a ship, which connect the sides together, and serve as different platforms to support the artillery and lodge the men ; as also to preserve the cargo from the sea, in merchant-vessels. As all ships are broader at the lower deck than on the next above it, and as the cannon thereof are always heaviest, it is

necessary that the frame of it should be stronger than that of the others ; and for the same reason, the second, or middle-deck, to be stronger than the upper-deck or main-deck. Ships of the first and second rates are with three whole decks, reaching from the bow to the stern, besides a fore-castle and main-deck, which extends from the stern to the mast ; between which and the fore-castle is left in the middle, opening to the main-deck, and forming what is called the gun-deck, and forming what is called the inferior ships of the line-of-battle are with two decks and a-half ; and frigates &c. with one gun-deck and a-half, which deck below to lodge the crew. The hull is formed and sustained by the beams, the water-ways, the carlings, the ledges, and two rows of small pillars, called stanchions. See SHIP-BUILDING.

**DECK, FLUSH**, implies a continued surface from stem to stern, upon one line, without steps or intervals.

**DECK, HALF**, a space under the quarter-deck of a ship of war, contained between the most bulk-head of the steerage and the bulk-head of the quarter-deck. In the colliers, the steerage itself is called the half-deck, and is usually the habitation of the crew.

**DECKENDORF**, a town of Bavaria, on the Danube. In the year 1633 it was taken by the troops of the duke of Saxe-Weimar. It is 12 miles north-west of Passau, and 12 miles E.S.E. of Ratisbon. Long. 12° 46' 50' N.

**DECLA'IM**, *v. a. & n.* } Fr. *dec*

**DECLA'IMER**, *n. s.* }

**DECLA'IMING**, *n. s.* }

**DECLAMATION**, *n. s.* }

**DECLAMATORY**, *adj.* }

—To ha-  
 speak with formality or vehemence ;  
 the passions rather than the judgment ;  
 times a college theme or composition  
 particularly, a declamation.

The cause why declamations prevail is, for that men suffer themselves to be deluged

What are his mischiefs, consul ? You  
 Against his manners, and corrupt your own

This a while suspended his interment,  
 a declamatory theme amongst the religious  
 age.

Thou mayest forgive his anger, while  
 use of the plainness of his declamation.

He has run himself into his own declamation  
 and almost forgotten that he was now a  
 a moral poet.

The splendid declaimings of novices and

It is usual for masters to make their both  
 both sides of an argument.

Your salamander is a perpetual declamation  
 jealousy.

Who could, I say, hear this generous  
 without being fired at his noble zeal ?

Dress up all the virtues in the beauty  
 tory, and declaim aloud on the praise of



week imposed upon myself a task of composing or a *declamation* in Latin or English. pleasure in lately finding among my papers these *declamations*; there is nothing excellent of them, yet I cannot help valuing them,  
*Bishop Watson.*

*DECLARATION* may be defined a speech made in the tone and manner of an oration, an expression of action to the propriety of a declaration, in order to give the sentiment expression upon the mind. See *ORATION*. The word is now principally used in a loose sense.

*DECLARE*, *v. a. & v. n.* } *Fr. declarer*; Span. and Port. *declarar*; Lat. *declaro*, of *de* and *clarus*, clear. To make clear, plain, or well known. As a neuter verb, with *for* or *against*, to publish an opinion or resolution. That is which is capable of proof: declaration is the instrument or act of making clear or known: declarative is explanatory, in the form of a declaratory, affirmative, or that which presses a doubtful, obscure sense, or avowedly. Declaring, as a synonymous with declaration, is glory among the heathen.

*1 Chron. xvi. 24.*  
things, the most part of our old martyrs they would do, or once kneel or offer up of incense before an image, suffered most terrible deaths, as the histories of them attest.  
*Id.* *Sermon against Perill of Idolatry.*  
three sabots he *declaride* to hem of scrippenye and schewide, that it bihoft crist a rise aghen fro deeth.

*Wiclif. Dedi. 17.*  
may the woful spirit in myn herte  
point of all my sorwes amerte  
my lady, that I love most,  
joeth the service of my gost.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*  
They on humble knee  
ysaunce, did the cause *declare*  
ere come her roiall state to see,  
a wide report of her great maiestee.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*  
uses are nothing else but *declarations* what  
for the good of men. *Hooker.*

's army somewhat the soldiers would have  
ry would not *declare* themselves in it, but  
ded a discharge. *Bacon.*

clarable from the best writers. *Browne.*  
ill calefy into electricity; that is, into a  
rset straws, or light bodies; and convert  
freely placed, which is a *declament* of  
at parts. *Id.*

Aleixatus the civilian, and Francisus de  
ve both *declaratorily* confirmed the same.

*Id. Vulgar Errours.*  
e this a little, we must assume that the  
such bodies are exactly smooth. *Boyle.*  
ual faculties of will and understanding  
nd *declaring* against them. *Taylor.*

These blessings are not only *declaratory* of the good pleasure and intention of God towards them, but likewise of the natural tendency of the thing. *Tillotson.*

There are no where so plain and full *declarations* of mercy and love to the sons of men, as are made in the gospel. *Id.*

The sun by certain signs *declares*,  
Both when the south projects a stormy day,  
And when the clearing north will puff the cloud away.  
*Dryden's Virgil.*

God is said not to have left himself without witness in the world; there being something fixed in the nature of men, that will be sure to testify and *declare* for him. *South's Sermons.*

Though wit and learning are certain and habitual perfections of the mind, yet the *declaration* of them, which alone brings the repute, is subject to a thousand hazards. *South.*

To this we may add the vox populi, so *declarative* on the same side. *Swift.*

A *declared* gout is the distemper of a gentleman; whereas, the rheumatism is the distemper of a hackney-coachman or chairman, who are obliged to be out at all weathers, and in all hours. *Chesterfield.*

I have had and used the opportunities of conversing with men of the greatest wisdom and fullest experience in those matters, and I do *declare* to you most solemnly and most truly, that on the result of this reading, thinking, experience, and communication, I am not able to come to an immediate resolution in favour of a change of the groundwork of our constitution.

*Burke.*

My *declared* opposition to the increased and increasing influence of the Crown had made a great impression on His Majesty's mind; for on the day I did homage, he asked the Duke of Rutland if his friend the Bishop of Landaff was not a great enemy to the influence of the Crown. *Bishop Watson.*

*DECLINE*, *v. a., v. n. & n. s.* } *Fr. decliner*; Span. and Port. *declinar*; Ital. *declinaire*; Lat. *declino*, from *deorsum*, downwards, and *clino*, to bind; Gr. *κλινω*.—*Minsheu.* To bend downwards; to bring down; to shun; avoid; sink: as a neuter verb, to lean or incline downward; to deviate; to sink; decay. Decline, as well as declension, signifies also the state of decrease, or alteration for the worse; a tendency to a less degree of excellence; descent. Declinable is principally a term of grammar, and expresses that quality of words whereby they can be traced to their roots. Declination, and declinator, are also scientific terms, for which see the articles following:

Neither shalt thou speak in a cause to *decline* after many, to wrest judgment. *Exodus xxiii. 2.*  
And now fair Phœbus 'gan *decline* in haste  
His weary waggon to the western vale. *Spenser.*  
The queen, hearing of the *declination* of a monarchy, took it so ill, as she would never after hear of his suit. *Bacon.*

They'll be by the fire, and presume to know  
What's don i' th' capitol; who's like to rise,  
Who thrives, and who *declines*. *Shakespeare.*

Sons at perfect age, and fathers *declining*, the father should be as a ward to the son. *Id.*



A beauty-waining and distressed widow,  
Even in the afternoon of her best days,  
Seduced the pitch and height of all his thoughts,  
To base *declension*. *Id. Richard III.*

Since the muses do invoke my power,  
I shall no more *decline* that sacred bower,  
Where Gloriana, their great mistress, lies. *Waller.*

Hope waits upon the flow'ry prime;  
And summer, though it be less gay,

Yet is not looked on as a time  
Of *declination* or decay. *Id.*

Sometimes nations will *decline* so low  
From virtue, which is reason, that no wrong,  
But justice, and some fatal curse annexed,  
Deprives them of their outward liberty. *Milton.*

And nature, which all acts of life designs,  
Not like ill poets, in the last *declines*. *Denham.*

He had wisely *declined* that argument, though in  
their common sermons they gave it. *Clarendon.*

If it should be said that minute bodies are indis-  
soluble, because it is their nature to be so, that would  
not be to render a reason of the thing proposed, but,  
in effect, to *decline* rendering any. *Boyle.*

That a peccant creature should disapprove and re-  
pent of every *declination* and violation of the rules of  
just and honest, this right reason, discoursing upon  
the stock of its own principles, could not but infer.

*South's Sermons.*

Thus then my loved Euryalus appears;  
He looks the prop of my *declining* years! *Dryden.*

Autumnal warmth *declines*;  
Ere heat is quite decayed, or cold begun. *Id.*

There is no *declination* of latitude, nor variation of  
the elevation of the pole, notwithstanding what some  
have asserted. *Woodward.*

Thy rise of fortune did I only wed,  
From its *decline* determined to recede. *Prior.*

We may reasonably allow as much for the *declen-  
sion* of the land from that place to the sea, as for the  
immediate height of the mountain. *Burnet's Theory.*

Those fathers lived in the *decline* of literature.  
*Swift.*

Faith and morality are *declined* among us. *Id.*

God, in his wisdom, hath been pleased to load our  
*declining* years with many sufferings, with diseases,  
and decays of nature. *Id.*

Whatever they judged to be most agreeable or dis-  
agreeable, they would pursue or *decline*. *Atterbury.*

Supposing there were a *declination* of atoms, yet will  
it not effect what they intend; for then they do all  
*decline*, and so there will be no more concourse than  
if they did perpendicularly descend. *Ray.*

You *decline* *musa*, and construe Latin, by the help  
of a tutor, or with some English translation. *Watts.*

There are several ways to know the several planes;  
but the readiest is by an instrument called a *declina-  
tory*, fitted to the variation of your plate. *Moxon.*

*Declension* is only the variation or change of the  
termination of a noun, whilst it continues to signify  
the same thing. *Clarke's Latin Grammar.*

And leaves the semblance of a lover, fixt  
In melancholy deep, with head *declined*,  
And love-dejected eyes. *Thomson.*

The surest way to conquer, is sometimes to *decline*  
a battle; to weary out the enemy, by keeping him at  
bay. *Mason.*

But, though the felon on his back could dare  
The dreadful leap, more rational, his steed  
*Declined* the death, and wheeling swiftly round,  
Or e'er his hoof had pressed the crumbling verge.  
*Cowper.*

This praise, O Cheronean sage, is thine!  
Why should this praise to thee alone  
All else from Nature's moral path *decline*  
Lured by the toys that captivate the th

Statues of glass—all shivered—the long file  
Of her dead Doges are *declined* to dust;  
But where they dwell, the vast and sumptuous  
Bespeaks the pageant of their splendid t

DECLINATION, in astronomy, is either  
or south, and either true or apparent  
ing as the real or apparent place of the  
considered. See ASTRONOMY.

DECLIVITY, *n. s.* } Old Fr.  
DECLIVOUS, *adj.* } from the Lat.  
*declino*. See DECLINE. Descent; c  
downwards; gradual descent, oppose  
clivity.

Rivers will not flow unless upon *declivity*  
sources be raised above the earth's ordina  
so that they may run upon a descent. *W*

I found myself within my depth; and  
*city* was so small, that I walked near a mi  
got to the shore. *Gulliver's*

And on thy happy shore a temple still  
Of small and delicate proportion, keeps,  
Upon a mild *declivity* of hill,  
Its memory of thee; beneath it sleeps  
Thy current's calmness.

DECOCT, *v. a.* } Fr. *decoction*  
DECOCTION, *n. s.* } *coctione*; Span

DECOCTIBLE, *adj.* } from Lat. *deco*

DECOCTURE, *n. s.* } and *coquo*, to s  
extract the virtues of any thing by t  
heat. Shakspeare uses it, barbarousl  
for strengthening by boiling; decocti  
act of boiling to extract the virtue, o  
paration decocted; and the latter i  
meaning also of decocture.

Sena loseth its windiness by *decocting*;  
or windy spirits are taken off by incensio  
ration.

In infusion, the longer it is, the greater  
of the gross body that goeth into the liqu  
*decoction*, though more goeth forth, yet  
purgeth at the top, or setteth at the bottom

Can sodden water, their barley broth,  
Decoct their cold blood to such valiant hea

They distil their husbands' land  
In *decoctions*; and are manned  
With ten empirics, in their chamber  
Lying for the spirit of amber. *B*

There she *decocts*, and doth the food pre  
There she distributes it to every vein;  
There she expels what she may fitly spare.

The lineaments of a white lily will re  
the strongest *decoction*.

DECOLLATE, *v. a.* } Fr. *decoll*  
DECOLLATION, *n. s.* } Lat. *decolla*  
*collum*, the neck. To behead; a be  
decapitation. Applied also metaphori

A fine piece (a painting) of a *decollat*  
St. John the Baptist was shewn to a Tur  
ror; he praised many things, but he ob



not shrink from the wounded part of the  
*Burke on the Sublime.*

decollation of all hope, annihilated his  
by an immoderancy thereof, destroyed  
*Broun.*

COMPOSE, *v. a.* } *Fr. decomposer ;*  
POSITE, *adj.* } *Lat. decompono,*  
POSITION, *n. s.* } *decompositus, of*  
FOUND, *v. a. & adj.* } *de and compono,*  
COMPOSE, which see. To compound  
time, to dissolve (chemically), seem  
meaning of both verbs. Decomposite and  
and, as adjectives, mean compounded a  
time. Decomposition, the act or practice  
unpounding, or a resolution of the parts  
chemically.

units of three metals, or more, are too long  
of, except there be some compositions of  
observed. *Bacon.*

extended salts and sulphur are so far from  
mentary parts extracted out of the body of  
that they are rather, to borrow a term of  
various, *decompound* bodies, made up of the  
al and the menstruum, or other additaments  
to disguise it. *Boyle.*

consider what happens in the compositions and  
of saline particles. *Id.*

should use any compound or *decompound*  
stantial verbs. *Arbuthnot and Pope.*

word stands for a very complex idea, that  
added and *decompounded*, it is not easy for  
us and retain that idea exactly, *Locke.*

violet, blue, and green be intercepted, the  
yellow, orange, and red will compound upon  
an orange; and then if the intercepted col-  
ours pass, they will fall upon this compounded  
d, together with it, *decompound* a white.  
*Newton.*

it becomes bleached by exposure to the  
rays in a similar manner as metals become  
rusty, viz., by the water on their surface  
exposed; and hence the inflammable mate-  
rial caused the colour becomes united with vital  
a new acid, and is washed away.  
*Darwin.*

striking the salt from the brine, there is a re-  
sidue which is formed by the separation and de-  
composition of the grosser particles from the pure salt.  
*Sir T. Barnard.*

DECOMPOSITION, in chemistry, usually signi-  
fies union or separation of the constituent  
bodies. It differs from mere mechanical  
decomposition in that, when a body is chemically de-  
composed, the parts into which it is resolved are  
very different from the body itself; but  
mechanical force is applied to it ever  
or if with ever so much violence, the  
particles into which the body may be  
resolved still retain their original nature. Thus,  
nitre is reduced to ever so fine a powder,  
but it retains the nature of nitre as much  
as the unpounded mass; but, if oil of vitriol  
be added, decomposition takes place, and one of  
the component parts of the nitre rises in  
the form of a smoking acid spirit, which never  
has been suspected to lie hid in the neu-  
tral salt. See CHEMISTRY.

DECORATE, *a. a.* } *Fr. decorer ; Ital. de-*  
DECORAMENT, *n. s.* } *corature ; from Lat. de-*  
DECORATION, *n. s.* } *coro, of decus, honor. To*  
DECORATER } *adorn, beautify, dress,*  
embellish. Decorament seems synonymous with  
decoration.

The ensigns of virtues contribute to the ornament  
of figures; such as the decorations belonging to the li-  
beral arts, and to war. *Dryden.*

After all, to inherit is not to acquire, to *decorate* is  
not to make. *Johnson.*

DECOROUS, *adj.* } *Lat. decorus, decet,*  
DECORUM, *n. s.* } *it becometh. See DE-*  
corate. Befitting, becoming, proper, suitable  
to character or station; therefore decorum is be-  
coming gravity and seemliness of behaviour.

If your master  
Would have a queen his beggar, you must tell him  
That majesty, to keep decorum, must  
No less beg than a kingdom. *Shakspeare.*

I am far from suspecting simplicity, which is bold  
to trespass in points of decorum. *Wotton.*

Every one is a virtuoso, of a higher or lower de-  
gree: every one pursues a Grace, and courts a Venus  
of one kind or another. The venustums, the hones-  
tums, the decorum of things, will force its way.  
*Shaftesbury.*

Beyond the fixed and settled rules  
Of vice and virtue in the schools,  
The better sort shall set before 'em  
A grace, a manner, a decorum. *Prior*

Gentlemen of the army should be, at least, obliged  
to external decorum: a profligate life and character  
should not be a means of advancement. *Swift.*

It is not so decorous, in respect of God, that he  
should immediately do all the meanest and triflingest  
things himself, without any inferior or subordinate  
minister. *Ray.*

If the prudence of reserve and decorum dictates si-  
lence in some circumstances, in others prudence of a  
higher order may justify us in speaking our thoughts.  
*Burke.*

No band of friends or heirs be there,  
To weep, or wish, the coming blow:  
No maiden, with dishevelled hair,  
To feel, or feign, decorous woe. *Beattie.*

DECORTICATE, *v. a.* } *Lat. decortico.—*  
DECORTICATION, *n. s.* } *To divest of the*  
bark or husk; to husk; to peel; to strip.

Take great barley, dried and decorticated, after it is  
well washed, and boil it in water. *Arbuthnot.*

DECOY, *v. a. & n. s.* } *From Goth. duck and*  
DECOY-DUCK, *n. s.* } *kui, or Dut. koey, a*  
cage. To entrap ducks into a net, or otherwise;  
and hence to entrap or ensnare generally. The  
decoy-duck is the instrument of lure. See  
below.

A fowler had taken a partridge, who offered to de-  
coy her companions into the snare. *L' Etrange.*

These exuberant productions of the earth became a  
continual decoy and snare: they only excited and fo-  
mented lusts. *Woodward.*

The Devil could never have had such numbers, had  
he not used some as decoys to ensnare others.  
*Government of the Tongue.*

An old dramdrinker is the Devil's decoy. *Berkeley*



There is a sort of ducks, called *decoy-ducks*, that will bring whole flights of fowl to their retirements, where are conveniences made for catching them.

*Mortimer.*

*Decoyed by the fantastic blaze,  
Now lost, and now renewed, he sinks absorpt,  
Rider and horse.*

*Thomson.*

A stifled smile of stern vindictive joy  
Brightened one moment Edwin's starting tear,  
But why should gold man's feeble mind *decoy*  
And innocence thus die by doom severe? *Beattie.*

**DECOY**, among fowlers, a place made for catching wild fowl. A decoy is generally made where there is a large sheet of water surrounded with wood, and beyond that a marshy and uncultivated country. As soon as the evening sets in, the decoy rises, as they term it, and the wild fowl feed during the night. The decoy-ducks are fed with hemp-seed, which is thrown over the skreens in small quantities, to bring them forwards into the pipes or canals, and to allure the wild fowl to follow, as this seed floats. There are several pipes, as they are called, which lead up a narrow ditch that closes at last with a funnel net. Over these pipes, which grow narrower from their first entrance, is a continued arch of netting suspended on hoops. It is necessary to have a pipe or ditch for almost every wind that can blow, as upon this circumstance it depends which pipe the fowl will take to; and the decoy-man always keeps on the leeward side of the ducks, to prevent his effluvia reaching their sagacious nostrils. All along each pipe, at certain intervals, are placed skreens made of reeds, so situated, that it is impossible the wild-fowl should see the decoy-man, before they have passed on towards the end of the pipe, where the purse-net is placed. The inducement of the wild-fowl to go up one of these pipes is, because the decoy-ducks trained to this lead the way, either after hearing the whistle of the decoy-man, or enticed by the hemp-seed: the latter will dive under water, whilst the wild-fowl fly on, and are taken in the purse net. It often happens, however, that the wild-fowl are in such a state of sleepiness and dozing, that they will not follow the decoy-duck. Use is then generally made of a dog, who is taught his lesson; he passes backwards and forwards between the reed-skreens, in which are little holes, both for the decoy-man to see, and the dog to pass through; this attracts the eye of the wild-fowl, who, not choosing to be interrupted, advance towards the small and contemptible animal, that they may drive him away. The dog all the time, by the direction of the decoy-man, plays among the screens of reeds, nearer and nearer the purse-net; till at last the man appears behind a screen, and the wild-fowl not daring to pass by him in return, nor being able to escape upwards, on account of the net covering, rush on into the net. Sometimes the dog will not attract their attention, if a red handkerchief, or something very singular, is not put about him. The general season for catching fowls in decoy, is from the end of October till February. Decoys are commonly let at a certain annual rent, and yield large quantities of ducks, wigeons, and teal; but they have been diminished

in number by the recent drainage of many fenny parts of England.

**DECREASE**, *v. a. & n. & n. s.* } Lat.

**DECREMENT**, *n. s.* } from

**DECRESCENT**, *adj.* } *cresco*,

crease. To make less; diminish: as to verb, to grow less; be diminished. The act of growing less: decrement is the lost in decrease; and decrescence, growing

From the moon is the sign of feasts, a light creaseth in her perfection. *Eccles.*

He did dishonourable find

Those articles, which did our state *decrease*

See in what time the seeds, set in the in the moon, come to a certain height, and how far from those that are set in the *decrease* of t

Unto fifty years, as they said, the heart increaseth the weight of one drachm; after the same proportion, it *decreaseth*.

*Brown's Vulgar*

Upon the tropick, and first descension from stice, we are scarce sensible of declination; elining farther, our *decrement* accelerates: apace, and in our last days precipitate into ou

Rocks, mountains, and the other elevation earth, suffer a continual *decrement*, and grow lower. *We*

By weakening toil and hoary age o'ercome See thy *decrease*, and hasten to thy tomb.

Heat increases the fluidity of tenacious liquor of oil, balsam, and honey; and thereby *decreases* resistance.

When the sun comes to his tropicks, days and *decrease* but a very little for a great while

They who are now, like the Baptist, burn shining lights, must like him gradually *decrease* others are increasing about them.

*Doddridge's Ex*

**DECRETE**, *v. a., v. n. & n. s.* } Fr.

**DECRETAL**, } and *d*

**DECRETIST**, } *Span*

**DECRETORY**, } *Port.*

from Lat. *decretum*; qu. Gr. *επινομ*, to judge doom or decide formally or publicly; to an edict; to establish by law; resolve. *Decree* is the edict, law, rule, or decision.

*Decretal*, a book of decrees or laws, and particularly the popes: *decretist*, he who professedly or is skilled in the decretals: *decretory*, decisive, final.

When he made a *decree* for the rain, and for the lightning of the thunder. *Job xxx*

There went a *decree* from Cæsar Augustus, the world should be taxed. *Luk*

They shall see the end of the wise, and shall understand what God in his counsel hath *decreed* him. *Wim*

The second room, whose walls

Were painted fair with memorable guests  
Of magistrates, of courts, of tribunals,  
Of laws, of judgments, and of *decretals*. *S*

If you deny me, lie upon your law!

There is no force in the *decrees* of Venice *Shak*

Traditions and *decretals* were made of equal and as authentic as the sacred charter itself.

*Howell's Vocal*



eternal; thine is to decree;  
th in heaven and earth, to do thy will.

Milton.

ions of the moon, supposed to be measured  
and the critical or *decretory* days depend  
thereon.

Browne's *Vulgar Errors*.

of man, and not the *decree* of heaven, is  
of human calamity.

Broom.

lenitives that friendship will apply, be-  
ll is brought to the *decretory* rigours of a  
ag sentence.

South's *Sermons*.

aven decreed that I should life enjoy,  
ad decreed to save unhappy Troy.

Dryden.

ve condemn'd by fate's unjust decree,  
in our houses and our homes to see?

Id.

The king their father,  
and weighty reasons, has decreed  
to the younger.

Rowe.

and epistle is that which the pope decrees  
himself, or else by the advice of his cardi-  
al this must be on his being consulted by some  
person or persons thereon.

Ayliffe's *Parergon*.

eticts had their rise and beginning under  
of the emperor Frederick Barbarossa.

Id.

it be decreed by the authority of reason,  
any of ignorance, that, of all the candidates  
praise, the unhappy lexicographer holds  
place, neither vanity nor interest incited me

Johnson. *Plan of Dictionary*.

the ancient editions of the Papal *decretals*,  
amentations on the civil law, the edicts of  
the statutes of Venice.

Id. *On the Harleian Library*.

DECREPIT, or } Fr. *decrepite*; Ital.  
DECREPIT, } and Span. *decrepito*;  
DECREPIT, } Lat. *decrepitus*, crack-  
DECREPIT, } ling; from the crack-  
DECREPIT, } ling of a candle or  
DECREPIT, } lamp when nearly  
DECREPIT, } Minshew, after Scaliger. Wasted; old;  
DECREPIT, } an extreme decay. To decrepitate is  
Browne for the calcining of salt until  
to crackle. Decrepitness and decre-  
man's 'last stage of all.'

lives, in this *decrepit* age of the world,  
and fourscore, and some an hundred years.

Raleigh.

is *decrepit*, and the bell goeth for him:  
that there be chosen a pope of fresh years.

Bacon.

misery! base, ignoble wretch. *Shakespeare*.

out-live one age, they prove *decrepit*  
m.

Bishop Hall. *Contemplations*.

And from the north to call

later.

Milton.

come to pass in a pot of salt, although

Browne's *Vulgar Errors*.

cession from our isle should fail,  
a profane with impious hands prevail,  
or those thy factious arts engage  
that harvest of rebellious rage,

thou flatterest thy *decrepit* age.

Dryden.

on his staff, and stooping as he goes,  
mitre shades his furrowed brows;

u this *decrepit* form arrayed,

is entered, and the fruits surveyed. *Pope*.

Mother earth, in this her barrenness and *decrepit-  
ness* of age, can procreate such swarms of curious  
engines.

Bentley.

The charge of witchcraft inspires people with a  
malevolence towards those poor *decrepit* parts of our  
species, in whom human nature is defaced by infir-  
mity and dotage.

Addison.

Time in advance behind him hides his wings,  
And seems to creep *decrepid* with his age.

Young.

The emaciated and *decrepid* appearance, with the  
ridiculous and idiotic gestures, of the opium-eaters in  
Constantinople, is well described in the *Memoirs* of  
Baron de Tott.

Darwin.

DECREPITATION, in chemistry, the crackling  
noise which several salts make when suddenly  
heated, accompanied by a violent exfoliation  
of their particles. This phenomenon has been  
ascribed to the 'sudden conversion of the water  
which they contain into steam.' But absolutely  
dry sulphate of barytes decrepitates furiously  
without any possible formation of steam, or any  
loss of weight. The same holds with respect to  
common salt, calcareous spars, and sulphate of  
potash, which contain no water. In fact, it is the  
salts which are anhydrous, or destitute of water,  
which decrepitate most powerfully; those that  
contain water generally enter into tranquil lique-  
faction on being heated. Salts decrepitate, for  
the same reason that glass, quartz, and cast-iron  
crack, with an explosive force, when very sud-  
denly heated; namely, from the unequal expan-  
sion of the laminae which compose them, in  
consequence of their being imperfect conductors  
of heat.

DECRESCENT, in heraldry, a term signify-  
ing a representation of the moon when declining  
from the full to the last quarter, her horns being  
turned to the sinister side of the shield.

The *DECRETALS* compose the second part of  
the canon law. The first, acknowledged by all  
the learned as genuine, is a letter of Pope Siri-  
cius, written A. D. 385, to Himerus, bishop of  
Tarragona, in Spain, concerning some disorders  
which had crept into the churches of Spain.  
Gratian published a collection of decretals, con-  
taining all the ordinances made by the popes till  
A. D. 1150. Gregory IX. in 1227, following the  
example of Theodosius and Justinian, formed a  
constitution of his own, collecting into one body  
all the decisions and all the causes which served  
to advance the papal power; which collection of  
decretals was called the *pentateuch*, because it  
contained five books.

DECERY', v. a. Fr. *decrier*, *de* and *cry*. See  
CRY. To censure; to blame clamorously, or  
vehemently.

Malice in criticks reigns so high,  
That for small errors they whole plays *decry*.

Dryden.

Quacks and impostors are still cautioning us to  
beware of counterfeits, and *decry* others' cheats only  
to make more way for their own.

Swift.

Those measures, which are extolled by one half of  
the kingdom, are naturally *decried* by the other

Addison.

Then prompt no more the follies you *decry*,  
As tyrants doom their tools of guilt to die.

Johnson.



**DECUMANA**, in ancient history and geography, the name of a nation of the Marse or Marcomanni. See **DECUMATES AGRI**.

**DECUMARIA**, in botany: a genus of the monogynia order, and dodecandria class of plants: CAL. decaphyllous, superior; petals ten; CAPS. eight or nine cells and polyspermous. Species two, both natives of Carolina.

**DECUMATES AGRI**, fields granted on a tithe, as appears from Tacitus, to the Gauls who succeeded the Marcomanni, that had till then proved a check to the Roman conquests, on the Rhine; and hence, probably, their name, people living on the marches or limits of the empire.

**DECUMBENCE**, *n. s.* } Lat. *decumbo*.  
**DECUMBENCY**, } The act of lying  
**DECUMBITURE**, } down; the posture  
 of lying down.

This must come to pass, if we hold opinion they lie not down, and enjoy no *decumbence* at all; for station is properly no rest, but one kind of motion.

*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

Not considering the ancient manner of *decumbency*, he imputed this gesture of the beloved disciple unto rusticity, or an act of incivility. *Id.*

If but a mile she travel out of town,  
 The planetary hour must first be known,  
 And lucky moment: if her eye but akes,  
 Or itches, its *decumbiture* she takes. *Dryden.*

**DECUPLE**, *adj.* Lat. *decuplus*, tenfold. The same number ten times repeated.

Man's length, that is, a perpendicular from the vertex unto the sole of the foot, is decuple unto his profundity; that is, a direct line between the breast and the spine. *Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

Supposing there be a thousand sorts of insects in this island, if the same proportion holds between the insects of England and of the world, as between plants domestick and exotick, that is, near a *decuple*, the species of insects will amount to ten thousand. *Ray.*

**DECURIA**, or **DECURY**, among the ancient Romans, ten men under one leader, called the decurio. The decuria was the third part of a turma, or the thirtieth of a legion of horse, which consisted of 300 men. The Roman cavalry was divided into decuriæ, which were subdivisions of a century, each century containing ten decuries.

**DECURIO**, a subaltern officer in the Roman armies, who commanded a decuria.

**DECURION**, *n. s.* Lat. *decurio*. A commander over ten; an officer subordinate to the centurion.

He instituted *decurions* through both these colonies, that is, one over every ten families. *Temple.*

**DECURIONES MUNICIPALES**, magistrates in the Roman provinces, who formed a body to represent the Roman senates in free and corporate towns. They consisted of ten, whence the name; and their duty was to watch over the interests of their fellow citizens, and to increase the revenues of the commonwealth. Their court was called curio decurionum and minor senatus; and their decrees, called decreta decurionum, were marked D.D. at the top. They generally styled themselves civitatum patres curiales, and honorati municipiorum senatores. They were elected with the same ceremonies as the Roman

senators; they were to be at least ten years of age, and to be possessed of ten

**DECURSION**, *n. s.* Lat. *decursum* and *cursus*. The act of running down.

What is decayed by that *decursion* of water supplied by the terrene fæces which water brings.

**DECUSSATE**, *v. a.* } Lat. *decussatus*.  
**DECUSSATION**, *n. s.* } intersect at acute angles.  
 The act of crossing, or state of being unequal angles. See **OPTICS**.

The crucigerous ensign carried this figure, namely, two lines intersected, but in this, after the form of an Andrian or Icarian cross, which answereth this description.

This it performs by the action of a note on each side, having the form of the letter *u*, up of many fibres, *decussating* one another.

Though there be *decussation* of the rays of the eye, and so the image of the object on the retina, or bottom of the eye, be inverted; yet the object appear inverted, but in its natural posture.

**DECUSSORIUM**, an instrument used by surgeons, which, by pressing gently on the mater, causes an evacuation of the pus between it and the cranium, through the operation made by the trepan.

**DEDDINGTON**, a market-town of Oxfordshire, formerly a corporation and borough. Birmingham and Oxford canal passes near it, and is of considerable advantage to the neighbourhood are two medicinal springs, one of which is highly impregnated with salt. It has a weekly market on Saturdays. It is seated on an eminence, seventeen miles from Oxford, and sixty-nine N.N.W. of Oxford.

**DEDECORATE**, *v. a.* } Lat. *dedecoratus*.  
**DEDECORATION**, *n. s.* } disgrace; dishonour.  
**DEDECOROUS**, *adj.* } reproachful; dishonouring.  
 act of disgracing; disgrace. Disgrace.

**DEDENTITION**, *n. s.* Lat. *dedentitio*. Shedding of teeth. The loss or shedding of teeth.

Solon divided life into ten septenaries, every one thereof a man received some sensation; in the first is *dedentition*, or falling of teeth. *Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

**DEDHAM**, a town and parish of the county of Essex, situated on the river Colne, over which is a bridge. It is six miles from Colchester, and its church is noted for its Gothic steeple. Population about 2200.

**DEDHAM**, a township of Massachusetts, incorporated in 1637.

**DEDHAM**, a town in the above township of Norfolk county, called by the Indians Tiot. It lies on the south side of Chelsea, eleven miles south-west of Boston, and from Philadelphia.

**DEDICATE**, *v. a. & adj.* } Lat. *dicare*.  
**DEDICATION**, *n. s.* } Port. *dedicacão*.  
**DEDICATOR**, } *dicere*.  
**DEDICATORY**, *adj.* } *dicere*.  
*dicare*, from *Deo*, *dicare*, to consecrate to some deity, or to some pious service; to resign, appropriate, or devote to a particular person or service.



form, or inscription, used in dedication, says Johnson, with more accuracy, is one who inscribes his patron, with compliment and servility.

is offered for *dedicating* the altar, in the as anointed. Numb. vii. 10.

A pleasant grove,  
up high, full of the stately tree,  
sted is to Olympick Jove,  
son Alcides. Spenser.

a general welcome from his grace  
all: this night he *dedicates*  
sistent and you. Shakespeare.

Prayers from preserved souls,  
ing maids, whose names are *dedicate*  
g temporal. Id.

be laid to many men's charge, that they  
curious as to trouble bishops with placing  
e in the churches; or so scrupulous as, af-  
tion of them, to make any great ado for  
them. Hooker.

part, or tithe, being thus assigned unto  
th as a thing *dedicate* and appropriate  
Spelman.

ted ten elegant books, and *dedicated* them  
burghley. Peacham.

to learn the profession of a soldier, to  
d *dedicated* himself. Clarendon.

Bid her instant wed,  
*dedicate* her remnant life,  
e duties of an humble wife. Prior.

could make a real progress in knowledge  
e his age as well as youth, the latter  
ell as the first fruits, at the altar of truth.  
Berkeley.

ould begin my epistle if it were a dedica-  
at it is a friendly letter. Pope.

ed as Apollo on his forked hill,  
l-blown Bufo, puffed by every quill;  
soft *dedication* all day long,  
and he went hand in hand in song. Id.

dangerous truths to unsuccessful satires;  
try to fulsome *dedicators*. Id.

ublic solemnities there is none so glorious  
er the reign of king Solomon, at the *dedi-*  
temple. Addison.

iving names the weekly scribbler lies,  
ag wealth the *dedicator* flies.

Johnson. *Vanity of Human Wishes.*

ron, the act of consecrating a temple,  
e, palace, &c. to the honor of some  
e use of dedications is very ancient  
g the worshippers of the true God  
y the heathens: the Hebrews call it  
uchah, 'initiation;' which the Greek  
render *Εγκαίνια*, and *Εγκαίνισμος*,

In the Scripture we meet with dedi-  
the tabernacle, of altars, of the first  
d temple, and even of the houses of  
sons. One of the most solemn on  
at of the first temple by Solomon,  
iii., 2 Chron. vi. There were also  
of vessels, and of the garments of the  
Levites, as well as of persons them-  
e heathens had also dedications of  
ltars, and images of their gods, &c.  
bezzar held a solemn dedication of his  
n. iii. 2. Tacitus, Hist. lib. iv. ch. 53,  
the dedication of the capitol, upon  
it by Vespasian, &c. In modern

times dedication is only applied to a church;  
and is properly the consecration of it performed  
by a bishop, with a number of ceremonies pre-  
scribed by the church. See CONSECRATION.

DEDITION, *n. s.* Lat. *deditio*. The act of  
yielding up any thing; surrender.

It was not a complete conquest, but rather a *dedition*  
upon terms and capitulations agreed between the con-  
queror and the conquered. Hale.

DEDUCE, *v. a.* Fr. *deduire*; Span.  
DEDUCIBLE, *adj.* *deduzer*; Ital. *didurre*;  
DEDUCIVE, Lat. *deduco, deducere*, of  
DEDUCEMENT, *n. s.* *de* and *duco*. To lead or

DEDUCT, *v. a.* draw. To draw or de-  
DEDUCTION, *n. s.* rive a conclusion in  
DEDUCTIVE, *adj.* argument; to trace a

DEDUCTIVELY, *adv.* series of events, or con-  
catenations circumstances; to subtract or take  
off; hence to separate, divide. Deducible, and  
deductive, mean consequential, evident to reason.  
Deductive, performing, or drawing a conclusion.  
Deductively, consequentially. Deduction, the  
result of a series of argumentation; a conse-  
quence, as well as a sum or thing subtracted.

Having yet, in his *deducted* spright,  
Some sparks remaining of that heavenly fire.

Spenser.  
Out of scripture such duties may be deduced, by  
some kind of consequence; as by long circuit of *de-*  
*duction* it may be that even all truth, out of any truth  
may be concluded. Hooker.

I will *deduce* him from his cradle, through the deep  
and lubric waves of state and court, till he was awal-  
lowed in the gulph of fatality. Wotton Buck.

The condition, although *deducible* from many  
grounds, yet shall we evidence it but from few.

Broune's *Vulgar Errors*.

There is scarce a popular errorr passant in our  
days, which is not either directly expressed, or *deduc-*  
*tively* contained in this work. Id.

You have laid the experiments together in such a  
way, and made such *deductions* from them, as I have  
not hitherto met with. Boyle.

All cross and distasteful humours are either ex-  
pressly, or by clear consequence and *deduction*, forbid-  
den in the New Testament. Tillotson.

So far, therefore, as conscience reports any thing  
agreeable to or *deducible* from these, it is to be heard-  
ened to. South.

Praise and prayer are his due worship, and the  
rest of those *deducements* which I am confident are the  
remote effects of revelation. Dryden.

The general character of the new earth is paradisaical;  
and the particular character, that it hath no sea:  
and both are apparently *deducible* from its formation.

Burnet.  
Reason is nothing but the faculty of *deducing* un-  
known truths from principles already known. Locke.

All properties of a triangle depend on, and are *de-*  
*ducible* from, the complex idea of three lines, includ-  
ing a space. Id.

We *deduct* from the computation of our years that  
part of our time which is spent in incogitancy of in-  
fancy. Norris.

All knowledge of causes is *deductive*; for we know  
none by simple intuition, but through the meditation  
of their effects. Glanville.

That by diversity of motions we should spell out  
things not resembled by them, we must attribute to some



secret *deduction*; but what this *deduction* should be, or by what mediums this knowledge is advanced, is as dark as ignorance. *Id.*

O goddess, say, shall I *deduce* my rhimes  
From the dire nation in its early times? *Pope.*

Bring then these blessings to a strict account ;  
Make fair *deductions* : see to what they mount. *Id.*

A reflection so obvious, that natural instinct seems to have suggested it even to those who never much attended to the *deductions* of reason. *Rogers.*

Lend me your song, ye nightingales ! oh pour  
The mazy-running soul of melody  
Into my varied verse ! while I deduce,  
From the first note the hollow cuckoo sings,  
The symphony of spring. *Thomson.*

Set before you the moral law of God, with such *deductions* from it as our Saviour hath drawn, or our own reason, well informed, can make. *Duppa.*

DEE, a river of England and Wales, which rises at the foot of the lofty mountain Arun, in the north-west angle of Merionethshire, from which it runs through a fine valley in a north-east direction to Denbighshire; visits the north-west border of Cheshire, to which it serves as a boundary; then crossing over to Chester, it flows thence to the sea, forming a broad sandy estuary, which separates Cheshire from Flintshire. This river is navigable from Elsmere, in Shropshire, to Chester; but at this city the navigation is interrupted by a ledge of rocks running across the bed of it, and causing a cascade. The Dee falls into the Irish Sea, fifteen miles below Chester.

DEE, a river of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, which rises from the hill Breirach, and after running through the parishes of Braemar, Crathy, and many others, with vast rapidity, falls into the German Ocean at Aberdeen, 140 miles from its source. It produces, in great plenty, trout, pikes, eels, &c., and affords one of the greatest salmon-fisheries in Scotland. In passing through Braemar, the Dee has a fine cascade, with the additional singularity, that for sixty yards it is confined between two rocks, within so narrow a space, that some persons have ventured to step over it.

DEE (John), a famous mathematician and astrologer, born in London, July 1527. In 1542 he was sent to St. John's College, Cambridge. After five years close application to the mathematics and astronomy, he went to Holland; and, on his return to Cambridge, was elected a fellow of Trinity College, then first erected by king Henry VIII. In 1548 he took the degree of M.A. and left England a second time on account of the suspicion attached to his character as an astrologer. Upon leaving England, he went to the University of Louvain, where he took the degree of LL.D. In 1551 he returned to England, and obtained the rectory of Upton-upon-Severn; but soon after the accession of queen Mary, he was accused of practising against her life by enchantment. He suffered a tedious confinement on this account, and was several times examined; till, in 1555, he obtained his liberty by an order of council. In 1564 he made another voyage to the continent, to present a book he had dedicated to the emperor Maximilian. He returned to England; but, in 1571

we find him at Lorrain; where, being seriously ill, the queen sent over two physicians for his relief. Having once more returned to his native country, he settled at Mortlake, where he continued his studies with great ardor, and collected a considerable library of curious books and MSS. with various instruments, most of which were afterwards destroyed by the mob. In 1579 queen Elizabeth was desirous of information concerning the recent discoveries of her subjects in America, and commanded Mr. Dee to furnish her with geographical descriptions. Accordingly he appeared before her, in three weeks after, with two volumes on which the new countries were geographically described and historically illustrated: these are preserved in the Cottonian library. Dee became acquainted with one Edward Kelley, by whose assistance he performed various magical operations, and affected, it is said, to converse with the spirits of the dead. In frequent intercourse with the spirit of a nobleman, then in England, named Albert Ruffus, palatine of Siradia, who persuaded him to accompany him to his native country; he visited, successively, Poland, the court of the emperor Rodolph II., and Bohemia, where they returned to England, and Dee was more graciously received by the queen, who made him Warden of Manchester College. In 1604 he returned to his house at Mortlake, where he died in 1608. Queen Elizabeth had made use of Dee, occasionally, as a political agent: he was evidently a man of considerable genius; but his credulousness to astrological and alchemical notions has disgraced his memory. Dr. M. Casaubon, in 1659, 'A true and faithful Relation of the life and death of Dr. John Dee and some of his works'.

DEED, *n. s.* } Sax. *dæd*; D  
DEED'LESS. } Goth. *dad*; Lat. *fr*  
says Minshew; and this from Gr. *d*  
give (effect). An action: any thing d  
performed; a completed legal instrum  
fact; reality. Deedless is, inactive  
without performance of pledges or p

And manye men bileeuyn, and eu  
lechinge and tellynge her *dedis*. *Wiclif.*

The same had not consented to the deed.

They desire, with strange absurdity, same senate it should belong to give full matter of excommunication, and to absolve them, clean contrary to their *deeds* and oaths.

The solicitor gave an evidence for a was impeached to be fraudulent.

From lowest place when virtuous thing  
The place is dignified by the doer's deed

Speaking in deeds, and *deedless* in h

Nor knew I not  
To be with will and deed created

I, on the other side,  
Used no ambition to commend my *deeds*;  
The *deeds* themselves, tho' mute, spoke lo



ter nought replied; for words were vain,  
ould only deeds unjust maintain.

*Dryden.*

secluded from the expectation of re-  
charitable deeds. *Saunders's Sermons.*

, he cried, your female discord end,  
boasters! and the song attend. *Pope.*

in early youth he wont retire  
weet Solitude, and taste her charms  
bosom caught the martial fire;  
his name was great in deeds of arms.

*Gay.*

, then deep and dark blue Ocean—roll!

and fleets sweep over thee in vain;

and the earth with ruin—his control

the shore;—upon the watery plain

are all thy deed.

*Byron.*

, a celebrated town and fortress of  
in the province of Agra. It was  
on the Jauts in the year 1776, by the  
ajuff Khan, after a siege of twelve  
out soon afterwards restored. Here in  
lake defeated the Mahratta army, com-  
y Holkar, and, took this supposed im-  
town by storm. At the peace it was  
the raja Runjeet Sing.

, *s. a. & n. s.* Sax. *ðeman*; *Id.*  
Swed. *doma*; Teut. *doeman*; Gr. of  
dice. To judge; to determine; to  
on consideration: also, as a neuter  
edge, determine, or imagine. Shak-  
as the substantive for judgment or

dom that ghe be not demed. For, in what  
men, ye schulen be demed; and, in what  
men, it schal be meten agen to you.

*Wiclif. Matt. 7.*

that skill not of so heavenly matter,  
y know not, envy, or admire,  
an envy, let them wonder at her,  
arm of her desert aspire. *Spenser.*

as that famous golden apple grew,  
the Ilean ladies disagreed,  
d Paris dempt it Venus' due. *Id.*

and is the union of religion with justice, that  
ly deem there is neither, where both are  
*Hooker.*

my love, be thou but true of heart,  
now? what wicked deem is this?

*Shakespeare.*

He who to be deemed  
aped fondly into *Ætna's* flames. *Milton.*

wings, friend, a deity bestowed;  
as I deem him less than god. *Dryden.*

Nature, disturbed,  
vindictive to have changed her course.

*Thomson.*

They are gone,  
ome: so flows the wave on wave  
e creatures call eternity,  
selves the breakers of the ocean,  
are but its bubbles, ignorant  
their foundation. *Byron.*

er she, who in Love's tranquil bower,  
sweet prize of conquest, not the power;  
me gaze her charms to all prefers,  
m heart returns the warmth of hers,  
e' crowds to half her beauty chill,  
some flirt of fashion fairer still.

*Dr. T. Brown.*

DEEMSTERS, or DEMSTERS. All contro-  
versies in the Isle of Man are decided without  
process, writings, or any charges, by certain  
judges chosen yearly from among themselves,  
called deemsters, there being two for each divi-  
sion of the island: they sit judges in all courts,  
either for life or property; and, with the advice  
of twenty-four keys, declare what is law in un-  
common emergencies.

DEEP, *adj. & n. s.*

DEEP'EN, *v. a. & n.*

DEEP'ENING, *n. s.*

DEEP'LY, *adv.*

DEEP'-MOUTHED,

DEEP'-MUSING,

DEEP'NESS, *n. s.*

Sax. *deep*; Goth. and

Swed. *diup*; Belg. *diep*,

old Goth. *dy*, to which

Serenius traces this word.

Mr. Tooke says, 'it is

merely the past partici-

ple of *bippan*, to dip, or

dive.' Profound; having length downwards;  
depressed; sunk; and, because that which is  
deep in the earth is dark, remote, and un-  
disturbed, gloomy; dark-colored; a dark or  
strong shade of any color; voluminous in sound;  
quiet; still. Also, in a metaphorical sense,  
gloomy; remote in meaning; sagacious; far-  
penetrating. Deep, as a substantive, expresses  
the still and quiet part of night; an abyss; and,  
more particularly, the sea. To deepen is, as an  
active verb, to make deep; to sink low or lower;  
to darken; becloud; make gloomy: as a neuter  
verb, to descend slowly, or by degrees. The  
adverb, and other substantives, follow these  
meanings.

And I saigh an angel comynge down fro heuene,  
hanyng the keye of *depneuse* and a great chayne in  
his hond. *Wiclif. Apoc. 20.*

And the Lord God caused a deep sleep to fall upon  
Adam. *Genesis ii. 21.*

Deep calleth unto deep at the noise of thy water-  
spouts: all thy waves and thy billows are gone over  
me. *Psaln xlii. 7.*

Some fell upon stony places, and they withered,  
because they had no *deepness* of earth. *Mat. xii. 5.*

Hee was close and secrete, a deep dissimuler, lowlye  
of counteynaunce, arrogant of heart, outwardly coun-  
pinable where he inwardely hated, not letting to kisse  
whom he thoughte to kyll. *Sir T. Moore.*

Yet we did lift up our hearts and voices to God  
above, who sheweth his wonders in the deep. *Bacon.*

To keep his promise with him, he had deeply of-  
fended both his nobles and people. *Id. Henry VII.*

He's meditating with two deep divines.

*Shakespeare.*

There want not many that do fear,  
In deep of night, to walk by this Herne's oak. *Id.*

This avarice

Strikes deeper, grows with more pernicious root.

*Id.*

Behold the English beach

Pales in the flood with men, with wives and boys,  
Whose shouts and claps outvoice that deep-mouthed sea.

*Id.*

When I have most need to employ a friend,  
Deep, hollow, treacherous, and full of guile,  
Be he to me. *Id. Richard III.*

Klockings so deeply hath sworn ne'er more to come  
In bawdy-house, that he dares not go home. *Donne.*



If we go down to the great *deep*, the womb of moisture, the well of fountains, the great pond of the world, we know not whether to wonder at the element itself, or the guests which it contains.

*Bishop Hall's Contemplations.*

He in my ear

Vented much policy and projects *deep*  
Of enemies, of aids, battles, and leagues,  
Plausible to the world, to me worth nought.

*Milton.*

And in the lowest *deep*, a lower *deep*,  
Still threatening to devour me opens wide,  
To which the hell I suffer seems a heaven.

*Milton's Paradise Lost.*

For, even in that season of the year, the ways in that vale were very *deep*.

*Clarendon.*

Fear is a passion that is most *deeply* rooted in our natures, and flows immediately from the principle of self-preservation.

*Tillotson.*

You must *deepen* your colours so, that the orpiment may be the highest.

*Peucham.*

What earth in her dark bowels could not keep  
From greedy man, lies safer in the *deep*.

*Waller.*

Having taken of the *deeply* red juice of buckthorn berries, I let it drop upon white paper.

*Boyle.*

The gaping gulph low to the centre lies,  
And twice as *deep* as earth is distant from the skies.

*Dryden.*

Thou hast not strength such labours to sustain :  
Drink hellebore, my boy! drink *deep*, and scour thy brain.

*Id.*

With *deeper* brown the grove was overspread. *Id.*  
Then toils for beasts, and lime for birds were found,  
And *deep-mouthed* dogs did forest walks surround.

*Id.*

If the matter be knotty, and the sense lies *deep*, the mind must stop and buckle to it, and stick upon it with labour and thought, and close contemplation.

*Locke.*

Her gloomy presence saddens all the scene,  
Shades every flower, and darkens every green,  
*Deepens* the murmurs of the falling floods,  
And breathes a browner horror on the woods.

*Pope.*

But he *deep-musing* o'er the mountains strayed,  
Through many thickets of the woodland shade.

*Id.*

The city of Rome would receive a great advantage from the undertaking, as it would raise the banks and *deepen* the bed of the Tiber.

*Addison.*

Virgin face divine  
Attracts the hapless youth through storms and waves,  
Alone in *deep* of night.

*Philips.*

Hills, dales, and forests far behind remain,  
While the warm scent draws on the *deep-mouthed* train.

*Gay.*

While at the bow the watch Arion keeps,  
To shun what cruisers wander o'er the *deeps*.

*Falconer.*

We have to supply means of occupation and subsistence for those, to whom not only England, but Europe is so *deeply* indebted.

*Sir T. Bernard.*

Cosmetic succour won a vermeil hue,  
All soft she spreads, and lo! the rouge is blue!  
In vain she wipes and washes, frets and scrubs,  
The horrid aure *deepens* as she rubs.

*Dr. T. Brown.*

Such writings, though they may be lightly passed over by many readers, yet if they make a *deep* impression on one active mind in a hundred, the effects may be considerable.

*Franklin.*

Her hollow womb,  
Conceiving thunders, through a thousand *deeps*  
And fiery caverns, roars beneath his foot.  
The hills move lightly, and the mountains smoke,  
For he has touched them,

*Conquer.*

Me they revile, with many ills molested,  
They bid me seek from thee, my Lord, red  
On God, they say, his hope and trust he rests  
Let God relieve him in his *deep* distress.

*Kirkc.*

The sweetness of the violet's *deep* blue eye  
Kissed by the breath of heaven, seems colour  
skies.

The Convent bells are ringing,  
But mournfully and slow;  
In the gray square turret swinging,  
With a *deep* sound, to and fro.

*Va.*

The struggle; vain, against the coiling snake  
And gripe, and *deepening* of the dragon's  
The old man's clench; the long evenenom  
Rivets the living links,—the enormous as  
Enforces pang on pang, and stifles gasp on g

DEER, *n. s.* Sax. *deor*; Goth. *dy*  
*dier*; Teut. *their*; from Gr. *θηρ*; *Æ*  
and thence probably from Heb. *אריה*, *w*  
Originally signifying any wild animal  
now confined to the cervine species.

You have beaten my men, killed my  
broke open my lodge.

*Sh.*

The pale that held my lovely *deer*.

I was a stricken *deer* that left the herd  
Long since, with many an arrow *deep* infix  
My panting side was charged, when I with  
To seek a tranquil death in distant shades.

*Cowp.*

DEER, in zoology. See CERVUS. Of  
ful animal there are three principal s  
this country, viz. the stag, *C. elaphus*;  
*C. capreolus*; and *C. dama* the fallow  
castrating the males when newly drop  
Mr. Loudon, which is not in the least dan  
affords the means of having good ven  
Christmas, without any other sort of  
the common grass; they also fatten more  
the operation must, however, be perform  
they are quite young. By stat. 16  
cap. 30., if any person shall hunt or  
snare, or kill or wound any red or fallow  
any forest, chase, &c., whether enclosed  
or in any closed park, paddock, &c., w  
consent of the owner, or be aiding in  
fence, they shall forfeit £20 for the first  
and also £30 for each deer wounded,  
taken. A game-keeper offending, to fo  
ble. For a second offence offenders  
transported for seven years. By stat. 2  
cap. 19, destroying goss, furze, and f  
rests and chases, being the covert for  
jects the offenders to a penalty from  
or to three months' imprisonment

DEER, GREAT, an island of the Ea  
sea, near the west coast of the island o  
Long. 119° 35' E., lat. 5° 12' S.

DEER, LITTLE, a rocky islet in th  
Seas, near the west coast of the island o  
Long. 119° 35' E., lat. 5° 5' S.

DEER ISLAND, or MULDONICH, a sh  
of the Hebrides, near that of Barry.

DEER ISLAND, a small island of Ire  
bay of Galway. Long. 9° W., lat. 53° 9'  
an island on the coast of North Ameri  
nobscot Bay, about eighteen miles in



It is 170 miles north-east of Boston. Long. 30° W., lat. 41° 10' N.

DEFACE, v. a. } Fr. *effacer*; Lat. *defacio*, of *de* & *facies*, a face.

DEFA'CEMENT. } To mar, disfigure, ruin, destroy. Defacement is the injury done. Defacer, he who performs or accomplishes it.

But whence ye fasten nyle be ye maad as ypo-  
crites sorrowful, for thei *defacen* hem self to seme fas-  
tynge to men, treuly I seye to you thei han resseyved  
their meede. *Wiclif, Matt. 6.*

But what is this image, and how is it defaced? the  
poor men of Lyons will tell you, that the image of  
God is purty, and the *defacement* sin. *Bacon.*

Give me leave to speak as earnestly in truly com-  
mending it, as you have done in untruly and unkindly  
*defacing* and slandering it. *Whitgift.*

Pay him six thousand, and *deface* the bond.  
*Shakespeare.*

That lost *defacer* of God's handy work  
Thy womb let loose to chace us to our graves. *Id.*

Fatal this marriage,  
*Defacing* monuments of conquered France,  
Undoing all. *Id.*

As man was the image of God, so was that earthly  
paradise an image of heaven; both the images are  
*defaced*, both the first patterns are eternal.

*Bishop Hall. Contemplations.*

Whose statues, freizes, columns broken lie,  
And, though *defaced*, the wonder of the eye.  
*Dryden.*

One nobler wretch can only rise,  
To be whose fury shall *deface*  
The stoick's image in this piece. *Prior.*

Thy very weeds are beautiful, thy waste  
More rich than other climes' fertility;  
Thy wreck a glory, and thy ruin graced  
With an immaculate charm which cannot be *defaced*.  
*Byron.*

DE FACTO, something actually in fact, or  
existing; in contradiction to *de jure*, where a  
thing is only so in justice: as, a king *de facto*  
is a person who is actually in possession of a  
crown; and a king *de jure* is the person who has  
a just right to the crown. It was a distinction  
much in use at the period of the Revolution.

DEFAILLANCE, n. s. Fr. *defaillance*. Fail-  
ure; miscarriage. Obsolete.

The *defalcations* were the authors of that unhappy  
*defalcation*. *Glanville.*

DEFALCATE, v. a. } Fr. *defalquer*; from  
DEFALCA'TION, n. s. } *fals, falcis* a sickle.  
To cut off; to lop; to take away part of an al-  
lowance.

The table is set forth with its accustomed bill of  
fare, and without any *defalcation*. *Addison.*

DEFALK, v. a. See DEFALCATE. To cut  
off; to lop away.

When he *defalks* from some insipid sin, is but to  
make some other more gustful. *Decoy of Piety.*

DEFAME, v. a. & n. s. } Fr. *defamer*; It.  
DEFAMER, n. s. } *diffamare*; Span.

DEFAMING, n. s. } and Port. *defamar*;  
DEFAMATION, } Latin, *defamare*,

DEFAMATORY, adj. } from Greek, *φῆμη*,  
fame, and *de*, privative. To slander, make infamous,

calumniate, deprive of good fame or honor by  
words or deeds. Defamatory, is libellous; tend-  
ing to defame. The substantives are obvious

in their meaning. In *Wiclif's* translation of the  
New Testament, this word is used in the sense of  
spreading fame or a report; the *de* being only an  
expletive.

And the yghen of hem wearen opened, and Jhe-  
sus throte nyde hem and seide se ye that no man  
wite. But thei gheden out and *defameden* him  
thorough al that lond. *Wiclif. Matt. 9.*

I heard the *defaming* of many. *Jer. xx. 10.*

Many doughty knights he in his days  
Had done to death,  
And hung their conquered arms for more *defame*  
On gallowtrees. *Spenser.*

My guilt thy growing virtues did *defame*;  
My blackness blotted thy unblemished name.

*Dryden.*  
Be silent, and beware, if such you see;  
'Tis *defamation* but to say, that's he. *Id.*

Augustus, conscious to himself of many crimes,  
made an edict against lampoons and satires, and *defama-  
tory* writings. *Id.*

*Defamation* is the uttering of contumelious language  
of any one, with an intent of raising an ill fame of  
the party; and this extends to writing, as by *defama-  
tory* libels; and to deeds, as reproachful postures,  
signs, and gestures. *Ayliffe.*

It may be a useful trial of the patience of the *de-  
famed*, yet the *defamer* has not the less crime.

*Government of the Tongue.*  
The most eminent sin is the spreading of *defamatory*  
reports. *Id.*

They live as if they professed Christianity merely  
in spite, to *defame* it. *Decay of Piety.*

Many dark and intricate motives there are to *de-  
traction* and *defamation*; and many malicious spies are  
searching into the actions of a great man. *Addison.*

DEFAMATION is punishable according to the  
nature of the offence, either by action upon the  
case at common law, or by statute in the eccle-  
siastical court.

DEFATIGATE, v. a. } Lat. *defatigo*. To  
DEFATIGA'TION, n. s. } weary; to tire.

The power of these men's industries, never *defati-  
gated*, hath been great. *Dr. Maine.*

DEFA'ULT, v. a. & n. s. } Old Fr. *default*;  
DEFA'ULTER, n. s. } Ital. *diffalta*; Lat.

*defectus*, *de*, privative, and *facio*, to do. To fail in  
performance. A default is failure of that which  
ought to be done legally or morally. Defect;  
want.

But what man wolde him selfe auise  
His conscience, and nought misuse,  
He maie well at the first excuse  
His God, whiche euer stant in one,  
In him there is *defaute* none. *Gower.*

But sith thou mayst not so, give leave a while  
To baser wit, his power therein to spend,  
Whose grosse *defaults* thy daintie pen may sile  
And unadvised ouer sights amend.

*Spenser. Sonnets.*

Sundrye victories hadde hee, and sometime ouer  
throwes, but neuer in *defaute* as for his owne par-  
sone, either of hardnesse or polytike order.

*Sir T. More.*

We, that know what it is to fast and pray,  
Are penitent for your *default* to-day.

*Shakespeare.*

In *default* of the king's pay, the forces were laid  
upon the subject. *Davies.*



Let me not rashly call in doubt  
Divine prediction : what if all foretold  
Had been fulfilled, but through mine own *default*,  
Whom have I to complain of but myself ? *Milton.*

Partial judges we are of our own excellencies, and  
other men's *defaults*. *Swift.*

Cooks could make artificial birds and fishes, in *de-*  
*fault* of the real ones. *Arbuthnot on Coins.*

DEFEASANCE. } Fr. *defaisance*; Ital.  
DEFEASIBLE. } *defucimento*; Law Lat.  
*defeisantia*. The act of annulling or abrogating  
any contract or stipulation.

That hoary king, with all his train,  
Being arrived where that champion stout,  
After his foe's *defeasance*, did remain,  
Him goodly greets, and fair does entertain.

*Spenser.*

He came to the crown by a *defeasible* title, so was  
never settled. *Davies.*

*Defeasance* is a condition annexed to an act; as to  
an obligation, a recognizance, or statute, which per-  
formed by the obligee, or the cognizee, the act is dis-  
abled and made void, as if it had never been done.

*Cowell.*

DEFEASANCE, or DEFEISANCE. The difference  
between a common condition and a defeasance  
is, that the condition is annexed to, or inserted  
in, the deed; and the defeasance is a deed by it-  
self, concluded and agreed on between the parties,  
and having relation to another deed.

DEFEAT, v. a. & n. s. } Old Fr. *desfaite*,  
DEFEATURE, n. s. } from Lat. *de*, priva-  
tive, and *facere*, to complete an action. To over-  
throw; to frustrate; undo; mar. Shakspeare  
says, 'defeat thy favor,' meaning disguise thy  
face; and defeatures of the face mean disfigura-  
tions of it.

They invaded Ireland, and were *defeated* by the  
lord Mountjoy. *Bacon.*

To his accusations  
He pleaded still not guilty, and alledged  
Many sharp reasons to *defeat* the law. *Shakspeare.*

*Defeat* thy favour with usurped beard.  
Ye gods, ye make the weak most strong. *Id.*

Grief hath changed me,  
And careful hours, with time's deformed hand,  
Hath written strange *defeasures* in my face. *Id.*

Death,

Then due by sentence when thou didst transgress,  
*Defeated* of his seizure many days,  
Given thee of grace. *Milton.*

He finds himself naturally to dread a superior  
Being, that can *defeat* all his designs, and disappoint  
all his hopes. *Tillotson.*

End Marlborough's work, and finish the *defeat*.  
*Addison.*

Oh, more than all !—untired by time :  
Which, nor *defeated* hope, nor baffled will,  
Could render sullen were she ne'er to smile,  
Nor rage could fire, nor sickness fret to vent  
On her one murmur of his discontent. *Byron.*

DEFECATION. n. s. } Lat. *defecatio*. From  
DEFECATE, v. a. & adj. } *de* and *facis*, *facis*,  
filth. To purge or make clear from lees; to pu-  
rify.

This liquor was very *defecate*, and of a pleasing  
golden colour. *Boyle.*

The blood is not sufficiently *defecated* or clarified,  
but remains muddy, *Harvey.*

We *defecate* the notion from material  
abstract quantity, place, and all kind of corp-  
it.

Provide a brazen tube  
Inflex; self-taught and voluntary flies  
The *defecated* liquor, through the vent  
Ascending; then, by downward tract con-  
Spouts into subject vessels lovely clear.

DEFE'CT, n. s. & v. n. } Fr. *defect*  
DEFECTION, n. s. } *defetto*; L.  
DEFE'CTIVE, adj. } *fecto*; L.  
DEFE'CTIVELY, adv. } *tus*, from  
DEFE'CTIVENESS, n. s. } *tive* and  
DEFE'CTIBLE, adj. } *tus*, to d  
DEFECTIB'ILITY, } neuter ve

deficient; to fall short of; to fail. De-  
substantive, is want; insufficiency;  
that which is proper to a person or th-  
hence injury; mistake; error. Defectio-  
ing away; an act or course of apos-  
abandonment: defectible, imperfect;  
defectibility, a state of deficiency, or imp-

This *defection* and falling away from Go-  
found in angels, and afterwards in men.

We had rather follow the perfections  
whom we like not, than in *defects* reason  
whom we love.

Neither can this be meant of evil gov-  
tyrants, but of some perverseness and *defect*  
very nation itself.

Oft 'tis seen

Our mean secures us, and our mere *defec*  
Prove our commodities. *Sh.*

You praise yourself,  
By laying *defects* of judgment to me.

Errors have been corrected, and *defects* su

He was diverted and drawn from hen-  
general *defection* of the whole realm.

Some lost themselves in attempts above h-  
yet the enquiries of most *defected* by the  
tired within the sober circumference of kno-  
*Browne's Vulgar*

Nor will polished amber, although it see  
gross and corporeal exhalament, be four  
time *defective* upon the exactest scales.

The extraordinary persons, thus highly  
were for a great part of their lives in  
ible condition.

The corruption of things corruptible depe-  
the intrinsic *defectibility* of the connection  
of the parts of things corporal. *Id. Origin of I*

Men, through some *defect* in the orga-  
words, yet fail not to express their universal  
signs.

It will very little help to cure my ignor-  
this is the best of four or five hypotheses  
which are all *defective*.

If we fall away after tasting of the good  
God, how criminal must such a *defection* be

"Trust not yourself; but, your *defects* to k  
Make use of ev'ry friend—and ev'ry foe.

Had this strange energy been less,  
*Defect* had been as fatal as excess. *Bi*

If it renders us perfect in one accompl-  
generally leaves us *defective* in another.

The lowness often opens the building in b-  
the *defectiveness* of some other particular n  
single part appear in perfection.

more evil owing to our original *defection* and the foolish and evil dispositions that fallen man.

Watts.

uth has less of that prudence which is manage a family, yet the parents and of young married persons are generally afford their advice, which amply supplies

Franklin.

achieved—though barbarous wreck o'er-row  
ine, and lay its glories low;  
e sculptured ruin rise to day,  
fect, and worshipped in decay.

Sheridan.

VD, v. a.

Fr. v. a. & n. s.

BLESS, adj.

BLE, OF

BLE,

ANT, n. s. & adj.

EL,

ATIVE, n. s.

BLE, adj.

VE, adj. & n. s.

VELY, adv.

, past part.

cate. Hence to repel; keep off, from  
rb; and therefore to forbid or beat  
it, from the French. See the examples  
er and Milton. To defence, though  
ised as an active verb in the received  
f the Bible. Defenceless is, without  
defendible, that which may be de-  
is also defensible: and hence the  
se signifies justifiable; right: de-  
ed as an adjective by Shakspeare.  
der seem, in a general sense, syno-  
t, legally, the defendant is the party  
o is sued or accused. A defensa-  
rd, or, in surgery, a protecting band-  
er. A defensive is also that which  
nd. The adjective means proper  
or protection, as distinguished from  
e adverb and participle explain

e thing that ghe ben sorowful aftr god,  
nesse it worchith in ghou, but defend-  
acioun, but drede, but desier, but loue,

Wiclif. 2 Cor. vii.

to hem that axen me, that is whethir we  
to ete and drynke? Id. 1 Cor. 9.

from mine enemies, O my God: de-  
hem that rise up against me.

Psaln lix. 1.

welt in Jerusalem, and built cities for  
th. 2 Chron. ii. 5.

so vous dis, Thomas, Thomas!

e fend, this muste ben amended,  
hat high God hath defended.

Chaucer. Cant. Tales.

tive, upon just fears, are true defen-  
on actual invasions. Bacon.

ake themselves defensible both against  
against strangers. Id.

fend your souls, that you think  
ious and great business scant.

Shakspeare.

your defenders, till at length  
ance deliver you,  
ated captives, to some nation  
you without blows. Id.

Fr. *defendre*;

Span. *defender*;

Ital. *difendere*;

Lat. *defendere*,

*defensus*, from

*ἀποδύω*, 'to

fight with a

sling,' as Min-

sheu suggests.

To protect;

shield; sup-

port; make se-

A field,  
Which nothing but the sound of Hotspur's name  
Did seem to make *defensible*. Id

Line and new repair our towns of war  
With men of courage, and with means *defendant*. Id.

This is the day appointed for the combat,  
And ready are the' appellants and *defendant*. Id.  
Stout men of arms, and with their guide of power,  
Like Troy's old town *defenst* with Ilion's tower.

Fairfax.

My unpreparedness for war testifies for me that  
I am set on the *defensive* part. King Charles.

O sons! like one of us man is become,  
To know both good and evil, since his taste  
Of that *defended* fruit. Milton.

My sister is not so *defenceless* left  
As you imagine: she has a hidden strength  
Which you remember not. Id.

A village near it was *defended* by the river.  
Clarendon.

His majesty, not at all dismayed, resolved to stand  
upon the *defensive* only. Id.

So lawyers, lest the Bear *defendant*,  
And plaintiff Dog, should make an end on't;  
Do stave and tail with writs of error,  
Reverse of judgment, and demurrer. Hudibras.

A very unsafe *defensive* it is against the fury of  
the lion, and surely no better than virginity, or blood  
royal, which Pliny doth place in cock-broth.

Broune's Vulgar Errors.

Severe *defences* may be made against wearing any  
linen under a certain breadth. Temple.

The use of wine is little practised, and in some  
places *defended* by customs or laws. Id.

Undoubtedly there is no way so effectual to betray  
the truth, as to procure it a weak *defender*. South.

If the bishop has no other *defensatives* but excom-  
munication, no other power but that of the keys, he  
may surrender up his pastoral staff. Id.

And here the' access a gloomy grove *defends*  
And here the' unnavigable lake extends. Dryden.

Do'st thou not mourn our power employed in vain,  
And the *defenders* of our city slain? Id.

He would not be persuaded by danger to offer any  
offence, but only to stand upon the best *defensive*  
guard he could. Sidney.

Let me be foremost to *defend* the throne,  
And guard my father's glories and my own.

Pope.

Having often heard Venice represented as one of  
the most *defensible* cities in the world, I informed  
myself in what its strength consists. Addison.

There is nothing so bad which will not admit of  
something to be said in its *defence*. Sterne.

Those high towers, out of which the Romans might  
more conveniently fight with the *defendants* on the  
wall, those also were broken by Archimedes' engines.  
Wilkins's Math. Magic.

I conceive it very *defensible* to disarm an adversary,  
and disable him from doing mischief. Collier.

If I could not avoid his company, why did I not  
arm myself? Why did I venture *defenceless* into so  
much danger. Mason.

The car of victory, the plume, the wreath,  
*Defend* not from the bolt of fate, the brave.

Beattie.

DEFENDER OF THE FAITH. Fidei defensor, a  
peculiar title belonging to the king of England;  
as Catholicus to the king of Spain, and Christian-



issimus to the king of France, &c. These titles were originally given by the popes. That of Fidei defensor was first conferred by Leo X. on king Henry VIII. for his memorable book against Martin Luther; and the bull for it bears date quinto idus Octob. 1521. It was afterwards confirmed by Clement VII. Chamberlayne says, the title belonged to the kings of England before that time; and for proof hereof appeals to several charters granted to the university of Oxford: so that pope Leo's bull was only a renovation of the ancient right.

DEFER, *v. a. & v. n.* Fr. *differer*; Span. *differir*; Ital. *differire*; Lat. *differre*, from *de* and *fero*, to bear away. To put away for a time; to put off; delay; withhold. It is also used for refer, and thus becomes the parent of the substantive deference.

The commissioners *deferred* the matter unto the earl of Northumberland, who was the principal man of authority in those parts *Bacon.*

He will not long *defer*  
To vindicate the glory of his name  
Against all competition, nor will long  
Endure it. *Milton.*

Neither is this a matter to be *deferred* till a more convenient time of peace and leisure. *Swift.*

Inure thyself betimes to the love and practice of good deeds; for the longer thou *deferrest* to be acquainted with them, the less every day thou wilt find thyself disposed to them. *Atterbury.*

*Defer* the promised boon the goddess cries.

Be wise to-day; 'tis madness to *defer*;  
Next day the fatal precedent will plead;  
Thus on, till wisdom is pushed out of life. *Pope.*

DEFERENCE, *n. s.* Fr. *deference*. Regard; respect. See DEFER.

Virgil could have excelled Varius in tragedy, and Horace in lyric poetry, but out of *deference* to his friends he attempted neither. *Dryden.*

A natural roughness makes a man uncomplaisant to others; so that he has no *deference* for their inclinations, tempers, or conditions. *Locke.*

He may be convinced that he is in an error, by observing those persons, for whose wisdom and goodness he has the greatest *deference*, to be of a contrary sentiment. *Swift.*

*Deference* is the most complicate, the most indirect, and the most elegant of all compliments. *Shenstone.*

Most of our fellow-subjects are guided either by the prejudice of education, or by a *deference* to the judgment of those who, perhaps, in their own hearts, disapprove the opinions which they industriously spread among the multitude. *Addison.*

We ought to show the regard, *deference*, and honour, which belong to superiors; and the candour, integrity, and benevolence, we owe to all. *Mason.*

DEFERENT, *adj. & n. s.* From Lat. *deferens*, of *defero*. See DEFER. That which carries or conveys. That carries up and down.

The figures of pipes or concaves, through which sounds pass, or of other bodies *deferent*, conduce to the variety and alteration of the sound. *Bacon.*

It is certain, however, it crosses the received opinion, that sounds may be created without air, though air be the most favourable *deferent* of sounds. *Id.*

DEFFAND (Marie du), a French lady, distinguished both for her talents and extensive acquaintance with the literati of the last century, was born in 1696, and was the daughter of Gaspard de Vichy, comte de Champ-Rond. She received an excellent education, but no care seems to have been taken to regulate her temper and moral habits, which displayed throughout her life a disgusting portion of selfishness. In 1713 she married J. B. J. du Deffand, marquis de la Lande, whose ancestors had signalised themselves by their attachment to the dukes of Burgundy. Madame du Deffand left no monument of her abilities except her Correspondence, which has been highly praised by D'Alembert, as affording a model of epistolary style. She died in 1780, having, during the last thirty years of her life, been afflicted with blindness. In 1810 appeared Correspondance inedit de Madame du Deffand avec D'Alembert, Montesquieu, le president Hault, la Duchesse du Maine; Mesdames de Choiseul, de Stael; le Marquis d'Argens, le Chevalier d'Aydie, &c., 3 vols. 8vo. Her Letters to Horace Walpole have also been printed.

DEFIANCE. See DEFY.

DEFICIENCE, or DEFICIENCY, *n. s.* Lat. *deficio*; de privative, and *facio*, to make. Want, imperfection, defect. Deficient; defective, imperfect. See DEFECT.

Figures are either simple or mixed: the simple be either circular or angular; and of circular, either complete, as circles, or deficient, as ovals. *Wetia.*

O woman! best of all things as the will  
Of God ordained them: his creating hand  
Nothing imperfect or deficient left. *Miln.*

Thou in thyself art perfect, and in thee  
Is no deficiency found. *Id.*

Scaliger finding a defect in the reason of Aristotle, introduceth one of no less deficiency himself.

*Broune's Vulgar Errors.*

Neither Virgil nor Homer were deficient in any of the former beauties. *Dryden.*

The characters of comedy and tragedy are never made perfect, but always to be drawn with some specks of frailty and deficiency, such as they have been described to us in history. *Id.*

Several thoughts of the mind, for which we have either none or very deficient names, are diligently to be studied. *Locke.*

What great deficiency is it if we come short of others? *Sprat.*

There is no burden laid upon our posterity, nor any deficiency to be hereafter made up by ourselves, which has been our case in so many other subsidies. *Addison.*

DEFILE, *v. a. & n. s.* Compounded of DEFIL'ER, *n. s.* } de and foul. Sax.  
DEFIL'EMENT. } asylan. Goth. *fyile*;

Belg. *vuyt*; from the Gr. *φάωλος*, vile, unclean. Minsheu. To make foul, or unclean; to pollute, violate, corrupt, taint; and hence to calumniate.

That which dieth of itself he shall not eat to defile himself therewith. *Lev. xvii. 8.*

Forgetfulness of good turns, *defiling* of souls, adultery, and shameless uncleanness. *Wisd. xiv. 26.*



There is a thing, Harry, known to many in our land by the name of pitch; this pitch, as ancient writers do report, doth *defile*. *Shakspeare.*

Lust,

By unchaste looks, loose gestures, and foul talk,  
Lets in *defilement* to the inward parts. *Milton.*

God requires rather that we should die, than *defile* ourselves with impieties. *Stillington.*

Every object his offence reviled;  
The husband murdered, and the wife *defiled*. *Prior.*

He is justly reckoned among the greatest prelates of this age, however his character may be *defiled* by mean and dirty hands. *Swift.*

Let not any instances of sin *defile* your requests. *Wake.*

The unchaste are provoked to see their vice exposed, and the chaste cannot rake into such filth without danger of *defilement*. *Spectator.*

At the last tremendous day, I shall hold forth in my arms my much wronged child, and call aloud for vengeance on her *defiler*. *Addison.*

Thus when Cambyzes led his barbarous hosts  
From Persia's rocks to Egypt's trembling coasts,  
*Defiled* each hallowed fane, and sacred wood,  
And, drunk with fury, swelled the Nile with blood. *Darwin.*

DEFILE, v. a. & n. s. Fr. *defile*, from file, a line of soldiers, itself derived from Lat. *filum*, a thread. To pass off in files; a narrow passage; a long narrow pass; a lane.

There is in Oxford a narrow *defile*, to use the military term, where the partisans used to encounter. *Addison.*

It has been mentioned by a writer of military manoeuvres, that *defiling* should be performed with rapidity, &c. *James.*

DEFILE, in war, a narrow lane or passage, through which a company of horse or foot can pass only in file, by making a small front; so that the enemy may take an opportunity to stop their march, and to charge them with so much the more advantage, as those in front and rear cannot reciprocally come to the relief of one another.

DEFINE, v. a. & v. n.

DEFINABLE, adj.

DEFINER, n. s.

DEFINITE, n. s. & adj.

DEFINITENESS,

DEFINITION,

DEFINITIVE,

DEFINITIVELY.

DEFINITIVENESS.

DEFINITION, to decide, determine. Definable is, capable of being defined. Definer, he who defines; and hence he who explains or describes a thing. Define is, precise; exact; determined; and sometimes it is used as a substantive. Definiteness is, certainty; limitedness. Definition, the act or form of defining; is the concise description of a thing. Definitive is, determinate; express; final. Definitiveness, decisiveness.

The sagacious judge is the capital remover of land-marks, when he *defineth* amiss of lands and properties. *Bacon.*

Idiots in this case of favour,  
Would be wisely *definite*. *Shakspeare.*

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Definitively thus I answer you :

Your love deserves my thanks; but my desert,  
Unmeritable, shuns your high request. *Id.*

Bellarmino saith, because we think that the body of Christ may be in many places at once, locally and visibly; therefore we may say and hold, that the same body may be circumspectively and *definitively* in more places at once. *Hall.*

Other authors write often dubiously, even in matters wherein is expected a strict and *definitive* truth. *Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

Definitions do not tell an sit, but quid sit; the first is to be supposed before any *definition* is to be inquired after. *Bishop Taylor.*

The Supreme Nature we cannot otherwise *define*, than by saying it is infinite; as if infinite were *definable*, or infinity a subject for our narrow understanding. *Dryden.*

I drew my *definition* of poetical wit from my particular consideration of him; for propriety of thoughts and words is only to be found in him. *Id.*

Though *defining* be thought the proper way to make known the proper signification, yet there are some words that will not be *defined*. *Locke.*

Whose loss can'st thou mean,

That dost so well their miseries *define*? *Sidney.*

Either to your labour divers times he repaired, and here, by your means, had the sight of the goddess, who, in a *definite* compass, can set forth infinite beauty. *Id.*

Concerning the time of the end of the world the question is, whether that time be *definable* or *Burnet's Theory.*

So universally does repetition contribute to our pleasure in the fine arts, that beauty itself has been *defined* by some writers to consist in a due combination of uniformity and variety. *Darwin.*

Your God, forsooth, is found

Incomprehensible and infinite;

But is he therefore found? Vain searcher, no;

Let your imperfect *definition* show,

That nothing you, the weak *definer*, know. *Prior.*

When the rings appeared only black and white, they were very distinct and well *defined*, and the blackness seemed as intense as that of the central spot. *Newton.*

What is man? Not a reasonable animal merely; for that is not an adequate and distinguishing *definition*. *Bentley.*

Special bastardy is nothing else but the *definition* of the general; and the general, again, is nothing else but a *definite* of the special. *Ayliffe.*

DEFINITE, in grammar, is applied to an article that has a precise determinate signification; such as the article *the* in English, *le* and *la* in French, &c., which fix and ascertain the noun to which they belong; whereas *a*, *an*, *un*, or *une*, mark nothing particular, and are therefore called indefinite. See ARTICLE.

DEFLAGRABLE, adj. } From Lat. *defla-*  
DEFLAGRATION, n. s. } *gro.* Combustibi-

DEFLAGRABILITY, n. s. } lity; the quality of taking fire, and burning totally away.

The true reason why paper is not burned by the flame that plays about it, seems to be, that the aqueous part of the spirit of wine, being imbibed by the paper, keeps it so moist, that the flame of the sulphureous parts of the same spirit cannot fasten on it; 1



and therefore, when the *deflagration* is over, you shall always find the paper moist. *Boyle.*

Our chymical oils, supposing that they were exactly pure, yet they would be, as the best spirit of wine is, but the more inflammable and *deflagrable*.

*Id.*

We have spent more time than the opinion of the ready *deflagrability*, if I may so speak, of salt petre did permit us to imagine. *Id.*

DEFLECT', *v. a.* } From Lat. *de* and *flec-*  
DEFLECTION, *n. s.* } *to*, to turn. To turn  
DEFLEXURE, *n. s.* } aside; to deviate.

At some parts of the Azores the needle *deflecteth* not, but lieth in the true meridian: on the other side of the Azores, and this side of the equator, the north point of the needle wheel<sup>eth</sup> to the west.

*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

Needles incline to the south on the other side of the equator; and at the very line, or middle circle, stand without *deflection*. *Id.*

For, did not some from a straight course *deflect*, They could not meet, they could no world erect.

*Blackmore.*

As by the cultivation of various sciences, a language is amplified, it will be more furnished with words *deflected* from their original sense.

*Johnson. Preface to Dictionary.*

DEFLECTION OF THE RAYS OF LIGHT, a property which Dr. Hook observed in 1675, and read an account of before the Royal Society, March 18th, the same year. He says he found it different both from reflection and refraction, and that it was made towards the surface of the opaque body, perpendicularly. This property Sir Isaac Newton calls inflection.

DEFLOUR', *v. a.* } Fr. *deflorer*; Span. *des-*  
DEFLOUR'ER, *n. s.* } *florar*; Lat. *deflorare*;  
DEFLOURATION, *n. s.* } from *de* privative and  
*floreo*, *flos*, *floris*, a flower. To violate a virgin; hence to mar or deface any thing that is beautiful; to select the most valuable of a number of things. The meaning of the substantives is obvious.

How on a sudden lost,

Defaced, *deflowered*, and now to death devote!

*Milton.*

The laws of Normandy are, in a great measure, the *defloration* of the English laws, and a transcript of them. *Hale.*

If he died young, he died innocent, and before the sweetness of his soul was *deflowered* and ravished from him by the flames and follies of a froward age.

*Taylor.*

I have often wondered, that those *deflowers* of innocence, though dead to all the sentiments of virtue and honour, are not restrained by humanity.

*Addison.*

DEFLUX, *n. s.* } Lat. *defluxio*, from *de*,  
DEFLUOUS, *adj.* } and *fluo*, to flow. The  
DEFLUXION, *n. s.* } flow of humors downwards.

Both bodies are clammy, and bridle the *deflux* of humours, without penning them in too much.

*Bacon.*

We see that taking cold moveth looseness by contraction of the skin and outward parts; and so doth cold, likewise, cause rheums and *defluxions* from the head. *Id.*

DEFTLY, *adv.* From DEFT, which see. Dexterosly; skilfully. Obsolete. Properly *deftly*.

Lo, how finely the graces can it foot

To the instrument;

They dauncen *deftly*, and singen soote,

In their merriment.

*Spenser.*

DE FOE (Daniel), a celebrated miscellaneous writer of the last and preceding century. When king William, to allay the dissent of the people, was obliged to dismiss his Dutch guards, De Foe ridiculed the enemies of government in a well-known poem, called the True-Born Englishman. He next wrote a tract, called the Shortest Way with the Dissenters, a satire on those who now, having the power, wished to retaliate on the Romanists and dissenters those persecutions they had loudly complained of when inflicted on themselves. For this he was sentenced to the pillory, which so little intimidated him, that, in defiance of this usage, he wrote a Hymn to the Pillory. It is unnecessary to enumerate all his publications: the following are the principal. The History of the Plague in 1665; a novel, entitled The History of Colonel Jack; a New Voyage Round the World by a Company of Merchants, printed for Bettesworth, 1725; The History of Roxana; Memoirs of a Cavalier; The History of Moll Flanders; a religious romance, entitled Religious Courtship; and The Life and Adventures of Robinson Crusoe, a well-known tale, of which there have been editions without number. The basis of this popular story was afforded by the real history of a Scottish sailor, Alexander Selkirk, who had been left ashore on the island of Juan Fernandez. Selkirk used to relate his adventures at a coffee-house in London, where money was frequently given him by the company, and where De Foe so often heard them, that out of them he formed the above mentioned history. De Foe's malignant enemies have misrepresented this to his disadvantage. He died at Islington in 1731.

DEFEDATION, *n. s.* Lat. from *defedus*, of *de* and *fadus*, foul. The act of making filth; pollution. This is not an English word; at least, to make it English, it should be written *defedation*, says Dr. Johnson.

What native unextinguishable beauty must be impressed and instinctured through the whole, which the *defedation* of so many parts by a bad printer, and worse editor, could not hinder from shining forth.

*Bentley.*

DEFORCEMENT, *n. s.* from force. A withholding of lands and tenements by force from the right owner. 'It may be grounded,' says Blackstone, 'on the disability of the party *deforced*.'

DEFORM', *v. a. & adj.* } Fr. *déformer*; Ital.  
DEFORM'ED, *part. adj.* } *difformare*; Span.  
DEFORMATION, *n. s.* } *deformar*; Lat. *de-*  
DEFORM'EDLY, *adv.* } *formare*; i. e. *demere*  
DEFORM'EDNESS, *n. s.* } *formam*, to take away  
DEFORM'ITY. } beauty. To disfigure; to mar the form of any thing; to dishonor, disgrace. Deformation is a defacing, disfiguring. Deformity is ugliness, irregularity of form; hence inordinateness, ridiculousness.



I did proclaim,  
That whoso killed that monster most deform,  
Should have mine only daughter to his dame.

Spenser.

I that am curtailed of all fair proportion,  
Cheated of feature by dissembling nature,  
Deformed, unfinished, sent before my time  
Into this breathing world, scarce half made up.

Shakespeare.

Where sits deformity to mock my body,  
To shape my legs of an unequal size,  
To disproportion me in every part.

Id.

No glory is more to be envied than that of due re-  
forming either church or state, when deformities are  
such, that the perturbation and novelty are not like to  
exceed the benefit of reforming.

King Charles.

Why should not man,  
Retaining still divine similitude  
In part, from such deformities be free,  
And for his Maker's image sake, exempt?

Milton.

So spake the grisly terror; and in shape,  
So speaking and so threatening, grew tenfold  
More dreadful and deform.

Id.

Old men with dust deformed their hoary hair.

Dryden.

It is well known what strange work there has been  
in the world, under the name and pretence of reforma-  
tion; how often it has turned out to be, in reality,  
deformation; or, at best, a tinkering sort of business,  
where, while one hole has been mended, two have  
been made.

Bishop Horne.

Affectation is certain deformity; by forming them-  
selves on fantastic models, the young begin with being  
ridiculous, and often end in being vicious.

Blair.

Had no Power presented me  
The possibility of change, I would  
Have done the best which Spirit may, to make  
his way, with all Deformity's dull, deadlly,  
Discouraging, weight upon me, like a mountain.

Byron.

DEFORMITY may be defined, in general, the  
want of uniformity; though it certainly does not,  
as some have supposed, include the want of that  
perfect degree of uniformity that is necessary to  
constitute beauty. Many are the objects in na-  
ture that cannot be said to be beautiful, and yet  
are by no means deformed. Deformity is either  
natural or moral. These are both referred by  
Mr. Hutcheson to an internal sense; and our  
perceptions of them, as he supposes, arise from  
an original arbitrary structure of our own minds,  
by which certain objects, when observed, are  
considered the occasions of certain sensations and  
affections. See BEAUTY.

DEFRAUD, *v. a.* } Fr. *defraudar*; Span.  
DEFRAUDATION, *n. s.* } *defraudar*; Lat. *defraus-*  
DEFRAUDER. } *dare*, from *de* and *fraus*,  
*fraus*, deceit. To cheat; deceive; beguile  
of something: always taking of before the thing  
gained. Defraudation is privation by deceit or  
guile. Defrauder, he who cheats another of his  
property.

My son, defraud not the poor of his living, and  
make not the needy eyes to wait long. Eccl. iv. 1.

Churches seem injured and defrauded of their rights,  
when places, not sanctified as they are, prevent them  
unnecessarily in that pre-eminence and honour.

Houder.

Their imposture are worse than any other, de-  
luding not only into pecuniary defraudations, but the  
irreparable deceit of death. *Bronne's Vulgar Errors.*

There they, who brothers better claim disown,  
Expel their parents, and usurp the throne;  
Defraud their clients, and, to lucre sold,  
Sit brooding on unprofitable gold.

Dryden.

There is a portion of our lives which every wise man  
may justly reserve for his own particular use, without  
defrauding his native country.

Id.

But now he seized Briseis' heavenly charms,  
And of my valour's prize defrauded my arms.

Pope.

The profligate in morals grows severe,  
Defrauders just, and sycophants sincere.

Blackmore.

DEFRA'Y, *v. a.* } Fr. *defrayer*, accord-  
DEFRA'YER, *n. s.* } ing to Minsheu, from  
DEFRA'YMENT, *n. s.* } the old Fr. *fredun*, a  
fine. Rather, from *de*, and *fra'is*, Fr. expense. It  
may, however, be nothing more than a com-  
pound of the English verb, free. To pay expenses;  
to discharge a charge made; defrayment is, com-  
pensation; satisfaction. Defrayer, he who pays  
or discharges an account.

He would, out of his own revenue, defray the  
charges belonging to the sacrifices. 2 Mac. ix. 16.

It is easy to lay a charge upon any town; but to  
foresee how the same may be answered and defrayed,  
is the chief part of good advisement.

Spencer's State of Ireland.

It is long since any stranger arrived in this part,  
and therefore take ye no care; the state will defray  
you all the time you stay; neither shall you stay one  
day the less for that.

Bacon.

DEFT, *adj.* Sax. *ðæft*. Obsolete. Neat;  
handsome; spruce; fitting.

You go not the way to examine; you must call the  
watch that are their accusers.

— Yea, marry, that's the deftest way.

Shakespeare.

Come, high or low,

Thyself and office deftly show. Id. Macbeth.

Loud fits of laughter seized the guests, to see  
The limping god so deft at his new ministry.

Dryden.

The wanton calf may skip with many a bound,  
And my cur, Tray, play deftest feats around. Gay.

Young Colin Clout, a lad of peerless meed,  
Full well could dance, and deftly tune the reed. Id.

DEFUNCT, *n. s.* & *adj.* } Lat. *defunctus*,  
DEFUNCTIO, *n. s.* } of *de* and *fungor*,  
to finish. In a state of death; dead.

Nature doth abhor to make his couch  
With the defunct, or sleep upon the dead.

Shakespeare.

I therefore beg it not

To please the palate of my appetite;  
Nor to comply with heat, the young effects  
In me defunct, and proper satisfaction. Id.

Here entity and quiddity,

The souls of defunct bodies, &c. Hudibras.

In many cases, the searchers are able to report the  
opinion of the physician who was with the patient, as  
they receive the same from the friends of the defunct.

Grant.

DEFY, *v. a.* & *n. s.* } Sax. and Teut. *figan*;  
DEFY'ER, *n. s.* } Goth. *figa*; Fr. *defier*;  
DEFI'ANCE. } Span. *desufier*; Ital. *dis-*  
*sidere*, from Lat. *dissidere*, to differ; because,



says Minsheu, we differ with those whom we defy. To dare; to challenge; to call to combat; to despise; to disdain; to deny. Defy is used as a substantive by Dryden, but not commonly. Defiance is the instrument or mode of challenge; any expression of enmity, abhorrence, or contempt.

I knowe her eke a false dissimulour,  
For finally fortune I do *defie*.

Chaucer. *Proh. to Cant. Tales.*

As many fools that stand in better place,  
Garnished like him, that for a tricky word  
*Defy* the matter. *Shakspeare.*

The fiery Tybalt, with his sword prepared,  
Which, as he breathed *defiance* to my ears,  
He swung about his head. *Id.*

I once again  
*Defy* thee to the trial of mortal fight. *Milton.*

How many of us can bid *defiance* to death, and suggest answers to absent temptations, which when they come home to us, we fly off, and change our note.

Bp. Hall's *Contemplations.*

Nor shall it e'er be said that wight  
With gantlet blue and bases white,  
And round blunt truncheon by his side  
So great a man at arms *defyed*. *Hudibras.*

Is it not then high time that the laws should pro-  
curb those bold and insolent *defiers* of heaven?

Tillotson.

At this the challenger, with fierce *defy*,  
His trumpet sounds; the challenged makes reply:  
With clangour rings the field, resounds the vaulted  
sky. *Dryden.*

Nor is it just to bring  
A war without a just *defiance* made. *Id.*

Nobody will so openly bid *defiance* to common sense,  
as to affirm visible and direct contradictions. *Locke.*

Here let the pippin, fretted o'er with gold,  
In fostering straw *defy* the winter's cold;  
The hardier russet here will safely keep,  
And dusky rennet, with its crimson cheek.

Sheridan.

And one enormous shout of 'Allah!' rose  
In the same moment, loud as even the roar  
Of war's most mortal engines, to their foes  
Hurling *defiance*. *Byron.*

DEGEN'ERATE, *v. n. & adj.* Fr. *dégénérer*;  
DEGEN'ERACY, *n. s.* Span. *degenerar*;  
DEGEN'ERATENESS, Ital. *dégenerare*; Lat.  
DEGEN'ERATIVE, tin, *degenero*;  
DEGEN'EROUS, *adj.* from *de* and  
DEGEN'EROUSLY, *adv.* *genere errare*, to wander from its kind.

To fall off from the virtue or fame of one's ancestors; to decline in station, in kind, or in class: as an adjective, unlike or unequal to ancestry; unworthy; base. Degeneracy, degenerateness, and degeneration are synonymous, and signify a state or act that exhibits degradation from the excellence or honor of ancestors; an apostasy or declining from that which is good. Degenerous is synonymous with degenerated.

Most of those fruits that used to be grafted, if they be set of kernels or stones, *degenerate*. *Bacon.*

Thou art like enough

To fight against me under Piercy's pay;  
To cog his heels, and curtsy at his frowns,  
To show how much thou art *degenerate*. *Shakspeare.*

Let not the tumultuary violence of some men's immoderate demands ever betray me to that *degenerous* and unmanly slavery, which should make me strengthen them by my consent. *King Charles.*

In plants, these transplantations are obvious; as barley into oats, of wheat into darnell; and those grains which generally arise among corn, as cockle, aracus, ægilops, and other *degenerations*.

Brown's *Vulgar Errors.*

So all shall turn *degenerate*, all depraved;  
Justice and temperance, truth and faith, forgot!  
One man except. *Milton.*

When wit transgresseth decency, it *degenerates* into insolence and impiety. *Tillotson.*

'Tis true, we have contracted a great deal of weakness and impotency by our wilful *degeneracy* from goodness; but that grace, which the gospel offers to us for our assistance, is sufficient for us. *Id.*

Fair, tall, his limbs with due proportion joined;  
But of a heavy dull *degenerate* mind,  
His soul belied the features of his face;  
Beauty was there, but beauty in disgrace. *Dryden.*

Degenerous passion, and for man too base,  
It seats its empire in the female race;  
There rages, and, to make its blow secure,  
Puts flattery on, until the aim be sure. *Id.*

When a man so far becomes *degenerate* as to quit the principles of human nature, and to be a noxious creature, there is commonly an injury done some person or other. *Locke.*

Degenerate from their ancient brood,  
Since first the court allowed them food.

Swift.

The ruin of a state is generally preceded by an universal *degeneracy* of manners, and contempt of religion, which is entirely our case at present. *Id.*

How wounding a spectacle is it to see heroes, like Hercules at the distaff, thus *degenerously* employed! *Decoy of Piety.*

There is a kind of sluggish resignation, as well as poorness and *degeneracy* of spirit, in a state of slavery. *Addison.*

When we think of the infinite purity of God, who cannot behold iniquity; and consider the corrupted and *degenerate* state of human nature; this is apt to make us more apprehensive than is reasonable, of the difficulty of our duty. *Clarke's Sermons.*

Tongues, like governments, have a natural tendency to *degeneration*; we have long preserved our constitution, let us make some struggles for our language. *Johnson. Preface to Dictionary.*

DEGLUTITION, *n. s.* Lat. *deglutitio*, of *de* and *glutitio*, from Gr. *γλῦζω*, to swallow.—Ainsworth. The act or power of swallowing.

When the *deglutition* is totally abolished, the patient may be nourished by clysters. *Arbuthnot on Diet.*

DEGLUTITION, in the animal economy, is performed in the first place by means of the tongue, driving the aliment into the œsophagus or gullet, and then, by the contraction of the sphincter, and the fleshy fibres of the œsophagus, which, lessening its aperture, protrude the contents downward into the stomach. In its course, by pressing the glands, the food itself increases the mucus required for lubrication, and thus easily passes without irritation.

DEGRADE, *v. a.* } Fr. *dégrader*; Span.  
DEGRADATION, *n. s.* } *degradir*; Ital. *disgradaire*; from Lat. *de* privative, and *gradus* a step.



To deprive of rank or degree; to reduce from a higher to a lower rank or value. Degradation is the state of deprivation so effected; dismissal from trust or office.

He should

Be quite *degraded*, like a hedgeborn swain,  
That doth presume to boast of gente blood.

*Shakspeare.*

Nor shalt thou, by descending to assume  
Man's nature, lessen or *degrade* thine own.

*Milton.*

All higher knowledge in her presence falls  
*Degraded*.

*Id.*

So deplorable is the *degradation* of our nature, that whereas before we bore the image of God, we now retain only the image of men.

*South.*

The word *degradation* is commonly used to denote a deprivation and removing of a man from his degree.

*Ayliffe.*

Time hath not yet the features fixed,  
But brighter traits with evil mixed;  
And there are hues not always faded,  
Which speak a mind not all *degraded*  
Even by the crimes through which it waded.

*Byron. The Giaour.*

DEGRADATION from political rank or station was, and is, performed in a different manner in the cases of a peer, a priest, a knight, a gentleman, an officer, &c. In the time of Francis I. M. Fangel, a French officer, having, in a cowardly manner, given up Fontarabia, whereof he was governor, was publicly degraded. On this occasion twenty or thirty cavaliers were assembled, before whom this gentleman was accused of treason and breach of faith by a king at arms. Two scaffolds were erected, the one for the judges, heralds, and pursuivants, and the other for the guilty cavalier, who was armed at all points, and his shield placed on a stake before him, with the point reversed. On one side assisted twelve priests, in surplices, who sung the vigils of the dead. At the close of each psalm they made a pause, during which the officers of arms stripped the condemned of some piece of his armour, beginning with his helmet, and proceeding thustill he was quite disarmed; which done, they broke the shield in three pieces with a hammer. Then the king at arms emptied a basin of hot water on the criminal's head; and the judges, putting on mourning habits, went to the church. The degraded was then drawn from off the scaffold with a rope tied under his armpits, laid on a bier, and covered with mortuary clothes; the priests singing some of the prayers for the dead; and then he was delivered to the civil judge and the executioner of justice. Sir Andrew Harcla, earl of Carlisle, being convicted of treason, 18 Edward II. coram rege: after judgment was pronounced, his sword was broken over his head, and his spurs hewn off his heels; Sir Anthony Lucy, the judge, saying to him: 'Andrew, now thou art no knight, but a knave.' It has been maintained that the king may degrade a peer; but it appears from later authorities, that he cannot be degraded but by act of parliament. We have an instance of ecclesiastical degradation, before condemnation to death, in the eighth century, at Constantinople, in the person of the patriarch Constantine, whom Con-

stantine Copronymus caused to be executed. He was made to ascend the ambo; and the patriarch Nicetas sent some of his bishops to strip him of the pallium, and anathematise him: then they made him go out of the church backwards. When Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury, was degraded by order of queen Mary, they dressed him in episcopal robes, made only of canvas, put the mitre on his head, and the pastoral staff in his hand; and in this attire showed him to the people. They then stripped him piece by piece. Pope Boniface pronounced that six bishops were required to degrade a priest; but the difficulty of assembling so many bishops, rendered the punishment frequently impracticable.

DEGRADED, in heraldry, the name of a cross when it has steps at each end, as *argent*, a cross, *degraded sable*. Name Wentworth.



DEGREE', *n. s.* Fr. *degré*; Port. *grao*; Span. and Ital. *grado*, from Lat. *gradus*, a step. See DEGRADE. Rank; quality; order; place of relative merit or precedence; measure; proportion. Various applied in the sciences; see the following articles. By degrees is, gradually; by steps, or graduated progress.

Surely men of low *degree* are vanity, and men of high *degree* are a lye: to be laid in the balance, they are altogether lighter than vanity. *Psaln lxii. 9.*

Methinkith it accordant to reson,  
To tell you alle the condition  
Of ech of them, so as it semid me,  
And which they werin, and of what *degree*,  
And eke in what array that they wer in;  
And at a knight then woll I first begin.

*Chaucer. Prol. to Cant. Tales.*

It was my fortune, common to that age,  
To love a lady fair, of great *degree*,  
The which was born of noble parentage,  
And set in highest seat of dignity.

*Spenser.*

I embrace willingly the ancient received course and conveniency of that discipline, which teacheth inferior *degrees* and orders in the church of God.

*Hooker.*

The book of Wisdom noteth *degrees* of idolatry, making that of worshipping petty and vile idols more gross than simply the worshipping of the creature.

*Bacon.*

*Degree* being vizarded,  
The unworthiest shews as fairly in the mask.

*Shakspeare.*

How vainly do we hope to be perfect at once! it is well for us, if through many *degrees* we can rise to our consummation. *Bishop Hall. Contemplations.*

A strange harmonious inclination  
Of all *degrees* to reformation. *Hudibras.*  
In minds and manners, twins opposed we see;  
In the same sign, almost the same *degree*. *Dryden.*

If all the parts are equally heard as loud as one another, they will stun you to that *degree*, that you will fancy your ears were torn in pieces. *Id.*

As if there were *degrees* in infinite,  
And Heaven itself had rather want perfection  
Than punish to excess. *Id.*

Farmers in *degree*,  
He a good husband, a good housewife she. *Id.*



The several *degrees* of angels may probably have larger views, and be endowed with capacities able to set before them, as in one picture, all their past knowledge at once.

Locke.

Poesy

Admits of no *degrees*; but must be still  
Sublimely good, or despicably ill.

Roscommon.

But is no rank, no station, no *degree*,  
From this contagious taint of sorrow free?

Prior.

Exulting in triumph now swell the bold notes;  
In broken air, trembling, the wild music floats

Till by *degrees* remote and small,

The strains decay,

And melt away,

In a dying, dying fall.

Pope.

The unusual extension of my muscles on this occasion, made my face ache on both sides to such a *degree*, that nothing but an invincible resolution and perseverance could have prevented me from falling back to my monosyllables.

Spectator.

A person who is addicted to play or gaming, though he took but little delight in it at first, by *degrees* contracts a strong inclination towards it.

Id. No. 447.

Men's prejudices, I was sensible, could only be lessened by *degrees*; and I was firmly of opinion that no change ought ever to be made in quiet times, till the utility of the change was generally acknowledged.

Bishop Watson.

Without hinting the abolition of the order, [I] strongly insisted on the propriety of obliging them to keep exercises in the schools, as the other candidates for *degrees* did.

Id.

How numerous were the instances in which juries found a compassionate verdict, in direct contradiction to the plain facts clearly established before them, we do not know; but that these evils must all have existed to a considerable *degree*, no man can doubt.

Sir Samuel Romilly.

DEGREE, in universities, denotes a quality conferred on the students or members thereof, as a testimony of their proficiency in the arts or sciences, and entitling them to certain privileges.

DEGREE OF LATITUDE. See LATITUDE.

DEGREE OF LONGITUDE. See LONGITUDE.

DEHORT, *v. a.* Lat. *dehortor*; of *de* and *hortor*; Gr. *opoi, uprai*, to incite. To dissuade.

One severely *dehorted* all his followers from prostituting mathematical principles unto common apprehension or practice.

Wilkins.

The apostles vehemently *dehort* us from unbelief.

Ward.

The author of this epistle, and the rest of the apostles, do every where vehemently and earnestly *dehort* from unbelief: did they never read these *dehortations*?

Id. on Infidelity.

DEJANIRA, in fabulous history, daughter of Oeneus, king of *Ætolia*, and wife of Hercules. The centaur Nessus, endeavouring to ravish her, was slain by Hercules with a poisoned arrow. Nessus, when dying, gave his bloody shirt to Dejanira; assuring her that it was a sovereign remedy to cure her husband, if he proved unfaithful. Some time after, Dejanira, suspecting his fidelity, sent him the shirt, which he put on, and was seized with the most excruciating torments. Being unable to support his pains, he retired to Mount Oeta, and erecting a pile of wood set fire

to it, and threw himself into the flames; upon which Dejanira killed herself in despair.

DEICIDE, *n. s.* From Lat. *deus* and *cædo*. A barbarism of Prior's, meant, we suppose to express the death of Christ as being both God and man. Fully believing that such he was, we cannot think that a sober theology will warrant this term.

Explaining how Perfection suffered pain,  
Almighty languished, and Eternal died;  
How by her patient victor Death was slain,  
And earth profaned, yet blessed with *deicide*! Prior.

DEJECT, *v. a. & adj.* Old Fr. *déjecter*; Lat. *déjicere*, from *de*, and *jacio*, to cast. To cast or throw down; depress; debase: hence

to afflict in any way; to mar with grief. The adjective signifies cast down; depressed; low in spirits and manner: *dejecture*, that which is thrown down in a particular way.

No man in that passion doth look strongly, but *dejectedly*: and that repulsion from the eyes diverteth the spirits, and gives heat more to the ears, and the parts by them.

Bacon.

I am of ladies most *deject* and wretched,  
That sucked the honey of his music vows.

Shakespeare.

The lowest, most *dejected* thing of fortune,  
Stands still in esperance; lives not in fear!

Id.

What besides

Of sorrow, and *dejection*, and despair,  
Our frailty can sustain, thy tidings bring.

Milton.

The liver should continually separate the choler from the blood, and empty it into the intestines; where there is good use for it, not only to provoke *dejection*, but also to attenuate the chyle.

Ray on the Creation.

Oh! If I did but steadfastly believe, I could not be *dejected*; for I will not injure myself to say, I offer my mind any inferior consolation to supply this loss.

Lady Russell's Letters.

Eneas here beheld, of form divine,  
A godlike youth in glittering armour shine,  
With great Marcellus keeping equal pace,  
But gloomy were his eyes, *dejected* was his face.

Dryden.

Nor think to die *dejects* my lofty mind;  
All that I dread is leaving you behind!

Pope.

The effects of an alkaliescent state, in any great *degre*, are thirst and a *dejection* of appetite, which patrid things occasion more than any other.

Arbuthnot on Aliments.

A disease opposite to spissitude is too great fluidity, the symptoms of which are excess of animal secretions, as of perspiration, sweat, urine, liquid *dejectures*, leanness, weakness, and thirst.

Id.

Deserted and astonished, he sinks into utter *dejection*; and even hope itself is swallowed up in despair.

Rapin.

She was *dejected*; she learned an humbler language, and seemed, if she did not trust in God, at least to have renounced her confidence in herself.

Cowper. Private Correspondence.

Or fondly gay, with unambitious guile,  
Attempt no prize but favouring Beauty's smile;  
Or bear *dejected* to the lonely grove  
The soft despair of unprevailing love.

Sherriden



**ERATION**, *n. s.* From Lat. *dejero*. A solemn oath.

**FORM**, *adj.* From Lat. *deus* and *forma*. Like form.

**Y**, *v. a.* Fr. *deifier*; Lat. *deus*, and *fio* to. To make like God; to treat as a praise excessively.

again so extol and *deify* the pope, as made had said in praise of his master and mis-temperate and passable. Bacon.

le the covetous man not to *deify* his money, proud man not to adore himself. South.

is, the fields' delight, the shepherds' love, on earth, and *deified* above. Dryden.

als of Julius Cæsar, which we know to be have the star of Venus over them, though all graven after his death, as a note that he is. Id.

Half of thee is *deified* before thy death. Prior.

y degrees, self-cheated of their sound judgment, that he is but man, *deify* and fume him so, the season he forgets it too.

Cowper's Task.

ble stroke with a whole life may glow, the canvass till it shine  
ity so surpassing all below,  
who kneel to idols so divine  
commandment, for high Heaven is there  
ed, transfigured. Byron.

**IGN**, *v. a. & n.* Fr. *daigner*; Lat. *dignor*, to be active, to vouchsafe; to think worthy (one condescension). To grant; allow;

weno, Norway's king, craves composition; did we *deign* him burial of his men, reburned ten thousand dollars. Shakespeare.

gn to descend now lower, and relate may no less perhaps avail us known.

Milton.

eign to visit our forsaken seats, mossy fountains, and the green retreats.

Pope.

nature's care, to all her children just, richer treasures and an ampler state as at large whatever happy man *deign* to use.

Athenæo.

have I none that I can *deign* to write, as it rained prodigiously last night.

Cowper. Private Correspondence.

**INTEGRATE**, *v. n.* Lat. from *de* and *tegere*. To take from the whole; to spoil; to diminish.

**DEIPHON**, in fabulous history, a brother of Demus, and son of Celeus and Metanira. Ceres travelled over the world, she stopped at her's court, and undertook to nurse him and bring him up. To reward the hospitality of the goddess, to make his son immortal, evening placed him on burning coals, to burn him from his mortal particles. The un-expected growth of Deiphon astonished Metanira, she went to see what Ceres did to make him immortal. She was frightened to see her son lying on coals; and her shrieks disturbing the operations of the goddess, Deiphon died in the flames.

**DEISCAL**, or **DEISHEAL**, in the ancient British customs, a ceremony originally used in the druidical worship. The temples of the ancient Britons were all circular; and the druids in performing the public offices of their religion, never neglected to make three turns round the altar, from east to west, accompanied by all the worshippers. This was called the *deischal*, from *deas*, the right hand, and *sul*, the sun.

**DE'ISM**, *n. s.* Fr. *deisme*; from Lat. *deus*, God. See **DEITY**.

**DEIST'ICAL**, *adj.* Strictly, a belief in God, or one God; but generally applied to those who, professing such a belief, reject Revelation. See the following article.

In the second epistle of St. Peter, certain *deists*, as they seem to have been, have laughed at the prophecy of the day of judgment. Burnet.

*Deism*, or the principles of natural worship, are only the faint remnants or dying flames of revealed religion in the posterity of Noah. Dryden.

Weakness does not fail only to the share of Christian writers, but to some who have taken the pen in hand to support the *deistical* or anti-christian scheme of our days. Watts.

**DEISM** may properly be used to denote natural religion, as comprehending those truths which have a real foundation in reason and nature; and in this sense it is so far from being opposite to Christianity, that it is one great design of the gospel to illustrate and enforce it. In this sense some of the deistical writers have affected to use it. But deism popularly signifies that system of religion and morals which is supposed to be derived, by the mere force of reason, from the contemplation of the works of nature, and which rejects revelation. In the article **REVELATION**, we shall present the reader with a complete view of the entire argument on this momentous subject.

**DEITY**, *n. s.* Fr. *deité*; Span. and Port. *dietad*; Arm. *dei*, from Lat. *deitas*, *deus*; Gr. *θεός*, God. Applied also to fabulous gods, and the supposed qualities of a divinity.

**DE JURE**. See **DE FACTO**.

**DELAPEDE** (Bernard Germain Stephen Laville, count), a French naturalist, of noble family, was born at Agen, December 16th, 1756. He was originally destined for the army, and entered while a youth into the Bavarian service. But his love of science soon procured him the post of keeper of the cabinets in the Jardin du Roi at Paris, for which he abandoned the army, and which he held to the period of the revolution. He composed, as a continuation of the great work of Buffon, the Natural History of Oviparous Quadrupeds and Serpents. He much improved the royal cabinet; and in 1793 published the Natural History of Fishes, 5 vols. 4to. But the events of the revolution now distracted his attention. He became a member of the department of Paris, and in 1791 one of the deputies of that city. He was successively secretary and president of the National Assembly; and was one of the very few conspicuous men who steered in safety through the public storms. He was chosen one of the first members of the National Institute, and on the 20th of



January, 1796, carried up an address from a deputation of that body to the council of five hundred, declaring its hatred of royalty. Buonaparte nominated him in 1799 a member of the Conservative Senate; in 1801 he was president of that body, in 1803 grand chancellor of the legion of honor, and in 1804 senator of Paris. He had frequent intercourse with the emperor, to whom he manifested much attachment; but in January, 1814, when the power of his master was tottering, he assumed a new tone, and at the head of the senate recommended peace. At the restoration of the Bourbons he returned to his studies. His lectures at the Garden of Plants were numerous attended. He published several tracts, and contributed to the *Annales du Museum d'Histoire Naturelle*, and other periodical works. His *History of Cetaceous Animals*, which appeared in 1804, was his last work of importance. He died of the small-pox, October 6th, 1825, and his funeral was attended by several peers of France, members of the Institute, &c.

**DELACERATION**, *n. s.* From Lat. *delacero*. A tearing in pieces.

**DELACRYMATION**, *n. s.* Lat. *delacrymatio*. A falling down of the humors; the waterishness of the eyes, or a weeping much.

**DELACTION**, *n. s.* Lat. *delactatio*. A weaning from the breast.

**DELABRE**, one of the most distinguished astronomers of our time, born at Amiens in 1749, studied under the abbé Delille, who always remained his friend. He first applied himself to the languages, particularly most of the living ones, and made himself one of the best Hellenists in France. His studies were not directed to astronomy until his thirty-sixth year. He enriched the writings of Lalande with a commentary, and became the friend and pupil of the author, who proudly called him his best work. In 1790, eight years after the discovery of Herschel, Delambre published the tables of that planet, although in that period it had performed but a small part of its eighty years' course. He also constructed tables of Jupiter and Saturn, and of the satellites of Jupiter, which, with several treatises, procured him a reception into the National Institute. He was engaged with Méchain, from 1792 till 1799, in measuring an arc of the meridian from Barcelona to Dunkirk for the verification of which he measured two bases of 6000 toises, one near Melun, the other near Perpignan. See his *Base du Système Métrique décimal, ou Mesure de l'Arc du Méridien compris entre les Parallèles de Dunkerque et Barcelonne*, Paris, 3 vols. 4to.; and *Recueil d'Observations Géodésiques faisant Suite au 3me vol. de la Base du Syst. Métr. rédigé par Biot et Arago*. He was made member of the bureau des longitudes. In 1802 Napoleon appointed him inspecteur-général des études, which post he resigned when chosen perpetual secretary of the class of mathematical sciences in 1803. His first tables of the sun were published in 1792; in 1806 appeared his new ones. In 1807 he succeeded Lalande in the collège de France, and wrote his *Traité d'Astronomie théorique et pratique*, 3 vols. 4to. 1814; *Histoire de l'Astronomie*

du moyen âge, 1819; *Hist. de l'Astron. moderne*, 1821, 2 vols.; and *Hist. de l'Astron. du 18me. Siècle*, 2 vols.; a collection of works such as no other nation can show. Delambre also distinguished himself, as perpetual secretary of the institute, by the justice and elegance of his éloges. He died in 1822.

**DELAMERE FOREST**, a forest of England, in Cheshire, north of Chester, near the Weaver; abounding with wood on its hills, fine pasture in its valleys, and fish in its waters.

**DELANY** (Patrick), a learned divine, and ingenious author, was born in Ireland about 1686. He received his education at Trinity College, Dublin, which he entered in the character of a sizer, and afterwards became a fellow. Under the patronage of lord Carteret he obtained preferment in the church; and in 1732 published in London a work entitled *Revelation Examined with Candor*. In 1738 he published his *Reflections upon Polygamy*; and, not long after, the *Life of David, king of Israel*, a work displaying much ingenuity and labor. In 1743 he married a second wife, the widow of a Cornish gentleman, and the following year obtained the deanery of Downe. In 1754 he published *Observations on Lord Orrery's Remarks on the Life and Writings of Swift*, in which there are many curious anecdotes of the latter. Dr. Delany continued writing for the public till a short time before his death; and his *Sermons on Social Duties* are still in estimation. He died at Bath in 1768.

**DELAPOSED**, *adj.* Lat. *delapsus*, with physicians. Bearing or falling down. It is used in speaking of the womb, and the like.

**DELAPE**, *v. a.* Lat. *delatus, deferro*. To carry, convey, or spread.

**DELAPE**, *n. s.* Applied both literally, and to the carrying intelligence, or an accusation. A delator is an accuser; an informer.

**DELATIN**, a market town of Austrian Galicia, in the circle of Stanislawow. Near this town are extensive quarries of alum slate. It is twenty-four miles from Stanislawow.

**DELAVAL** (Edward Hussey), a chemist and natural philosopher, F. R. S. of London and Gottingen, was a brother of lord Delaval, and died at his house in Parliament-place, Westminster, August 14th, 1814, aged eighty-five. He particularly directed his studies to the chemistry of optics, on which he published many excellent papers in the *Philosophical Transactions*. He was the author of an *Experimental Enquiry into the Cause of the Changes of Colors in Opaque and Colored Bodies*, with an Historical Preface relative to the Parts of Philosophy therein examined, and to the several Arts and Manufactures dependent on them, 1777, 4to.; a work which was translated into French and Italian.

**DELAWARE**, a town of Virginia, in King William's county, situated on the peninsula formed by the confluence of the Pamunky and Mattapony. Twenty miles north by west of Williamsburg.

**DELAWARE**, one of the United States of North America, situated between 38° 29' 30", and 39° 54' N. lat., and between 75° and 75° 45'



being in length ninety miles, and in twenty-five, contains 1700 square miles, 1,088,000 acres. It is bounded on the north by Pennsylvania, on the south and west by Maryland, and on the east by Delaware Bay and the Atlantic Ocean. It is divided into three counties, Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex; of which the towns are Wilmington, Dover, and New Castle. The state of Delaware, the upper part of the county of Newcastle excepted, is a low and level. Large quantities of water, at particular seasons of the year, covering a great portion of the land, render it unfit for the purposes of agriculture, and is injurious to health. The spine, or highest part of the peninsula, runs through the state of Delaware, inclining to the eastern, or Delaware side, in Sussex, Kent, and part of the county of Newcastle, there is a remarkable chain of hills, from which the waters descend on each side, running on the east to the Delaware, and on the west to the Chesapeake. Many of the best plants, growing in these swamps, are to be found on the highest mountains. It is chiefly an agricultural state. It is a very fertile tract of country; and any part of the United States is better adapted to the different purposes of agriculture, which a greater variety of the most useful crops can be conveniently and plentifully raised. The soil along the Delaware River, and extending to ten miles into the interior country, is a rich clay, producing large timber. The surface of the country is very favorable to cultivation. The heights of Christiana are high and commanding; some of the hills of Kent are rough and stony; but descending to the river, and a few others, the lower part is so little diversified as almost to form a level plain. In the county of Newcastle there is a mixture of a strong clay; in Kent there is a considerable mixture of sand; and in Sussex the soil is sand altogether predominates. It is the staple of this state. It grows here in perfection, as not only to be particularly adapted to the manufacturers of flour throughout the state, but also to be distinguished and preferred for its superior qualities, in foreign markets. It possesses an uncommon softness and whiteness, very favorable to the manufacture of superfine flour, and in other respects far superior to the hard and flinty grains raised in the higher lands. This state also produces plentiful crops of Indian corn, barley, wheat, flax, buck-wheat, and potatoes. It is also rich in natural and artificial meadows. Cotton, and silk, if properly attended to, will flourish. The county of Essex exports very large quantities of lumber, obtained from a swamp, called the Indian River, or Cypress Swamp, lying within this state, and partly in the state of Maryland. This morass extends six miles to the west, and nearly twelve from north to south, including an area of nearly 50,000 acres. The whole is a high and level land, very wet, though undoubtedly the highest

land between the sea and the bay, whence the Pokomoke descends on the one side, and Indian River and St. Martin's on the other. It contains a great variety of plants, trees, wild beasts, birds, and reptiles.

Few minerals are found in this state, except iron; but large quantities of bog iron ore, fit for casting, are obtained in Sussex county, among the branches of Nanticoke River.

The coast of this state is indented with a large number of creeks, or small rivers, which generally have a short course, soft banks, and numerous shoals; and are skirted with very extensive marshes. In the southern and western parts spring the head waters of Pokomoke, Wicomico, Nanticoke, Choptank, Chester, Sassafras, and Bohemia rivers, all falling into the Chesapeake; some of them are navigable twenty or thirty miles into the country, for vessels of fifty or sixty tons.

In the beginning of the seventeenth century, the Dutch, under the pretended purchase made by Henry Hudson, took possession of the lands on both sides of the river Delaware, and as early as 1623 built a fort at a place since called Gloucester. In 1627, by the influence of William Useling, a respectable merchant in Sweden, a colony of Swedes and Finns came over, furnished with all the necessaries for beginning a new settlement, and landed at Cape Henlopen; at which time the Dutch had wholly quitted the country. The latter however returned in 1630, and built a fort at Lewistown, called by them Hoarkill. The year following, the Swedes built a fort near Wilmington, which they called Christiana, or Christiana. Here also they laid out a small town, which was afterwards demolished by the Dutch. The same year they erected a fort higher up the river, upon Tenecum Island, which they called New Gottenburgh, and about the same time built forts at Chester, Elsingburgh, and other places. In 1655 the Dutch, under the command of Peter Stuyvesant, arrived in Delaware River, from New York, then called New Amsterdam, in seven vessels, with 600 or 700 men. They dispossessed the Swedes of their forts on the river, and sent the officers and principal inhabitants prisoners to Holland. The rest submitted to the conquerors, and remained in the country. On the 1st of October, 1664, Sir Robert Carr obtained the submission of the Swedes on the Delaware. Four years after, colonel Nicholls, governor of New York, with his council, on the 21st of April, appointed six persons to assist captain Carr in the government of the country. In 1672 the town of Newcastle was incorporated by the state of New York, to be governed by a bailiff and six assistants. They were to have a free trade, without being obliged to make entry at New York, as had formerly been the practice. Wampum was at this time the principal currency of the country. In 1674 Charles II., by a second patent, dated 29th of June, granted to his brother, the duke of York, all that country called by the Dutch New Netherlands, of which the three counties of Newcastle, Kent, and Sussex were a part. In 1683 the duke of York sold to William Penn the town of Newcastle, with the whole of the



territory which, till the revolution, was called the Three Lower Counties. These three counties were considered as a part of Pennsylvania in matters of government. The same governor presided over both: but the assembly and courts of judicature were different, as to their constituent members, though in form nearly the same. At the revolution they became a distinct territory, called the Delaware State. See AMERICA, NORTH.

The population of the three counties of Delaware, subdivided into hundreds, was thus returned, under the last census:—

## J. NEWCASTLE COUNTY.

	Population in 1820.
Brandywine hundred	2796
Borough of Wilmington	5268
Christiana hundred	3087
Newcastle hundred	2671
Mill Creek hundred	3046
White Clay Creek hundred	1904
Red Lion hundred	929
Pencader hundred	1876
St. George's hundred	2934
Appoquinimink hundred	3388

Total of Newcastle county 27,899

## II. KENT COUNTY.

	Population in 1820.
Duck Creek hundred	3951
St. Jones hundred	1590
Little Creek hundred	1963
Murderhill hundred	7558
Mispillion hundred	5731

Total of Kent county 20,793

## III. SUSSEX COUNTY.

Cedar Creek hundred	2280
Broad Kiln hundred	2731
Lewes and Rehoboth hundred	1657
Indian River hundred	1887
Nanticoke hundred	2335
North-west Fork hundred	3456
Baltimore hundred	2057
Dagsborough hundred	2204
Broad Creek hundred	2599
Little Creek hundred	2851

Total of Sussex county 24,057

Grand total 72,749

The following table shows the population of Delaware, at each of the four national enumerations:—

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	Increase in 30 years.	Rate of Increase.
Whites	46,308	49,852	55,361	55,282	8,974	19 per cent.
Slaves	8,887	6,143	4,177	4,509		
Free blacks	3,899	8,278	13,136	12,958	9,059	232 per cent.
Total	59,094	64,273	72,674	72,749	13,645	23 per cent.

DELAWARE, a river of the United States, which rises at two principal heads in the state of New York. It runs towards the south, and in its course forms the boundary line between Pennsylvania, New York, and Jersey; a few miles below Philadelphia it separates the state of Delaware from Jersey, and afterwards loses itself in Delaware Bay. The bay and river are navigable for 155 miles from the sea, up to the great or lower falls at Trenton. A seventy-four gun ship may ascend to Philadelphia; and sloops thirty-five miles further.

DELAWARE BAY, a large bay or arm of the sea, between the Delaware and New Jersey states, and formed by the mouth of the Delaware river, and several other small ones. The bay is about sixty miles long, and thirty miles across in the centre. It opens into the Atlantic north-west and south-east, between Cape Henlopen on the right and Cape May on the left, and its mouth is twenty-one miles broad.

DELAWARE COUNTY, in Pennsylvania, is south-west of Philadelphia county, on Delaware River. It is about twenty-one miles in length, and fifteen in breadth, containing 115,200 acres, and subdivided into nineteen townships; the chief of which is Chester. The number of inhabitants is 9,483. The lands bordering on the Delaware are low, and afford excellent meadows and pas-

turage; and are guarded from inundations by mounds of earth or dykes. Great numbers of cattle are brought here from the western parts of Virginia and North Carolina, to be fattened for supplying the Philadelphia market.

DELAWARE COUNTY, a county in the state of New York, on the head waters of Delaware River, taken from Otsego county. It is bounded on the north by Otsego county, east by Schoharie and Green counties, south by Ulster and Sullivan counties, and west by the state of Pennsylvania, by Broome county, and a small part of Chenango county. Its greatest length is fifty-four miles, its greatest breadth thirty-five; the area 1425 square miles, or 912,000 acres; between 41° 51' and 42° 1' north lat. It is of a broken and diversified surface, containing rugged and lofty mountains, with low plains and rich valleys. It sends two members to the house of assembly.

DELAWARES, a nation of North American Indians, formerly numerous and powerful, and who possessed part of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New York. This name was given them by the Europeans; for they call themselves *Lena-lenape*, that is, Indian men; or *Wooapanachky* which signifies a people living towards the rising sun. They are now, however, much reduced in number.



*v. a., v. n. & n. s.* } Fr. *delayer*;  
*n. s.* } Span. and Port.  
*del. dilatare*; Lat. *delatio, differre*, from  
*ro.*, to put off. To procrastinate;  
 hence to hinder, frustrate, as well as  
 er; qualify: as a neuter verb, to stop;  
 action. As a substantive, inactivity;  
 stay. A *delayer* is an habitual pro-

the people saw that Moses *delayed* to  
 out of the mount, the people gathered  
 together unto Aaron. *Exod. xxxii. 1.*

learned that fearful commenting  
 servitor to dull *delay*;  
 as impotent and snail-paced beggary.

*Shakespeare. Richard III.*

ry which must be is mitigated with speed,  
 sed with *delay*.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

thankfulness is not worthy of acception.

*Id.*

s, whose artful strains have oft *delayed*  
 ling brook to hear his madrigal. *Milton.*

the town, and mixing with the throng

matrons, bears the bride along:  
 through woods and wilds, and devious

these arts the Trojan match *delays*.

*Dryden.*

he found, on him his force essayed;  
 or was to the tenth year *delayed*. *Id.*

om to be certain bounds to the quickness  
 s of the succession of those ideas one to  
 our minds, beyond which they can neither  
 step.

*Locke.*

llen and a *delayer* of Justice.

*Swift. Char. of Henry VII.*

ful goddess, of thy promise made!

Ulysses ever be *delayed*? *Pope.*

irty man suspects himself a fool;

it at forty and reforms his plan;

chides his infamous *delay*;

l the magnanimity of thought

s, and re-resolves, then dies the same.

*Young.*

TABLE, *adj.* } Fr. Span. and

ABLENESS, *n. s.* } Portug. *delectable*;

ABLY, *adv.* } Ital. *dilettable*; Lat.

CTION, *n. s.* } *delectabilis*; from

(and *lacto*, to suckle) to delight. De-

lecting; state of being pleasing or

ak the tears for joy and *delectation*.

*Sir T. More.*

Evening now approached:

have also our evening and our morn:

s for change *delectable*, not need. *Milton.*

rought thee into this delicious grove,

eden planted with the trees of God;

ole both to behold and taste. *Id.*

his attributes, and the manifestations

not only highly *delectable* to the intellec-

but are suitably and easily conceivable

are apparent in his works; as his good-

ness, wisdom, and power. *Hale.*

The apple's outward form,

the witless swain beguiles;

th withen mouth, and spattering noise,

ic bitter morsel. *Philips.*

DELEGATE, *v. a., n. s. & adj.* } Span. and  
 DELEGATION. } Portug. *dele-*

gar; Fr. *deleguer*; Lat. *deligo*; *de* and *lego*; Gr.

*λεγω*; Heb. *קבל*; to choose. To appoint ano-

ther one's representative; to entrust with power.

A delegate is the party so commissioned; a

vicar. The court of delegates is defined by

Ayliffe as a court wherein all causes of appeal,

by way of devolution from either of the arch-

bishops, are decided.

If after her

Any shall live, which dare true good prefer,

Every such person is her *delegate*,

To' accomplish that which should have been her fate.

*Donne.*

As God hath imprinted his authority in several

parts upon several estates of men, as princes, parents,

spiritual guides; so he hath also *delegated* and com-

mitted part of his care and providence unto them.

*Taylor.*

Princes in judgment, and their *delegate* judges,

must judge the causes of all persons uprightly and im-

partially. *Id.*

When bishops divided parishes, and fixt the pres-

byters upon a cure, so many parishes as they distin-

guished, so many *delegations* they made.

*Bp. Taylor.*

Why does he wake the correspondent moon

And fill her willing lamp with liquid light;

Commanding her, with *delegated* powers,

To beautify the world, and bless the night?

*Prior.*

Let the young Austrian then her terrors bear,

Great as he is, her *delegate* in war. *Id.*

Elect by Jove, his *delegate* of sway,

With joyous pride the summons I'd obey.

*Pope.*

As God is the universal monarch, so we have all

the relation of fellow-subjects to him; and can pre-

tend no farther jurisdiction over each other, than

what he has *delegated* to us. *Decay of Piety.*

The goddess ceased,—the *delegated* throng,

O'er the wide plains delighted rush along;

In dusky squadrons, and in shining groups,

Hosts follow hosts, and troops succeed to troops.

*Darwin.*

DELEGATES, COURT OF, is the great court of

appeal in all ecclesiastical causes. These dele-

gates are appointed by the king's commission

under his great seal, and issuing out of chancery,

to represent his royal person, and hear all appeals

to him made by virtue of the statute 25 Henry

VIII. cap. 19. The commission is usually filled

with lords, spiritual and temporal, judges of the

courts at Westminster, and doctors of the civil

law.

DELENIFICAL, *adj.* Lat. *delenificus*.

Having virtue to assuage or ease pain.

DELETE, *v. a.* } Lat. *deletus*, from *deleo*,

DELETE, *adj.* } *de*, privative, and *lin*, to

DELET, } paint. To blot out; to ob-

DELETION, *n. s.* } literate: deleterious and

deleterious signify, destructive; poisonous; deletion

is razing out or destroying.

Many things, neither *deleterious* by substance or

quality, are yet destructive by figure, or some occa-

sional activity. *Brown.*



## DEL

Indeed, if there be a total *deletion* of every person of the opposing party or country, then the victory is complete, because none remains to call it in question.

*Hale.*

Composed of two *deleterious* materials, chlorine and sodium, the united substance is more beneficial and salubrious, than it is in the power of our limited understanding to comprehend.

*Sir T. Bernard.*

Nor doctor epidemick,  
Though stored with *deleterious* medicines,  
Which whosoever took is dead since,  
E'er sent so vast a colony  
To both the under worlds as he.

*Hudibras.*

'Tis pity wine should be so *deleterious*,  
For tea and coffee leave us much more serious.

*Byron.*

DELF, *n. s.* } From Sax. *belfan*, to dig. A  
DELFE. } mine; a quarry; a pit dug.  
Also a particular kind of earthenware. See below.

Yet could not such mines, without great pains and charges, if at all, be wrought: the *delfs* would be so flown with waters, that no gins or machines could suffice to lay and keep them dry.

*Ray.*

DELT WARE is a kind of pottery of a baked earth, covered with an enamel or white glazing, which gives it the appearance and neatness of porcelain. Some kinds of it differ much from others, either in sustaining sudden heat without breaking, or in the beauty and regularity of their forms, of their enamel, and of the painting with which they are ornamented. In general, the fine and beautiful enamelled potteries, which approach the nearest to porcelain in external appearance, are least able to resist a brisk fire. Those which best sustain a sudden heat are coarse, and resemble common pottery. The basis of this pottery is clay, which is to be mixed, when too fat, with such a quantity of sand, that the earth shall preserve enough of its ductility to be worked, moulded, and turned easily: and yet that its fatness shall be sufficiently taken from it, that it may not crack or shrink too much in drying or in baking. Vessels formed of this earth must be dried very gently to avoid cracking. They are then to be placed in a furnace to receive a slight baking, which is only meant to give them a certain consistence of hardness. And, lastly, they are to be covered with an enamel or glazing; which is done by putting upon the vessels thus prepared, the enamel, which has been ground very fine, and diluted with water. As vessels on which the enamel is applied are but slightly baked, they readily imbibe the water in which the enamel is suspended, and a layer of this enamel adheres to their surface: these vessels may then be painted with colors composed of metallic calces, mixed and ground with a fusible glass. When they are become perfectly dry, they are to be placed in the furnace, included in cases of baked earth called seggars, and exposed to a heat capable of fusing uniformly the enamel which covers them. This heat, given to fuse the enamel, being much stronger than that which was applied at first to give some consistence to the ware, is also the heat necessary to complete the baking of it. The furnace, and the colors used for painting this ware, are the same as those

## DEL

employed for porcelain, which, in was once exclusively famous for delft its sale has lately been greatly rivalled by potteries of England and Germany.

DELFT, a fine old town of South once the capital of Delftland, is situated on a canal called the *Shie*, which, after traversing the city, joins the *Meuse* at *Schiedam* and *haven*. Its figure is a parallelogram, a few miles in circuit; the streets are clean, and well built, having many handsome and magnificent edifices, particularly the *stadthuis*. The city holds a third rank in the country magistracy is composed of four burgoes and seven *eschevins*, jointly with the *vroedschap* or common council, who name the *schout* for three years, and continue him if they judge proper. It has an arsenal generally well furnished, and the country around it is agreeably low, that, if great care were not taken to keep the dykes and sluices in good repair, it would soon be overwhelmed. The building of the city was begun in 1075, by *Godfrey* le *Baron*, after he had conquered *Holland*; since which it has often experienced the calamities of war as well as those of fire. In the fourteenth century, *Albert de Bavaria*, count of *Holland*, ruined it after a siege of six weeks, dismanling the castle, and obliged the city to pay 10,000 crowns. In 1536, it was reduced to ashes by a dreadful fire, during which not being able to save her young, was obliged to precipitate herself into the flames. It was soon after rebuilt with greater magnificence, but in 1654 it was again greatly damaged by a fire which destroyed a magazine of gunpowder above 500 houses; since which the powder magazine is built at some distance from the town. The Reformation, Delft had ten religious besides hospitals and chapels. In the present churches is the tomb of *William of Orange*, who was assassinated in a building which is still standing; and in another the tomb of *admiral Tromp*. The celebrated *Huy* was a native of this place. The *Doelen* is the scene of many of the councils and transactions of the Dutch patriots in their resistance against Spain. Delft was formerly celebrated for beer, of which it exported large quantities; and also for a peculiar kind of earthenware, called *delft ware*. Here were made several kinds of fine cloth, and *Butter* and tobacco pipes also are made in considerable quantities. It is nine miles west of *Rotterdam*, and thirty south of *Amsterdam*.

DELHI, or DELLI, an extensive province of Hindostan, bound on the north by *Lahore*, and several districts in Northern Hindostan, to the south by *Dewarcote*, and *Serinagur*; to the east it has the *Agra* and *Ajmeer*; to the west it has various ridges of high hills, which separate it from Northern Hindostan; and to the south by *Ajmeer* and *Lahore*. In length it is estimated at 240 miles, by 180 the average. The greater part of this province is in a wretched state of barrenness, having been the theatre of continued war for many years; and is naturally very sterile, though formerly was



the trees, scarcely one is now to be seen. The river overflows part of the Hurriah during the rainy season, after which the soil is excellent, and the country tolerably fertile until the desert to the west begins; and, between the Jumna and the Beas, the soil produces wheat, barley, gram, &c. grains; but it is but little cultivated. It is necessary to insure any crop, and the water is at ten or twelve cubits from the surface of the earth; yet wells are seen only near the villages. This province is, at present, governed in the following manner. The whole of the east of the Jumna and round the city of Agra, with a considerable portion of the surrounding quarter, are possessed by the British, and are governed by a regular civil establishment. The west is occupied by the Machery, the rajah of Bhurtpoor, and other chiefs, who are in alliance with, or under the protection of the British. The country to the west of the Jumna and south of the city is occupied by a number of petty Seiks and other native princes, in dependence on the British, who form a barrier to their territories. The western frontier has no protection, from the immense extent of sterile territory by which it is bounded. In the country possessed by the British, the British still continue to carry on internal wars, which they have been so long accustomed to; they are extremely expert in the use of the lance, sabre, and matchlock. The principal towns are Delhi, Sirhind, Buriel, Anoopshah, Merat, Hisar, Pattealah, and Budavoon. A celebrated city, for many years the capital of the foregoing province of Hindostan, situated on the banks of the Jumna; and the seat of its prosperity, is said to have been of the extent of twenty miles in length. Its name was Inderpoot, or Inderpreest. It was destroyed by the Mahomedans in the year 1193, by the Sultan of Delhi, who fixed his residence there, and made it his capital. Several successive emperors increased and improved it till the middle of the sixteenth century, when the emperor, Sekunder Lody, made Agra the capital, and Delhi was neglected until the reign of Homayon from Persia in the year 1556, when he rebuilt the old fort of Inderpreest, and made it Deenpunnah, or the asylum of the poor. During the reigns of Akbar and Jehangir, Delhi was again deserted; but the emperor Shah Jahan restored it to its former splendor, and expended immense sums of money on the fort, the cathedral, mosque, &c. The houses, mosques, and colleges, in different parts of the city, were raised by his courtiers. The walls which environ the town were repaired, and its seven gates erected anew. Its noble gardens were also now restored, and the tombs of the saints and deceased nobles thoroughly repaired. The canal was deepened, and Delhi was rendered more fertile. One garden alone was valued at a million sterling. The city was apportioned into thirty-six divisions, and after some ancient noble family, con-

tains many good brick houses. The streets are narrow, with the exception of two; the first leading from the palace to the Delhi Gate, which is broad and spacious, and had formerly an aqueduct along its whole extent; the second from the palace to the Lahore Gate. The bazaars appear in a dilapidated state; but in the Chandany Choke, or Silver Square, is a number of well-furnished shops. The population has considerably increased under the British management, and every species of property is yearly rising in value. The English resident and other gentlemen live in the town, while the troops have a distinct cantonment. Precious stones of a good quality are to be had at Delhi, particularly the large red and black corneil and peerozas; beedree hookah bottoms are also manufactured here. The cultivation in the neighbourhood is principally on the banks of the Jumna, where corn, rice, millet, and indigo, are raised. It stands in long. 77° 19' E., lat. 28° 43' N.

DELIA, in antiquity, a festival celebrated every fifth year in the island of Delos, in honor of Apollo. It was first instituted by Theseus; who, at his return from Crete, placed a statue there, which he had received from Ariadne. At the celebration they crowned the statue of the goddess with garlands, appointed a choir of music, and exhibited horse-races. They afterwards led a dance, in which they imitated, by their motions, the various windings of the Cretan labyrinth, from which Theseus had extricated himself by Ariadne's assistance.—There was another festival of the same name yearly celebrated by the Athenians in Delos. It also was instituted by Theseus, who, in going to Crete, made a vow, that he would yearly visit the temple of Delos. The persons employed in this annual procession were called Deliastræ and Theoriæ. The ship, the same which carried Theseus, and had been carefully preserved by the Athenians, was called Theoria and Delias. When the ship was ready for the voyage, the priest of Apollo solemnly adorned the stern with garlands, and a universal lustration was made all over the city. The Theoriæ were crowned with laurels, and before them proceeded men armed with axes, in commemoration of Theseus, who had cleared the way from Troezen to Athens, and delivered the country from robbers. When the ship arrived at Delos, they offered solemn sacrifices to the god of the island, and celebrated a festival to his honor. After this they retired to their ship and sailed back to Athens, where all the people of the city ran in crowds to meet them. Every appearance of festivity prevailed at their approach, and the citizens opened their doors and prostrated themselves before the Deliastræ as they walked in procession. During this festival it was unlawful to put to death any malefactor, and on that account the life of Socrates was prolonged for thirty days.

DELIACUS, among the ancients, denoted a poulterer, or a person who sold fowls, fattened capons, eggs, &c., because the people of Delos first practised this occupation. Cicero, in his Academic Questions, lib. iv., Pliny, lib. x. cap. 30, and Columella, lib. viii. cap. 8, mention the Deliaci.



DELIBATION, *n. s.* Lat. *delibatio*. An essay; a taste.

DELIBERATE, *v. a. & n.*

DELIBERATELY, *adv. & adj.*

DELIBERATENESS, *n. s.*

DELIBERATION,

DELIBERATIVE,

DELIBERATIVENESS.

balance. To weigh in mind; consider: as a neuter verb, says Minshew, to think with a view to choose, or decide; to hesitate. Deliberate is circumspect; wary; advised.

Commonly it is for virtuous considerations, that wisdom so far prevaileth with men as to make them desirous of slow and deliberate death, against the stream of their sensual inclination. *Hooker.*

Echoes are some more sudden, and chop again as soon as the voice is delivered; others are more deliberate, that is, give more space between the voice and the echo, which is caused by the local nearness or distance. *Bacon.*

In *deliberatives*, the point is, what is evil; and, of good, what is greater; and of evil, what is less. *Id.*

Most Grave-belly was deliberate,  
Not rash, like his accusers. *Shakespeare. Coriolanus.*

They would not stay the fair production of acts, in the order, gravity, and deliberateness befitting a parliament. *King Charles.*

How should we deliberate in our actions, which are so subject to imperfection! since it pleased thine infinite perfection, not out of need, to take leisure.

*Bishop Hall. Contemplations.*

If mankind had no power to avoid ill or choose good by free deliberation, it should never be guilty of any thing that was done.

*Hammond's Fundamentals.*

He judges to a hair of little indecencies; knows better than any man what is not to be written; and never hazards himself so far as to fall, but plods on deliberately; and, as a grave man ought, is sure to put his staff before him. *Dryden.*

When love once pleads admission to our heart,  
In spite of all the virtue we can boast,  
The woman that deliberates is lost. *Addison.*

Where men are the most sure and arrogant, they are commonly the most mistaken, and have there given reins to passion, without that proper deliberation and suspense, which can alone secure them from the grossest absurdities. *Hume.*

DELIBERANDI ANXUS, in the Scottish law, a year allowed to an heir, to deliberate whether he will enter as heir or not.

DELIBERATIVE VOICE, a right to give advice and to vote in an assembly. In councils, the bishops have deliberative voices; those beneath them have only consultative voices.

DELICATE, *adj. & n. s.*

DELICACY, *n. s.*

DELICATENESS,

DELICATELY,

DELICES, *n. s. & pl.*

agreeable to the taste, or the senses generally; nice; of small constituent parts; felicitous in construction; elegant: and, as agreeableness, 'sweet, attractive grace,' is peculiarly feminine: a delicate is an effeminate, though not an agreeable man; and expresses also inability to bear hardships. A delicate is used by the Tatler for a nice man: but the plural substantive, deli-

Fr. *deliberer*;

Span. and Por. *deliberar*;

Ital. *deliberare*;

and Lat. *delibe-*

*rare*; from *de*,

and *libra*, a ba-

lates, expresses, like the old word *deli* same as delicacies, i. e. dainties, and viands.

And kingis of the erthe and marchantis erthe diden fornyacioun with hir, and thei bliche of the vertue of *delices* of hir.

*Wiclif. A.*

The delicate woman among you would not ture to set the sole of her foot upon the ground delicateness and tenderness. *Deut. 22.*

Yet was I late promised otherwyse,

This yere to live in welth and *delice*.

*Sir T.*

And now he has poured out his idle mind In dainty *delices* and lavish joys,

Having his warlike weapons cast behind,  
And flowers in pleasures and vain pleasing t

Tender and delicate persons must need angry, they have so many things to trouble which more robust natures have little sense o

Witness this army, of such mass and charg Led by a delicate and tender prince. *Shak.*

Where they most breed and haunt, I have served,

The air is delicate.

The shepherd's homely curds,  
His cold thin drink out of his leather bottle,  
All which secure and sweetly he enjoys,  
Are far beyond a prince's *delicates*.

These *delicacies*

I mean of taste, sight, smell, herbs, flowers,

Walks, and the melody of birds.

Eat not *delicately*, or nicely; that is, be not so me to thyself or others in the choice of food or the delicacy of thy sauces.

Persons born of families noble and rich, weakness of constitution from the ease and their ancestors, and the delicacy of their education.

A man of goodly presence, in whom strong took not away delicacy, nor beauty fierceness

Van Dyck has even excelled him in the of his colouring, and in his cabinet pieces.

That which will distinguish his style from poets, is the elegance of his words, and theousness of his verse: there is nothing so turned in all the Roman language.

They their appetites not only feed,  
With *delicates* of leaves and marshy weed,  
But with thy sickle reap the rankest land.

Any zealous for promoting the interest of try, must conquer all that tenderness and which may make him afraid of being spoke

You may see into the spirits of them all, your pen from these general notions and thought and happy words.

And such, I exclaimed, is the pitiless part

Some act by the delicate mind.

Regardless of wringing and breaking a heart Already to sorrow resigned.

But in his delicate form—a dream of Love Shaped by some solitary nymph, whose breath Longed for a deathless lover from above,  
And maddened in that vision!



IOUS, *adj.* } Fr. *delicieux*; Lat.  
IOUSLY, *adv.* } *delicia*, delights. —  
IOUSNESS, *n. s.* } Sweet; agreeable; de-  
harming; grateful to the sense or

ch she hath glorified herself, and lived  
so much torment and sorrow give her.

Rev. xviii. 7.

The sweetest honey  
thsome in its own deliciousness,  
n the taste confounds the appetite.

Shakspeare.

man judge of himself, or of the blessings and  
the sacrament itself, by any sensible relish,  
at and deliciousness, which he sometimes  
and at other times does not perceive.

Taylor.

If some nice and likourous appetite  
more daintie dish of rare delite,  
sated the stored crab with clasped knee,  
y had sated their delicious eie.

Bp. Hall. Satires iii. 1.

ighly probable, that upon Adam's disobe-  
mighty God chased him out of Paradise, the  
most delicious part of the earth, into some  
most barren and unpleasant. Woodward.

on that breast enamoured let me lie,  
at delicious poison from thy eye. Pope.

re, to make use of your own allusion, the  
gan now to crowd the market, and their  
almost over, we consulted our future en-  
had endeavoured to make the exquisite  
at delicious fruit gave our taste as lasting as

Spectator.

last hours his easy wit display:  
rich fruit he sings, delicious in decay.

Smith.

HT, *v. a.*, *v. n.* & *n. s.* } Fr. *delec-*  
FUL, *adj.* } *ter*; Span. *de-*  
FULLY, *adv.* } *delicioso*; Port. *de-*  
FULNESS, *n. s.* } *delicioso*; It. *di-*  
TOME, } *delizioso*; Lat. *delectare*, from  
TOMELY, } *delectare*,  
TOMENESS. } *deligo*. See

. To please in a high degree; to nave  
followed by *in*. Delightsome and de-  
synonymous, as are delightsomely and  
y. Delight is either the satisfaction  
re felt or the object that affords them.

lord, the king, *delight* in this thing?

2 Sam. xxiv.

e the man that feareth the Lord, that de-  
ly in his commandments. Psalm cxii. 1.

te togidre to the law of God after the yn-  
I see a nother law in my membris aghen  
e law of my soule. Wiclif. Romayne 7.

even in delit was ever his wone,  
was Epicures owen sone  
eld opinion that plain delits  
traily felicitie parfitte.

Chaucer. Prol. to Cant. Tales.

gh he lyste to see his ladyes grace full sore,  
was as delgth his eye, do not his helthe  
er.

Surrey.

s themselves being so ancient, the knitting  
short and intricate, and the whole periods  
a of his speech so delightful for the  
and so grave for the strangeness.

Spenser.

To thee, that art the sommer's nightingale,  
The souveraine goddesses most deare delight,  
Why do I send this rustic madrigale,  
That may thy tunefull care unseason quite.

Id. Faerie Queene.

Come, sisters, cheer we up his sprights,  
And shew the best of our delights:  
We'll charm the air to give a sound,  
While you perform your antic round.

Shakspeare.

O voice! once heard

Delightfully, increase and multiply;  
Now death to hear.

Milton.

If happiness had consisted in doing nothing, man  
had not been employed; all his delights could not  
have made him happy in an idle life.

Bp. Hall. Contemplations.

The princes delighting their conceits with confirming  
their knowledge, seeing wherein the sea-discipline  
differed from the land service, had pleasing entertain-  
ment.

Sidney.

This indeed shews the excellency of the object, but  
doth not altogether take away the delightfulness of the  
knowledge.

Tillotson.

She was his care, his hope, and his delight,  
Most in his thought, and ever in his sight.

Dryden.

Poor insects, whereof some are bees, delighted with  
flowers, and their sweetness; others beetles, delighted  
with other kinds of viands.

Locke.

He heard, he took, and pouring down his throat,  
Delighted, swilled the large luxurious draught.

Pope.

No spring, nor summer, on the mountain seen,  
Smiles with gay fruits or with delightful green.

Addison.

God has furnished every one with the same means  
of exchanging hunger and thirst for delightful vigour

Grew.

We love

The king, who loves the law, respects his bounds,  
And reigns content within them: him we serve  
Freely and with delight, who leaves us free.

Cowper's Task.

But you will say, it is reasonable to conclude that as  
all your predecessors, in this vale of misery and hor-  
ror, have found themselves delightfully disappointed at  
last, so will you.

Id. Private Correspondence.

When the soft lute in sweet impassioned strains,  
Of cruel nymphs or broken vows complains,  
As on the breeze the fine vibration floats,  
We drink delighted the melodious notes.

Darwin.

Yes, woman, yes! Though in his pompous school  
Man proud may learn to think and talk by rule,  
There is the native eloquence, whose grace  
Flows true to every hour and every place—  
That with a swain familiar can recal  
Scenes, persons, things, and spread delight on all.

Dr. T. Brown.

DELIMA, in botany, a genus of the mono-  
gynia order, and polyandria class of plants:  
COR. none: CAL. five-leaved with a two-seeded  
berry. Species one only, a native of South Ame-  
rica.

DELIN'EATE, *v. a.* } Lat. *delineo*; of *de*,  
DELIN'EATION, *n. s.* } and *linea*, a line; to  
DELIN'EAMENT, *n. s.* } make lines. To sketch,  
or make an outline; hence to paint, and to des-  
cribe: delineation and delineament both express  
the painting or drawing made; the representa-  
tion.



The sun's a type of that eternal light  
Which we call God, a fair *delineament*.

*More's Song of the Soul.*

It followeth, to *delineate* the region in which God  
first planted his delightful garden. *Raleigh.*

The *licentia pictoria* is very large : with the same  
reason they may *delineate* old Nestor like Adonis,  
Hecuba with Helen's face, and Time with Absalom's  
head. *Browne.*

I have not here time to *delineate* to you the glories  
of God's heavenly kingdom ; nor, indeed, could I  
tell you, if I had, what the happiness of that place  
and portion is. *Wake.*

In the orthographical schemes, there should be  
a true *delineation*, and the just dimensions. *Mortimer.*

DELIN'QUENT, *n. s.* } *Fr. delinquent* ; *Span.*

DELIN'QUENCY. } and *Port. delinquento* ;

*Lat. delinquens*, from *de*, and *linguo* to leave one's  
duty. One criminally neglectful of duty : neg-  
lect ; failure of duty.

All ruined, not by war, or any other disaster, but  
by justice and sentence, as *delinquents* and criminals. *Bacon.*

The next news we heard was, the House of Com-  
mons had drawn up a bill against us, wherein they  
declared us to be *delinquents* of a very high nature.

*Bp. Hall's Hard Measure.*

Such an envious state,  
That sooner will accuse the magistrate  
Than the *delinquent* ; and will rather grieve  
The treason is not acted, than believe. *Ben Jonson.*

They never punish the greatest and most intolerable  
*delinquency* of the tumults, and their excitors. *King Charles.*

He had, upon frivolous surmises, been sent for as  
a *delinquent*, and been brought upon his knees. *Dryden.*

Can  
Thy years determine like the age of man,  
That thou should'st my *delinquencies* enquire,  
And with variety of tortures tire ?

*Sandy's Paraphrase of Job.*

A *delinquent* ought to be cited in the place or juris-  
diction where the *delinquency* was committed by him. *Ayliffe.*

Does law, so jealous in the cause of man,  
Denounce no doom on the *delinquent* ? None. *Couper's Task.*

DELIQUATE, *v. n. & a.* } *Lat. deliquo* ; from  
DELIQUA'TION, *n. s.* } *de* and *liquo* (*lix*,  
DELIQUUM, *n. s.* } liquid) to melt. As

a verb active, to dissolve into liquid : deligation  
and deliquium both signify a dissolving chemi-  
cally ; and hence fainting or swooning.

It will be resolved into a liquor very analogous to  
that which the chymists make of salt of tartar, left in  
moist cellars to *deliquate*. *Boyle.*

Their conscience was not stark dead, but under a  
kind of spiritual *deliquium*. *Leath.*

When salt of tartar flows per *deliquium*, it is visible  
that the particles of water are moved towards the  
particles of salt. *Bp. Berkeley.*

Such an ebullition as we see made by the mixture of  
some chymical liquors, as oil of vitriol and *deliquated*  
salt of tartar. *Cudworth.*

DELIQUESCENTE, in chemistry, the prop-  
erty which certain bodies have of attracting  
moisture from the air, and thereby becoming  
liquid. This property is never found but in  
saline substances, or matters containing them.

It is caused by the great affinity which  
substances have with water. The more  
they are, according to Mr. Macquer, the  
they incline to deliquescence. Hence,  
and certain alkalis, which are the most  
are also the most deliquescent salts.  
neutral salts are deliquescent, chiefly  
whose bases are not saline substances.  
the immediate cause of deliquescence is  
traction of the moisture of the air, yet it  
to be discovered, why some salts attra-  
moisture powerfully, and others, though  
ingly equally simple, do not attract it  
vegetable alkali, for instance, attracts it  
powerfully ; the mineral alkali, though  
pearance equally simple, does not attra-  
all. The acid of tartar by itself does  
tract the moisture of the air ; but if mix-  
borax, which has a little attraction for  
the mixture is extremely deliquescent.

#### CHEMISTRY.

DELIR'ATE, *v. n.*

DELIR'ATION, *n. s.*

DELIR'AMENT,

DELIR'IOUS, *adj.*

DELIR'IOUSNESS, *n. s.*

DELIR'ium.

*Lat. deliro*  
*de*, and *lira*  
or turrow) ;  
mad, because  
person pass  
bounds of res

Ainsworth. To dote ; talk wildly or idly  
liration is the same with delirium, and the  
a more common word, signifying alienation  
mind ; a state of dotage : delirious is light-  
partaking of delirium.

The people about him said he had been for  
hours *delirious* ; but when I saw him he had  
understanding as well as ever I knew.

On bed

*Delirious* slung, sleep from his pillow flies  
Th

Too great alacrity and promptness in an-  
especially in persons naturally of another ten-  
a sign of an approaching *delirium* ; and in a  
*delirium* there is a small inflammation of the brain.

*Arbuthnot on*

On the 6th, he was all day *delirious*, and  
mentioned four days afterwards as a sufficient  
liation of the vanity of man. At the interval  
his *deliriousness*, he was always saying something  
either of his present or his absent friends.

*Johnson's Life of*

How profound

The gulf ! and how the giant element  
From rock to rock leaps with *delirious* bound,  
Crushing the cliffs, which, downward worn  
With his fierce footsteps, yield in chasms a fearful

DELIRIUM. When the ideas excited  
mind do not correspond to the external ob-  
but are produced by the change induced  
common sensorium, the patient is said to  
a delirium. See MEDICINE.

DELITIGATION, *n. s.* *Lat. delitig*  
and *litigo* (*litis ago*, to raise strife), to  
rel. A striving or contending. See LITIGATION.

DELIVER, *v. a. & n.*

DELIVERANCE, *n. s.*

DELIVERER,

DELIVERY.

*Fr. délivrer* ;  
*liber* ; *Ital. lib*  
from *Lat. lib*  
*liber*, free). To

or set free ; to disburden ; to rescue ; to give  
hence to offer ; present ; exert one's self ;  
by speech : delivering over and delivering  
are only forms of delivering, and mean res



a. Deliverance and delivery are the act of delivering; utterance; activity; and the latter has particular application to childbirth.

Thanne he *delivered* to hem Barabas, but he took hem Jhesus, scourged to be crucified.

Wiclif. Matt. xxvii.

Thou shalt *deliver* Pharaoh's cup into his hand, after the former manner, when thou wast his butler.

Gen. xl. 13.

*Deliver* me not over unto the will of mine enemies, for false witnesses are risen up against me, and such as breathe out cruelty.

Psaln xxvii. 12.

Like as a woman with child, that draweth near the time of her *delivery*, is in pain, and crieth out.

Isaiah xxvi. 7.

He hath sent me to heal the broken-hearted, to preach *deliverance* to the captives, and recovering of sight to the blind, to set at liberty those that are bound.

Luke iv. 18.

He that spared not his own son, but *delivered* him up for us all, how shall he not, with him also, freely give us all things?

Rom. viii. 32.

We allege what the Scriptures themselves do usually speak, for the saving force of the word of God; not with restraint to any certain kind of *delivery*, but howsoever the same shall chance to be made known.

Hooker.

People have a superstitious belief, that in the labour of women it helpeth to the easy *deliverance*.

Bacon.

A mirth-moving jest,

Which his fair tongue, conceit's expositor,

*Delivers* in such apt and gracious words,

That aged ears play truant at his tales.

Shakespeare.

Are the cities, that I got with wounds,

*Delivered* up again with peaceful words? Id.

The constables have *delivered* her over to me, and she shall have whipping enough, I warrant her. Id.

He swore, with sobs,

That he would labour my *delivery*. Id.

On her fright and fears,

She is something before her time *delivered*. Id.

DELL, *n. s.* Goth. *dale*; Belg. *del*. See

DALE.

DELLILE (Jacques), a celebrated French poet, born in 1738, at Clermont in Auvergne, and educated at the university of Paris. He was early distinguished for the brilliancy of his talents, and the extent of his acquirements; but the first work by which he made known his name to the public, and laid the foundation of his poetical fame, was a translation of Virgil's *Georgics*. This procured him a seat in the Academy. His next performance was an original work, entitled *Les Jardins*, which added considerably to his reputation. About this time, M. Le Comte de Choiseul Gouffier, who had formerly visited and described the interesting ruins of Greece, was appointed ambassador to Constantinople, and Dellile was persuaded to accompany him to that city. Thence he went to Greece, where he remained for several months, and finally passed over to Asia Minor, where he was first attacked with a distemper in his eyes, that after his return deprived him entirely of sight. At Constantinople he wrote a considerable portion of his poem on *Imagination*, and on his return published a translation of the *Æneid*. He continued also to read lectures at Paris, till the revolution obliged him to emigrate into Switzerland. He afterwards visited

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Germany and England. Here, in misfortune and banishment, 'muses of melancholy inspiration,' he composed his poem, *Le Malheur et la Pitié*, to give vent to his oppressed feelings. While he remained in England he also translated the *Paradise Lost*. After France had become settled under Napoleon, he returned to his native land, where he died in the summer of 1813. His other works are *L'Homme des Champs*; ou, *les Georgiques Françaises*, 1808; *Les Trois Règnes de la Nature*, 1809; and *La Conversation*, 1812, a playful satire.

DELOLME (John Louis), born at Geneva, 1740 (according to some in 1745), was a lawyer in his native city, and the part which he took in its internal commotions by a work entitled *Examen des trois Points de Droit*, obliged him to repair to England, where he passed some years in great indigence. He wrote for journals, frequented low taverns, was devoted to gaming and pleasure, and lived in such obscurity, that, when he became known by his work on the English Constitution, and some people of distinction were desirous of relieving him, it was impossible to discover his place of residence. His pride was gratified by this kind of low independence, and he rejected all assistance, excepting some aid from the literary fund, to enable him to return to his country. This was probably in 1775, since, from that time, he calls himself member of the council of the two hundred in Geneva. Among his peculiarities was this, that, although principally occupied with political law, he was never present at a session of parliament. At the time of his arrival in England, aristocratical arrogance and turbulence had reached its highest pitch in Sweden and Poland, and it was feared, not without reason, in England, that the same evils threatened that country. Delolme entered into an investigation of this subject. Hence originated his famous work, *Constitution de l'Angleterre, ou Etat du Gouvernement Anglais comparé avec la Forme républicaine et avec les autres Monarchies de l'Europe* (Amsterdam, 1771); and a work in English, called *A Parallel between the English Government and the former Government of Sweden* (London, 1772). In both, his principal object was to illustrate the excellence and stability of the English constitution. Its character of a spirited eulogium is undoubtedly the reason that the first politicians of England, lord Chatham, the marquis of Camden, and the author of the celebrated *Letters of Junius*, spoke so highly of this work of a foreigner. It contains much ingenious reflection on the English constitution, on the energy arising from a happy union of royal power with popular liberty, and particularly on the value of an independent judiciary and the freedom of the press, subjected to penal laws, but not to a censorship. This work, translated by the author himself into English, in 1772 (fourth English edition, 1784, with observations by doctor Charles Coote), is still considered, in England, one of the most ingenious works on the English constitution. Delolme also published, in English, his *History of the Flagellants, or Memorials of Human Superstition* (1783, 4to.); *An Essay on the Union*

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with Scotland (London, 1796, 4to.) On the occasion of the will of Mr. Thelluson, he wrote his *Observations on the Power of Individuals to prescribe, by testamentary Dispositions, the particular future Uses to be made of their Property* (London, 1798, 4to.) He died in July, 1806, at a village in Switzerland.

DELOS, an island of the Archipelago, very famous in ancient history. Originally it is reported to have been a floating island, but afterwards it became fixed. It was fabled to have been the birth-place of Apollo and Diana. It was governed by its own kings. Virgil mentions Anius a king of Delos, in the time of the Trojan war, who was afterwards high priest of Apollo, and entertained Æneas with great kindness. The Persians allowed the Delians to enjoy their ancient liberties, after they had reduced the rest of the Grecian islands. In after ages, the Athenians made themselves masters of it; and held it till they were driven out by Mithridates, who granted the inhabitants many privileges, and exempted them from all sorts of taxes. Strabo and Callimachus tell us that Delos was watered by the river Inapus: but Pliny calls it only a spring; and adds, that its waters swelled and abated at the same time with those of the Nile. At present there is no river in the island, but one of the noblest springs in the world, twelve paces in diameter, and enclosed partly by rocks, and partly by a wall. So sacred was the island of Delos held by the ancients, that hostilities were suspended by nations at war, when they happened to meet in this place. Livy tells us, that some Roman deputies being obliged to put in at Delos, in their voyage to Syria and Egypt, found the galleys of Perseus king of Macedon, and those of Eumenes king of Pergamus, anchored in the same harbour, though these two princes were then at war.—Hence this island was a general asylum, and protection was extended to all living creatures, dogs excepted; for this reason it abounded with hares, no dogs being suffered to enter it. No dead body was suffered to be buried in it, nor child to be born there; all dying persons, and women ready to be delivered, were carried over to the neighbouring island of Rhenea. It is now called Sdili.

DELOS, an extensive city in the above island, which occupies a spacious plain, reaching from the one coast to the other. It was well peopled, and, after the destruction of Corinth, the richest city in the Archipelago; merchants flocking thither from all parts, both on account of the immunity they enjoyed, and of its convenient situation between Europe and Asia. It contained many stately buildings; as the temple of Apollo, Diana, and Latona; an oval basin, made at an immense expense, for the representation of sea-fights; and a most magnificent theatre. The temple of Apollo was, according to Plutarch, begun by Erisichthon, the son of Cecrops; but afterwards enlarged and embellished at the common charge of all the states of Greece. It contained an altar built with horns of various animals, so artificially adapted to one another, that they hung together without cement. This altar is said to have been a cube; and the doubting it was a famous mathematical problem

among the ancients. This went under the name of *Problema Deliacum*, and is said to have been proposed by the oracle, to free the country from a plague. The trunk of the famous statue of Apollo, mentioned by Strabo and Pliny, is still an object of great admiration to travellers. It is without head, feet, arms, or legs; but from the parts that yet remain it plainly appears, that the ancients did not exaggerate when they commended it as a wonder of art. It was of gigantic size, though cut out of a single block of marble; the shoulders being six feet broad, and the thighs nine feet round. Plutarch tells us in his *Life of Nicias*, that he caused to be set up near the temple of Delos, a huge palm-tree of brass, which he consecrated to Apollo; and adds, that a violent storm of wind threw down this tree on a Colossean statue raised by the inhabitants of Naxos. Round the temple were magnificent porticoes built at the charge of various princes, as appears from inscriptions which are still very plain.

DELPHI, in ancient geography, a town of Phocis situated on the south-west extremity of mount Parnassus, famous for a temple and oracle of Apollo. A number of goats that were feeding on mount Parnassus, approached a place which had a deep and long perforation. The steam which issued from the hole seemed to inspire the goats, and they played and frisked about in such an uncommon manner, that the goatherd was tempted to lean on the hole, and see what mysteries the place contained. He was immediately seized with a fit of enthusiasm, and his expressions were so wild and extravagant, that they passed for prophecies. This circumstance was soon known, and many experienced the same enthusiastic inspiration. The place was revered; a temple erected to Apollo; and a city built, which became the most illustrious in Phocis. The influence of its oracle controlled the councils of states, directed the course of armies, and decided the fate of kingdoms.

The temple of Apollo was at first a kind of cottage covered with boughs of laurel. An edifice of stone was next erected by Trophœus and Agamedes, which subsisted about 700 years, and was burnt in the year 636 after the destruction of Troy, and A.A.C. 548. It is mentioned in the hymn to Apollo ascribed to Homer. An opulent and illustrious Athenian family, called Alcæonidæ, which had fled from the tyrant Hippias, raised a new temple, the front of which was of Parian marble. The pediments were adorned with Diana, Latona, Apollo, Bacchus, the setting of the sun, the Muses, and the Thyades. The architraves were decorated with golden armour; bucklers suspended by the Athenians after the battle of Marathon; and shields taken from the Gauls under Brennus. In the portico were inscribed the celebrated maxims of the seven sages of Greece. There was an image of Homer, and in the cell was an altar of Neptune, with statues of the Fates, and of Jupiter and Apollo. Near the hearth before the altar, stood the iron chair of Pindar. In the sanctuary was an image of Apollo gilded. The enclosure was of great extent, and filled with treasures (in which many cities had con-



sacred tenths of spoils taken in war), and with the public donations of renowned states in various ages.

The oracles were delivered by a priestess called Pythia, who received the prophetic influence in the following manner. A lofty tripod, decked with laurel, was placed over the aperture, whence the sacred vapor issued. The priestess, after washing her body, and especially her hair, in the cold water of Castalia, mounted on it, to receive the divine effluvia. She wore a crown of laurel, and shook a sacred tree which grew close by. Having mounted the tripod, she was seized with the most violent paroxysms of frenzy, and in that situation delivered her oracular responses; and if she declined acting, they dragged her by force to the tripod. The habit of her order was that of virgins. The season of enquiry was in the spring, during the month called Boeotus; after which Apollo was supposed to visit the altars of the Hyperboreans.

The city of Delphi arose in the form of a theatre, upon the winding declivity of Parnassus, whose fantastic tops overwhelmed it like a canopy on the north, while two immense rocks rendered it inaccessible on the east and west, and the rugged and shapeless mount Cirphis defended it on the south. The foot of Cirphis was washed by the rapid Plistus, whose waters fell into the sea a few leagues from the city. This inaccessible and romantic situation from which the place derived the name of Delphi, or solitary, was rendered still more striking by the innumerable echoes which multiplied every sound, and increased the ignorant veneration of suitants for the god of the oracle. The principal inhabitants of Delphi, claiming an immediate relation to Apollo, were entitled to officiate in the rites of his sanctuary; and even the inferior ranks were continually employed in dances, festivals, processions, and all the gay pageantry of an elegant superstition. Delphi, lying in the centre of Greece, and, as was then imagined, of the universe, was conveniently situated for the conflux of votaries. It was customary for those who consulted the oracle to make rich presents to the god: his servants and priests feasted on the numerous victims which were sacrificed to him; and the rich magnificence of his temple had become proverbial even in the age of Homer. In aftertimes Cræsus, the wealthiest of monarchs, was particularly magnificent in his donations. The sacred repository was, therefore, often the object of plunder. Neoptolemus the son of Achilles was slain, while sacrificing, by a priest, on suspicion of a design of that kind. Xerxes divided his army at Panopeus, and proceeded with the main body through Bœotia into Attica, while a part, keeping Parnassus on the right, advanced along Schiste to Delphi; but they were seized with a panic when near Ilium, and fled. The divine heard was seized by the Phocians under Philomelus, and dissipated in a long war with the Amphictyons. The Gauls experienced a reception like that of the Persians, and manifested similar dismay and superstition. Sylla, more wise, wanting money to pay his army, sent to borrow from the holy treasury; and when his

messenger would have frightened him, by reporting that the sound of a harp had been heard from within the sanctuary, he replied, it was a sign that the god was happy to oblige him. But the temple, in the time of Strabo, was reduced to extreme poverty; and Apollo was silent. Nero attempted to drive him, as it were by violence, from the cavern; killing men at the mouth, and polluting it with blood. An oracle of Apollo at another place informed the consultants, that he should no more recover the power of utterance at Delphi, but enjoined the continuance of the accustomed offerings.

Yet the store appeared inexhaustible; and the robbery of Nero, who removed 500 brazen images, was rather regretted than perceived. The holy treasures, though empty, served as memorials of the piety and glory of the cities which erected them. The Athenian portico preserved the beaks of ships and the brazen shields, trophies won in the Peloponnesian war; and a multitude of curiosities remained untouched. Constantine the Great, however, proved a more fatal enemy to Apollo and Delphi, than either Sylla or Nero. He removed the sacred tripods to adorn the Hippodrome of his new city; where these, with the Apollo, the statues of the Heliconian muses, and the celebrated Pan, dedicated by the Greek cities after the war with the Medes, were extant when Sozomen wrote his history. Afterwards Julian sent Oribasius to restore the temple; but he was admonished by an oracle to represent to the emperor the deplorable condition of the place. 'Tell him,' said the oracle, 'that the well-built court is fallen to the ground. Phœbus has not a cottage, nor the prophetic laurel, nor the speaking fountain, Cassotis; and even the beautiful water is extinct.'

DELPHINIA, a new alkali, procured by the action of dilute sulphuric acid, on the bruised unshelled seeds of the larkspur. The solution of sulphate, thus formed, is precipitated by subcarbonate of potassa. Alcohol separates from this precipitate the vegetable alkali in an impure state.

Pure delphinia is crystalline while wet, but becomes opaque on exposure to air. Its taste is bitter and acrid. When heated it melts; and on cooling becomes hard and brittle like resin. If more highly heated, it blackens and is decomposed. Water dissolves a very small portion of it. Alcohol and æther dissolve it very readily. The alcoholic solution renders syrup of violets green, and restores the blue tint of litmus reddened by an acid. It forms soluble neutral salts with acids. Alkalies precipitate the delphinia in a white gelatinous state like alumina.

DELPHINIC ACID. The name of an acid, extracted from the oil of the dolphin. It resembles a volatile oil; has a light lemon color, and a strong aromatic odor, analogous to that of rancid butter. Its taste is pungent, and its vapor has a sweetened taste of æther. It is slightly soluble in water, and very soluble in alcohol. The latter solution strongly reddens litmus. 100 parts of delphinic acid neutralise a quantity of base, which contains 9 of oxygen, whence its prime equivalent appears to be 11.11.

DELPHINIUM, dolphin flower, or larkspur:  
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in botany, a genus of the trigynia order, and polyandria class of plants; natural order twenty-sixth, multisiliquæ: CAL. none; petals five; nectarium bifid, and horned behind; siliquæ three or one. Species fourteen; two of which are perennial. They are herbaceous plants of upright growth, rising from eighteen inches to four feet in height, garnished with finely divided leaves, and terminated by long spikes of pentapetalous flowers of blue, red, white, or violet colors. One species, viz. *D. consolida*, is found wild in several parts of Britain, and grows in corn fields. The seeds are acrid and poisonous. When cultivated, the blossoms often become double. Sheep and goats eat this plant; horses are not fond of it; cows and swine refuse it. The annual larkspur makes a very fine appearance in gardens, and is easily propagated by seeds, being so hardy that it thrives in any soil or situation.

**DELPHINUS**, the dolphin, in zoology, a genus of fishes belonging to the order of cete. There are five species, viz. 1. *D. delphis*, the dolphin. This fish was consecrated to the gods, and, celebrated in the earliest time for its fondness of the human race, was honored with the title of the sacred fish. Arion the musician, when flung into the ocean by the pirates, was said to be received and saved by this benevolent fish. Its natural shape is almost straight, the back being very slightly incurved, and the body slender; the nose long, narrow, and pointed, not much unlike the beak of some birds, for which reason the French call it *l'oye de mer*. It has forty teeth; twenty-one in the upper jaw and nineteen in the lower; a little above an inch long, conic at their upper end, sharp-pointed, bending a little in. They are placed at small distances from each other; so that when the mouth is shut, the teeth of both jaws lock into one another. The spout-hole is placed in the middle of the head; the tail is semilunar; the skin smooth, the color of the back and sides dusky, the belly whitish: it swims with great swiftness; and its prey is fish. It was formerly reckoned a great delicacy. This species of dolphin must not be confounded with that to which seamen give the name; the latter being quite another kind of fish, viz. the *coryphæna hippuris* of Linnæus, and the dorado of the Portuguese. 2. *D. leucas*, a species called by the Germans *wit-fisch*, and by the Russians *beluga*; both signifying white fish: but to this the latter add *morskaia*, 'of the sea,' to distinguish it from a species of sturgeon so named. They are numerous in the gulf of St. Lawrence, and go with the tide as high as Quebec. 3. *D. orca*, the grampus, is found from the length of fifteen feet to that of twenty-five. It is remarkably thick in proportion to its length, one of eighteen feet being in the thickest part ten feet diameter. With reason then did Pliny call this 'an immense heap of flesh armed with dreadful teeth.' It is extremely voracious; and will not even spare the porpoise, a congenerous fish. It is said to be a great enemy to the whale. 4. *D. orca ensidoratus*, the sword fish. The nose is truncated; the teeth, of which there are forty in both jaws, are sharp-pointed; and on the back is a very long sword-like spine, or bony fin. It inhabits the European seas, the Atlantic, towards

the Antarctic Pole, and Davis's Straits. It is the largest species of the genus, being twenty-four or twenty-five feet long, and from ten to thirteen feet in diameter where thickest; the lower jaw is much larger than the upper: the spout-hole is on the top of the head, and has two orifices. The spine on the back is often six feet long. It is broadest at the base, and resembles a scimitar or bent sword; being, however, covered with the common skin of the back. It is a bitter enemy to the whale, and carries on a constant war with the seals. It also feeds on flounders. 5. *D. phocaena*, the porpoise. This species is found in vast multitudes in all parts of the British seas; but in greatest numbers at the time when fish of passage appear, such as mackerel, herrings, and salmon, which they pursue up the bays.

**DELPHOS**, now called *Castri*, a town, or rather village, of Turkey in Asia, in *Livadia*; occupying part of the site of the ancient *Delphi*. Some vestiges of temples are visible; and above them, in the mountain side, are sepulchres, niches with horizontal cavities for the body, some of which are covered with slabs. A monastery is erected on the site of the *Gymnasium*. Strong terrace walls and other traces of a large edifice remain. The village is at a distance. *Castalia* is on the right hand in ascending to it, the water coming from on high and crossing the road; a steep precipice, above which the mountain still rises immensely, continuing on in that direction. The village consists of a few cottages covering the site of the temple and oracle.

**DELTA**, a part of Lower Egypt, which occupies a considerable space of ground between the branches of the Nile and the Mediterranean Sea: the ancients call it *Delta*, because it is in the form of a triangle, like the Greek  $\Delta$ . It is about 130 miles along the coast from *Damietta* to *Alexandria*, and seventy on the sides from the place where the Nile begins to divide itself. It is the most fertile country in all Egypt, and it rains more there than in other parts, but the fertility is chiefly owing to the inundation of the Nile. The principal towns on the coast are *Damietta*, *Rosetta*, and *Alexandria*; but, within land, *Menousia*, and *Maala* or *Elmala*. See *EGYPT*.

**DELTOIDE**, *adj.* from *delta*, the fourth letter of the Greek alphabet; so called by reason of its resembling this letter. An epithet applied to a triangular muscle arising from the *clavicula*, and from the process of the same, whose action is to raise the arm upward.

Cut still more of the *deltoide* muscle, and carry the arm backward. *Sharp's Surgery.*

**DELU'DE**, *v. a.* } Ital. and Lat. *deludere*,  
**DELU'DER**, *n. s.* } from *de*, and *ludo* to de-  
**DELU'DABLE**, *adj.* } ceive. To cheat; deceive;  
impose upon: *deludable* is, easily imposed upon.

O, give me leave, I have *deluded* you;

'Twas neither Charles, nor yet the duke.

*Shakspeare. Henry VI.*

Not well understanding omniscience, he is not so ready to deceive himself, as to falsify unto him whose cogitation is no ways *deludable*.

*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

Let not the Trojans, with a feigned pretence  
Of proffered peace, *delude* the Latian prince.

*Dryden.*



the sweet *daughters* sing their song.

Pope.

Our poor *deluded* people at home, and abroad, read the poisonous and inflammatory are daily published with impunity — they act accordingly.

Junius.

Overbearing man, betrayed by venturous pride  
dreary paths without a guide,  
as phantoms in the mist *delude*,  
and ill, or chases airy good.

Johnson. *Vanity of Human Wishes.*

v. a. & n. s. } Sax. *delfan*; Teut.  
n. s. } *delben*; Belgic *delven*;  
a subterranean place. Srenius re-  
last as the origin of the Saxon be-  
bury; and Wiclif confirms this  
by using *dalf* for *delve*. See below.  
figuratively, to endeavour to fathom  
It is used as a substantive by Spenser  
for the pit or place dug: a *delver*

at hadde taken oon ghede forthe and *dalf*  
the: and hidde the money of his Lord.

Wiclif. *Matt.* xxv.

Adam *delved*, and Eve span,  
as then the Gentleman? *Old Ballad.*

He by and by  
feet directed to the cry;  
that shady *delve* him brought at last,  
ammon erst did sun his treasury.

Spenser.

It shall go hard,  
will *delve* one yard below the mines,  
ow them at the moon.

Shakespeare.

What's his name and birth?  
not *delve* him to the root: his father  
fled Sicilius.

Id.

a light and mettled dance  
a never yet in France;  
leadmen, for the nonce,  
are round like grindle-stones,  
they dig out fro' the *delve*s,  
air bairns' bread, wives, and selves.

Ben Jonson.

convenient depth your thrashing floor,  
red clay, then fill and face it o'er.

Dryden.

filthy swine with *delving* about  
sted forest undermine.

Philips.

NO, one of the principal towns of  
ania, between Joannina and Butrinto.  
on the side of a mountain, on the site  
ent Eleus, between the Paria, or an-  
hus, and Pistrini; and is well de-  
a castle. Population 8000. It is  
E. N. E. of Larissa.

GE, n. s. Fr. *deluge*; Span. Ital. and  
lavio; Lat. *diluvium*, from *diluo*, de  
Fr. *laver*, to wash.

and not been so deep a *deluge* of sin, there  
one of the waters.

Bishop Hall *Contemplations.*

th bays and dams they strive to force  
to a new or narrow course,  
urn within his banks he dwells,  
rrent, then a *deluge*, swells.

Denham.

The apostle doth plainly intimate, that the old  
world was subject to perish by a *deluge*, as this is sub-  
ject to perish by conflagration. *Burnet's Theory.*

At length corruption, like a general flood,  
Shall *deluge* all.

Pope.

Still the battering waves rush in  
Implacable, till *deluged* by the foam,  
The ship sinks, foundering in the vast abyss.

Philips.

The restless flood the land would overflow,  
By which the *deluged* earth would useless grow.

Blackmore.

DELUGE. Several deluges are recorded in  
history; as that of Ogyges, which overflowed  
almost all Attica; and that of Deucalion, which  
drowned all Thessaly in Greece: the most memo-  
rable however was the universal deluge or Noah's  
flood, which overflowed and destroyed the whole  
earth; and from which only Noah, and those  
with him in the ark, escaped. See ANTEDILU-  
VIAN, an article in which we have entered into  
this subject at some length, and particularly its  
epoch. See also CHRONOLOGY.

But the deluge is a topic of great interest both  
to science and religion. It has given birth, there-  
fore, to various theories and controversies on  
every point connected with it; and, while we  
cannot devote much space to the review of them  
in this work, some of the principal considerations  
that have been offered respecting its causes and  
effects may be acceptable to the reader. The  
great points in question may be reduced to three:  
1. Was the deluge universal, as is commonly  
supposed, or partial? 2. Was it from natural  
agency only, and if so what natural agency effected  
this mighty convulsion? 3. What were the  
principal effects and changes resulting?

1. Isaac Vossius and bishop Stillingfleet are  
amongst the most respectable supporters of an  
opinion that the deluge was but *partial*. But  
the reasoning of the former upon this subject is  
a little involved in our second question, respect-  
ing the agency employed; for it rests partly upon  
the difficulty there must have been in effecting a  
universal deluge. 'Many miracles,' he says,  
'must have concurred; but God works no mira-  
cles in vain. What need was there to drown  
those lands where no men lived, or are yet to be  
found? Although we should believe that part  
of the earth only to have been overflowed by the  
waters which we have mentioned, and which is  
not the hundredth part of the terrestrial globe,  
the deluge will nevertheless be universal (occu-  
menical), since the destruction was universal, and  
overwhelmed the whole habitable world.' Bishop  
Stillingfleet adopted the same opinion, from a  
persuasion that the earth was by no means fully  
peopled, and therefore there was no necessity for  
the deluge being universal. 'I cannot,' says he,  
'see any urgent necessity from the Scripture to  
assert that the flood did spread itself all over the  
surface of the earth. That all mankind, those in  
the ark excepted, were destroyed by it, is most  
certain according to Scripture. When the Lord  
said that he would destroy man from the face of  
the earth, it could not be any particular deluge of  
so small a country as Palestine, as some have  
ridiculously imagined; for we find a universal



corruption in the earth mentioned as the cause; a universal threatening upon all men for this cause; and afterwards a universal destruction expressed as the effect of this flood. So then it is evident that the flood was universal with regard to mankind; but from thence follows no necessity at all of asserting the universality of it as to the globe of the earth, unless it be sufficiently proved; and what reason can there be to extend the flood beyond the occasion of it, which was the corruption of mankind? The only probability of asserting the universality of the flood, as to the globe of the earth, is from the destruction of all living creatures, together with man. Now though men might not have spread themselves over the whole surface of the earth, yet beasts and creeping things might, which were destroyed with the flood; for it is said that 'all flesh died that moved upon the earth, and every man.' To what end should there be not only a note of universality added, but such a particular enumeration of the several kinds of beasts, creeping things, and fowls, if they were not all destroyed? To this I answer; I grant that, as far as the flood extended, all these were destroyed; but see no reason to extend the destruction of these beyond that compass and space of the earth where men inhabited, because the punishment upon the beasts was occasioned by, and could not be concomitant with the destruction of man; but (the occasion of the deluge being the sin of man, who was punished in the beasts that were destroyed for his sake, as well as in himself) where the occasion was not, as where there were animals and no men, there seems no necessity of extending the flood thither.

The bishop, therefore, thinks it probable that this visitation of divine judgment extended only to the continent of Asia, and those animals only which were immediately connected with mankind; and he thinks the latter a sufficient reason for Noah's preserving the pairs of animals which he was commanded to take with him into the ark. But it is shown, under the article ANTEDILUVIAN, that, according to the most moderate computations, the world was probably more full of inhabitants than at present; the expression of Scripture is strong, 'that the earth was filled with violence;' and if it were admitted that 'the earth' means only continental Asia, the supposition of a partial deluge involves almost all the difficulties, with regard to the agency employed, that are supposed to be connected with that of a universal one. If the tops of the highest mountains, in a very considerable part of the earth, were covered, the laws of gravity would carry the water that must have been thus elevated over all the ordinary habitations of men, or it would require a miracle to suspend their operation. We shall see that nothing strictly miraculous is supposed on our hypothesis of a universal deluge.

Mr. Bryant, in his *Ancient Mythology*, adverts at great length to the traditional traces of the fact of a universal deluge in all the early fables and histories of the heathen world. He even contends that this fact furnished the principal, if not the only foundation of ancient idolatry; that the first of all the heathen deities was Noah;

that all the ancient nations regarded him as their founder; and that he, his sons, and the first patriarchs, are alluded to, in most if not all the religious ceremonies. The Egyptian Osiris (he says) was the same with Ham the son of Noah; though the name was sometimes bestowed on Noah himself. Osiris, according to Diodorus Siculus, was wonderfully preserved in an ark, and taught the use of the vine; to build, plant, &c. 'We may reasonably suppose,' says Mr. Bryant, 'that the particulars of this extraordinary event would be gratefully commemorated by the patriarch himself, and transmitted to every branch of his family; that they were made the subject of domestic converse, where the history was often renewed, and ever attended with a reverential awe and horror, especially in those who had been witnesses to the calamity, and had experienced the hand of Providence in their favor. When there was a falling off from the truth, we might farther expect, that a person of so high a character as Noah, so particularly distinguished by the Deity, could not fail of being revered by his posterity; and, when idolatry prevailed, that he would be one of the first among the sons of men to whom divine honors would be paid. Lastly, we might conclude, that these memorials would be interwoven in the mythology of the Gentile world; and that there would be continual allusions to these ancient occurrences, in the rites and mysteries as they were practised by the nations of the earth. In conformity to these suppositions, I shall endeavor to show that these things did happen; that the history of the deluge was religiously preserved in the first ages; that every circumstance of it is to be met with among the historians and mythologists of different countries, and traces of it are to be found particularly in the sacred rites of Egypt and of Greece.'

If the success of this author, in this great undertaking, was not complete; if his theories involve many doubtful points of history, and some altogether conjectural assumptions; he embodies on the other hand many unquestionably interesting and important facts, connected with this subject, and which the reader who is desirous of a complete review of it should not overlook. Of Noah, he says, they styled him Prometheus, Deucalion, Atlas, Theuth, Zuth, Xuthus, Inachus, Osiris. When there began to be a tendency towards idolatry, and the adoration of the sun was introduced by the posterity of Ham, the title of Helius, among others, was conferred upon him. Noah was the original Zeus and Dios. He was the planter of the vine, and inventor of fermented liquors: whence he was denominated Zeuth, which signifies ferment, rendered Zeus by the Greeks. He was also called Dionusius, interpreted by the Latins Bacchus, but very improperly. Bacchus was Chus the grandson of Noah; as Ammon may be esteemed Ham, so much revered by the Egyptians. Among the people of the east, the true name of the patriarch was preserved; they called him Noas, Naus, and sometimes contracted Nous; and many places of sanctity, as well as rivers, were denominated from him. Anaxagoras of Clazomenæ had obtained some knowledge of him in Egypt



By him the patriarch was denominated Noas or Nous; and both he and his disciples were sensible that this was a foreign appellation; notwithstanding which he has acted as if it had been a term of the Greek language. Eusebius informs us, that the disciples of Anaxagoras say, 'that Nous is by interpretation, of the deity Dis or Dios; and they likewise esteem Nous the same as Prometheus, because he was the renewer of mankind, and was said to have fashioned them again,' after they had been in a manner extinct. Suidas has preserved, from some ancient author, a curious memorial of this wonderful personage, whom he affects to distinguish from Deucalion, and styles Nannacus. According to him, this Nannacus was a person of great antiquity, and prior to the time of Deucalion. He is said to have been a king, who, foreseeing the approaching deluge, collected every body together, and led them to a temple, where he offered up his prayers for them, accompanied with many tears.' Other well known traditions, mentioned by Stephenson, speak of the flood of Deucalion in which all mankind were destroyed. Afterwards, when the surface of the earth began to be again dry, Zeus ordered Prometheus and Minerva to make images of clay in the form of men; and, when they were finished, he called the winds, and made them breathe into each, and rendered them vital.' From these accounts, Mr. Bryant concludes: 'However the story may have been varied, the principal outlines plainly point out the person who is alluded to in these histories. It is, I think, manifest, that Annacus, and Nannacus, and even Inachus, relate to Noachus or Noah. And not only these, but the histories of Deucalion and Prometheus have a like reference to the patriarch: in the 600th year, and not the 300th, of whose life the waters prevailed upon the earth. He was the father of mankind, who were renewed in him. Hence he is represented by another author, under the character of Prometheus, as a great artist, by whom men were formed anew, and were instructed in all that was good. He seems in the east to have been called Noas, Noasis, Nasus, and Nus; and by the Greeks his name was compounded Dionusus. The Armonians, wherever they came, founded cities to his honor; hence places called Nusa often occur, and many of them are mentioned by ancient authors. These, though widely distant, being situated in countries far removed, yet retained the same original histories; and were generally famous for the plantation of the vine. Misted by this similarity of traditions, people in after times imagined that Dionusus must necessarily have been where his history occurred; and as it was the turn of the Greeks to place every thing to the account of conquest, they made him a great conqueror, who went over the face of the whole earth, and taught mankind the plantation of the vine. Though the patriarch is represented under various titles, and even these not always uniformly appropriated; yet there continually occur such peculiar circumstances of his history, as plainly point out the person referred to. The person preserved is always mentioned as preserved in an ark. He is described as being in a state of darkness, which is repre-

sented allegorically as a state of death. He then obtains a new life, which is called a second birth; and is said to have his youth renewed. He is, on this account, looked upon as the first born of mankind; and both his antediluvian and postdiluvian states are commemorated, and sometimes the intermediate state is also spoken of. Diodorus calls him Deucalion; but describes the deluge as almost universal.' We have noticed the corresponding Chaldean tradition, &c. mentioned by Berosus in the article ANTEDILUVIANS. While we consider the further range of these traditional accounts of the flood over the continent of India, and as far as China, has also its weight in establishing the Mosaic accounts, we shall shortly advert to the present and permanent effects of such a visitation, now remaining, as another proof both of the fact of a deluge, and of its universality. At present we enquire:

2. *What was the nature of the agency employed on this occasion?* Dr. Thomas Burnet, in his *Telluris Theoria Sacra*, endeavours to show, that all the waters in the ocean are not sufficient to cover the earth to the depth assigned by Moses. Supposing the sea drained quite dry, and all the clouds of the atmosphere dissolved into rain, we should still want the greatest part of the water of a deluge. According to the Dr. no less than eight oceans would have been requisite. To get clear of this difficulty, he and others have adopted Descartes's theory. That philosopher will have the antediluvian world to have been perfectly round and equal, without mountains or valleys. He accounts for its formation on mechanical principles, by supposing it at first in the condition of a thick turbid fluid replete with divers heterogeneous matters; which, subsiding by slow degrees, formed themselves into different concentric strata, or beds, by the laws of gravity. Dr. Burnet improves on this theory, by supposing the primitive earth to have been no more than a crust investing the water contained in the ocean, and in the central abyss, which he and others suppose to exist in the bowels of the earth. See *ABYSS*. At the time of the flood, this outward crust broke in a thousand places; and sunk down among the water, which thus spouted up in vast cataracts, and overflowed the whole surface. He supposes also, that before the flood there was a perfect coincidence of the equator with the ecliptic, and consequently that the antediluvian world enjoyed a perpetual spring; but that the violence of the shock, by which the outer crust was broken, shifted also the position of the earth, and produced the present obliquity of the ecliptic. This theory is not only equally arbitrary with the former, but directly contrary to the words of Moses, who assures us, that all the high hills were covered; while Burnet affirms that there were no hills then in being. Dr. Hook conjectured that the shell of earth was subjected at the deluge to a compression into a prolate spheroid, thereby pressing out the water of an abyss under the earth. Dr. Halley ascribes the deluge to the shock of a comet, whereby the polar and diurnal rotation of the globe was changed; and the ingenious Whiston so far adopted and improved upon this hypothesis, that he published a tract





on the subject entitled, *The Cause of the Deluge* demonstrated.

The theories above enumerated, though sanctioned by those names which entitled them to our notice, are, we conceive, one and all, destitute of any thing amounting to proof. The following, which endeavours to account for this most remarkable event, without doing any violence to the established laws of nature, is the hypothesis, we believe, of a Mr. James Tytler, a chemist of Edinburgh, who contributed largely to the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, from which work we make the extract.

1. 'If we consider the quantity of water requisite for the purpose of the deluge, it will not appear so very extraordinary as has been commonly represented. The height of the highest hills is thought not to be quite four miles. It will therefore be deemed a sufficient allowance, when we suppose the waters of the deluge to have been four miles deep on the surface of the ground. Now it is certain, that water, or any other matter, when spread out at large upon the ground, seems to occupy an immense space in comparison of what it does when contained in a cubical vessel, or when packed together in a cubical form. Suppose we wanted to overflow a room sixteen feet every way, or containing 258 square feet, with water, to the height of one foot, it may be nearly done by a cubical vessel of six feet filled with water. A cube of eight feet will cover it two feet deep, and a cube of ten feet will very nearly cover it four feet deep. It makes not the least difference whether we suppose feet or miles to be covered. A cube of ten miles of water would very nearly overflow 256 square miles of plain ground to the height of four miles. But if we take into our account the vast number of eminences with which the surface of the earth abounds, the above-mentioned quantity of water would do a great deal more. If, therefore, we attempt to calculate the quantity of water sufficient to deluge the earth, we must make a very considerable allowance for the bulk of all the hills on its surface. To consider this matter, however, in its utmost latitude: the surface of the earth is supposed, by the latest computations, to contain 199,512,595 square miles. To overflow this surface to the height of four miles, is required a parallelepiped of water sixteen miles deep, and containing 49,878,148 square miles of surface. Now, considering the immense thickness of the globe of the earth, it can by no means be improbable, that this whole quantity of water may be contained in its bowels, without the necessity of any remarkable abyss or huge collection of water, such as most of our theorists suppose to exist in the centre. It is certain, that as far as the earth has been dug, it has been found not dry, but moist; nor have we the least reason to imagine that it is not, at least, equally moist all the way down to the centre. How moist it really is cannot be known, nor the quantity of water requisite to impart to it the degree of moisture it has; but we are sure it must be immense. The earth is computed to be nearly 8000 miles in diameter. The ocean is of an unfathomable depth; but there is no reason for supposing it more than a few miles. To

make all reasonable allowances, however, we shall suppose the whole solid matter in the globe to be only equal to a cube of 5000 miles; and even on this supposition we shall find, that all the waters of the deluge would not be half sufficient to moisten it. The above-mentioned parallelepiped of water would indeed contain 798,050,368 cubic miles of that fluid; but the cube of earth containing no less than 125,000 millions of cubic miles, it is evident that the quantity assigned for the deluge would be scarcely known to moisten it. It could have indeed no more effect this way, than a single pound of water could have upon 150 times its bulk of dry earth. We are persuaded, therefore, that any person who will try by experiment how much water a given quantity of earth contains, and from that experiment will make calculations with regard to the whole quantity of water contained in the bowels of the earth, must be abundantly satisfied, that though all the water of the deluge had been thence derived, the diminution of the general store would, comparatively speaking, have been next to nothing. 2. It was not from the bowels of the earth only that the waters were discharged, but also from the air; for we are assured by Moses, that it rained forty days and forty nights. This source of the diluvian waters has been considered as of small consequence by almost every one who has treated on the subject. We shall transcribe the general opinion from the *Universal History*, Vol. I. where it is very fully expressed. 'According to the observations made of the quantity of water that falls in rain, the rains could not afford one ocean, nor half an ocean, and would be a very inconsiderable part of what was necessary for a deluge. If it rained forty days and forty nights throughout the whole earth at once, it might be sufficient to lay all the lower grounds under water, but it would signify very little as to the overflowing of the mountains; so that it has been said, that if the deluge had been made by rains only, there would have needed not forty days, but forty years, to have brought it to pass. And if we suppose the whole atmosphere condensed into water, it would not all have been sufficient for this effect; for it is certain, that it could not have risen above thirty-two feet, the height to which water can be raised by the pressure of the atmosphere; for the weight of the whole air, when condensed into water, can be no more than equal to its weight in its natural state, and must become no less than 800 times denser; for that is the difference between the weight of the heaviest air and that of water. On this subject we must observe, that there is a very general mistake with regard to the air, similar to the above-mentioned one regarding the earth. Because the earth below our feet appears to our senses firm and compact, therefore the vast quantity of water, contained even in the most solid parts of it, and which will readily appear on proper experiment, is overlooked, and treated as a non-entity. In like manner, because the air does not always deluge with excessive rains, it is also imagined that it contains but very little water. Because the pressure of the air is able to raise only thirty-two feet of water on the surface of the earth, it is therefore supposed we



to what depth the atmosphere could be earth, if it was to let fall the whole contained in it. But daily observations of the pressure of the atmosphere has least connexion with the quantity of contents. Nay, if there is any connexion seems to be lightest when it contains air. In the course of a long summer's for instance, the mercury in the barometer stand at thirty inches, or little more. so at the beginning of the drought, it ascend continually during the time the drier continues; because the air all the absorbing water in great quantity from the surface of the earth and sea. This, however, is to be contrary to fact. At such times the air does not ascend, but remains stationary; what is still more extraordinary, when the drought is about to have an end, the air, yet contains the whole quantity of water absorbed, and has not discharged one single drop. It comes suddenly lighter, and the mercury rises sink an inch before any rain falls. This surprising phenomenon, however, is not new. After the atmosphere has been disordered for a number of days successively a quantity of matter 800 times heavier than itself, of being lightened by the discharge, it becomes heavier, nay, specifically heavier than it was before. It is also certain, that very dry air, that it is not at the same time very hot, and the heaviest; and the driest air which we are acquainted with, namely, Dr. Priestley's dephlogisticated air, is considerably heavier than the common air we breathe. For these reasons the quantity of water contained in the atmosphere ought to be considered as being, especially as we know that by what means it is suspended, that agent must be the force of gravity, otherwise the water would immediately descend; and while the force of gravity in any substance is counteracted, it cannot appear to us to gravitate at all. The above considerations render it probable, at least, that there is in nature a quantity sufficient to deluge the world, provided it is applied to the purpose. We must next consider whether there is any natural agent powerful enough to effect this purpose. We find the phrases used by Moses in their various sense. The breaking up of the deep we may reasonably suppose to have been the opening of all the passages, small or great, through which the subterranean waters possibly could discharge themselves to the surface of the earth. The opening of the windows of heaven we may also suppose to have been pouring out the water contained in the atmosphere through those invisible passages by which it enters in such a manner as totally to supply one of our senses, as when water is raised by the air in evaporation. As both these said to have been opened at the same time seems from thence probable, that one agent was employed to do both. Now it is the industry of modern enquirers to find an agent unknown to the former whose influence is so great, that with this world it may be said to have a

kind of omnipotence. The agent we mean is electricity. It is certain, that, by means of it, immense quantities of water can be raised to a great height in the air. This is proved by the phenomena of water-spouts. Mr. Forster relates, that he happened to see one break very near him, and observed a flash of lightning proceed from it at the moment of its breaking. The conclusion from this is obvious. When the electric matter was discharged from the water, it could no longer be supported by the atmosphere but immediately fell down. Though water-spouts do not often appear in this country, yet every one must have made an observation somewhat similar to Mr. Forster's. In a violent storm of thunder and rain after every flash of lightning, or discharge of electricity from the clouds, the rain pours down with increased violence; thus showing that the cloud, having parted with so much of its electricity, cannot longer be supported in the form of vapor, but must descend in rain. It is not, indeed, yet discovered that electricity is the cause of the suspension of water in the atmosphere; but it is certain that evaporation is promoted by electrifying the fluid to be evaporated. It may therefore be admitted, as a possibility, that the electric fluid contained in the air is the agent by which it is enabled to suspend the water which rises in vapor. If, therefore, the air is deprived of the due proportion of this fluid, it is evident that rain must fall in prodigious quantities. Again: we are assured from the most undeniable observations, that electricity is able to swell up water on the surface of the earth. This we can make it do even in our trifling experiments; and much more must the whole force of the fluid be supposed capable of doing it, if applied to the waters of the ocean, or any others. The agitation of the sea in earthquakes is a sufficient proof of this. It is certain, that at these times there is a discharge of a vast quantity of electric matter from the earth into the air; and, as soon as this happens, all becomes quiet on the surface of the earth. From a multitude of observations it also appears, that there is at all times a passage of electric matter from the atmosphere into the earth, and vice versa from the earth into the atmosphere. There is, therefore, no absurdity in supposing the Deity to have influenced the action of the natural powers in such a manner that for forty days and nights the electric matter contained in the atmosphere should descend into the bowels of the earth; if, indeed, there is occasion for supposing any such immediate influence at all, since it is not impossible that there might have been, from some natural cause, a descent of this matter from the atmosphere for that time. But by whatever cause the descent was occasioned, the consequence would be, the breaking up of the fountains of the deep, and the opening of the windows of heaven. The water contained in the atmosphere being left without support, would descend in impetuous rains; while the waters of the ocean, those from which fountains originate, and those contained in the solid earth itself, would rise from the very centre, and meet the waters which descended from above. Thus the breaking up of the fountains of the deep, and



the opening the windows of heaven, would accompany each other, as Moses tells us they actually did; for, according to him, both happened on the same day. In this manner the flood would come on quietly and gradually, without that violence to the globe which Burnet, Whiston, and other theorists, are obliged to suppose. The abatement of the waters would ensue on the ascent of the electric fluid to where it was before. The atmosphere would then absorb the water as formerly: that which had ascended through the earth would again subside; and thus every thing would return to its pristine state.

3. We conclude by noticing some of the alterations and effects which are supposed to have taken place in consequence of the deluge. One of these is the much greater quantity of water in the present than in the old world. Dr. Keill has, indeed, endeavoured to prove, that the present extent of the surface of the waters is necessary to raise such a quantity of vapors as may supply the surface of the earth with rain and with springs. In answer to this it is said, that it may justly be questioned whether all springs are derived from the vapors raised by the sun's heat? and, secondly, Whether the primitive earth stood in need of such a quantity of rain to render it fertile as the present? Dr. Woodward supposes the antediluvian seas to have been nearly of the same extent with those at present, because 'the spoils of the sea, the shells and other marine bodies, are left in such prodigious numbers in the earth, that they could not have been left in such quantities, had not the seas occupied much the same space as they do now.' This argument, however, is thought by Mr. Cockburn to be inconclusive; and that the seas in the present earth are vastly more extended, and consequently the dry land so much less in proportion, may be inferred, he thinks, from the great multitude of islands that lie near the shores of the greater continents, &c. To all this it may be replied, that the Mosaic account says nothing of the extent of the seas either before or after the flood; but simply tells us, that the waters were poured out upon the surface of the earth from the windows of heaven and the fountains of the deep, and that as the flood decreased the waters returned from off the face of the earth. That the fish, as well as land animals, were more numerous in the antediluvian world than now when such quantities are destroyed by mankind, is also probable, as we see they abound to this day in uninhabited places. This may account for the astonishing quantities of exuviae to be met with in many different parts of the earth; but from the formation of islands nothing can be concluded concerning the antediluvian world. The late discoveries have shown that many islands have a volcanic origin; that others are formed by the growth of coral; and some by an accumulation of sea-weeds and other matters floating on the surface of the ocean, and detained upon sand-banks and sunk rocks; while not a few of those near the great continent owe their origin to the quantities of mud brought down by the great rivers which fall into the ocean. The inferior fertility of the earth after the deluge is much insisted upon by the same author.

There has been a valuable addition to the spe-

culations we have noticed above, in a new work of the Rev. Mr. Townsend, entitled, *Character of Moses established for Veracity*. Historian, recording Events from the Creation to the Deluge. It might be said on opening volume, Is it necessary again to take up the defence of Moses? is not the phalanx of good men who have already stood forth in his behalf sufficient to secure him from any attack? It is true, indeed, that the rays of celestial wisdom has often darted its beams on the impious cavillers, but they rise with new courage from the ruin which had overwhelmed them, and rush with blind rage on bulwarks whence they have been so often repelled. They have begun, of late, to try the effect of new methods of assault, and to exert in the advantageous display of their resources. It was no small triumph over Revelation to have proved that the earth was never created, but was originally a splinter struck off from the sun by a heavy body which happened to impinge upon it. But a great Epicurean philosopher recently has proceeded much further, and has finally developed the theory of the animal creation. It seems that the primitive world was a vast pool, in which all creatures sported in the shape of tadpoles, until some of them longed to walk on dry land, legs fitted for that purpose spontaneously sprang forth from the hinder quarters. Some affected hoofs, and gradually became horses; while others, of a more ambitious character, forced their humbler brethren to carry them on their backs. A great metaphysician, the son of Scotland, proved, in defiance of Moses, that the primitive men wore tails, and that owing to the friction of tight clothing their posterity have lost so ornamental an appendage. We have not heard, indeed, that the Socratic philosophers have recovered this badge; but they are well rid of all other symptoms of degeneracy; but it is impossible to say how perfectibility may reach, and to what new heights of dignity and honor they may be destined to ascend. It is surprising that the old tradition has not been rooted out by the improvements in science; but, as Moses stood his ground so long, there seems no chance of his holding out to the last. It is impossible to say what new stratagems he played off; and, as the enemy seems to be vanquished with victory, we are not displeased to have him as an auxiliary. We therefore enter upon some facts and reasonings of the work before us with considerable satisfaction.

The design of Mr. Townsend is, to compare the present state of our knowledge of the history of man and of the earth with the relations contained in the early part of Genesis, and by comparison to establish the character of the historian as a faithful recorder of events. The part of his work contains a disquisition on similar traditions which were handed down among many nations from the most ancient times; but the larger portion of the volume consists of a geological essay on the proofs that the globe has undergone a universal deluge. It shows that the creation of the world, as we now see it, emerged from a state of primitive chaos



ersal ocean, are not only contained in the Grecian poets and philosophers, but are traced among several more ancient writers. A curious extract from one of the following details:—'Of all objects created world, water existed first. It was dark. In this primeval water, in a masculine form, repose for the thousand ages; after which, the intensifying other beings, for his own wise became predominant in the mind of God. In the first place, by his will, rose one flower of the lotus; then the Adama, who, emerging from the cup of the lotus, looked round and beheld, from the four heads, an immeasurable expanse. In this flower he passed 500 years in complexity, and prayer; after which he created the four elements, and the genii which govern them. From his right side there issued the omnipotence of God, a man of wisdom, Swayambhuva Menu, that is, son-existent; and from his left side a woman, Satarupa.' (P. 43, 44.) To the same passage is a passage in the ancient Edda, published by Resenius.

On the subject of the deluge, which occupies a great part of this work, he prefers dwellings which are in a great measure referred to other writers for the history. This we approve, while we think the historical part of the question is being exhausted. The Pralayas or periodical destructions of the Hindoos, as related in the Vedas—the successive destructions of the world, of which a correspondence is given by Sæmund in the Runic Edda, and by Seneca from the representations of the Egyptians—and the similar ceremonies practised in the celebration of this event in Egypt and in other parts of the world, are facts which deserve a careful eluci-

ation. The facts which Mr. Townsend brings forward in support of his universal catastrophe are diffused throughout the geological disquisition which occupies a great portion of the volume. He takes a general view of the surface of the earth, and the order of its strata, as far as they are explored; in the course of which he gives us in a very interesting manner the results of his investigation, continued, as he says, during fifty years, and pursued in all parts of Europe. We may safely say that no other work contains far more information on the same subject.

Mr. Townsend lays a foundation for the development of more general phenomena to which his author gives a brief view first of the formation of our own island. We regret that we cannot follow him through their details: we prepare the reader to contemplate the succession of formations in other parts of the world. Under this head our author has given us the views afforded by travellers in almost all parts of the world which has been explored. They are very general, yet sufficiently to confirm the conclusion which Mr. Townsend has drawn from them. 'Whether we observe,' says Mr. Townsend, 'Europe, Asia, Africa, or

America, the same arrangement may be traced; with this exception, that both in our island, and over the surface of the globe, in some places, the superior strata are deficient, and may be supposed to have been carried off, after they had been deposited in the bosom of the ocean. This arrangement, as already stated, includes granite, gneiss, slate, and argillaceous schist, mountain lime-stone, coal, schist, calcareous rocks, with clay, sand, chalk, and its integument of sand and clay.'

The geological theory adopted by Mr. Townsend is highly favorable to this part of the Scriptural History. If, with him, we can trace the actual operation of agents sufficiently powerful to elevate the continent of South America, (which this author conceives to have been those now operating in her abundant volcanoes), and other such extensive regions from the depths of the ocean, it is no longer difficult to conceive, that the waters may have covered the highest mountains, and that great tracts of habitable land may have been submerged.

But absolute and distinct proofs of this event are to be found in the dislocations of strata, and in the phenomena connected with alluvial depositions. There is no part of the earth in which the violent dislocations of the regular strata are not to be found; and they are chiefly abundant in mountainous tracts, of which no other proof need be cited than the vertical position which the strata forming high mountains now hold, while we are assured that these very strata were originally horizontal. But even in the most level countries we need not go far for evidences of these convulsions. Every river, every brook which breaks out under our feet, and every valley which diversifies the surface, owes its existence to the disruption of strata. All the rock formations were at first unbroken and continuous; wherever a valley occurs there is now an interruption of this continuity. That these hollows were not the mere effect of rivers which have worn out courses for their waters may be proved by a variety of geological facts which we have not room to introduce here; but it is put in sufficiently strong light by Mr. Townsend's observations on springs, which are in a great measure new, and of very general interest. Every stratum of rock, before it becomes broken up, carries with it in its course under the surface a stratum of water, which percolates its stony beds, and is confined between impervious layers of clay. It is only where these subterranean courses are disturbed, and the strata are torn asunder by some extraneous force, that fountains and rivers burst forth. These dislocations and disturbances of strata can only be attributed to the agency of vast torrents every where flowing over and disorganising the surface of the earth, and such torrents can only be furnished by the incursions of the ocean. Land floods and rivers are the effects of the previous disruption of the strata, and therefore cannot be considered the efficient causes.

The production of these phenomena by the waters of a deluge is further proved by *alluvial deposit*. The vast extent of alluvions, independently of all other proof, declares that the



ocean gave them birth. One great accumulation of debris fills nearly the whole of Flanders and Holland; it reaches across the channel, and covers the southern and eastern counties of England, concealing under it, at a great depth, the regular strata of these districts. Another alluvion forms Lower Saxony and Holstein. Similar appearances occur in all level countries, and valleys are generally filled with these accumulations, through the midst of which the feeble streams of the present rivers have opened for themselves diminutive channels. That these accumulations were affected at once by vast oceanic torrents, and not by the gradual influence of rain and land floods, appears, Mr. T. observes, from the alluvial strata not being mixed or blended together, but frequently disposed according to their specific gravity. The vast fragments of rock which are found scattered over plains and mountains, in so many parts of the earth, at great distances from their native mountains, lead us forcibly to the same inference.

One of the most important observations which relates to these deposits is the following:—‘In all the alluvial districts here particularly noticed, it appears that only one bed of vegetable earth is to be seen. Consequently these strata have not been produced by land floods, at different and at distant periods. They direct our attention to one epoch, and most distinctly give us a measure, by which to estimate the time which has elapsed since either the elevation of our present continents, or the depression of the surrounding seas.’

We are assured, that the incursions of the ocean over the habitable surface of the earth took place at a time since it was actually inhabited by land animals, by the organic remains which the alluvions contain; and this remark leads us to our author’s disquisition on the interesting subject of extraneous fossils, with which we shall close our observations. Mr. Townsend is the first who has given us any extensive account of the organic remains, in connexion with the strata to which they belong; and in this respect he has rendered great service to the public. The oldest class of rocks contain no vestiges of organised beings, and this fact is sufficient to silence the assertion of Hutton, that the world exhibits no traces of a beginning. Lithophytes and shells occur in the oldest secondary rocks, and more complicated beings gradually make their appearance. All these, however, and indeed all the organic remains occurring in strata which have never been disturbed and disintegrated, may be termed indigenous. It is plain, that the creatures of which they are the spoils lived and died on the places where they are here traced. The shells are found deposited according to families, and confined in a great measure each to its own stratum; and a similar remark applies to other animal remains of this department. It is not so with those of alluvial ground. These are assembled from all parts of the earth, and are thrown together in promiscuous heaps. In the same beds are found shells and corals only known in the Pacific Ocean, and the bones of elephants and rhinoceroses. ‘They seem,’ says Mr. Townsend, ‘to have been transported from

distant climates, and to have been deposited in a tumultuous manner by some grand agency, which blended and buried terrestrial productions, ancient and recent, in one grave. The direction in which they are conveyed, appears to have been from the east to north-west. Hence, where we have the opportunity of making distinctions respecting natural habitations, as in the Asiatic elephants, it is remarkable that the former, the latter, are to be found fossil in Europe. Should the latter have been transported from their native seats by the same agency, it is probable that their relics have been deposited in the Atlantic Ocean.’

On the whole, though the arrangement of the author’s materials might have been improved in this work, he has added considerably to the stores of natural history, and to the confirmation of the details of the deluge on this subject.

DELUSION, *n. s.* } Lat. *delusio*  
 DELU’SIVE, *adj.* } LUDE. A ch  
 DELU’SORY. } hood; the act  
 or deluding: the adjectives alike mislead and deceive.

Yea, they have chosen their own way  
 soul delighteth in their abominations.  
 chase their delusions. Bible.

Who therefore seeks in the  
 True wisdom, finds her not, or by de

This confidence is founded on no better  
 than a delusory prejudice.

Phænomena so delusory that it is ver  
 cape imposition and mistake.

I waking, viewed with grief the risi  
 And fondly mourned the dear delusion

While the base and grovelling man  
 listening to the delusive deities, those of  
 aspect and exalted spirit separated them  
 the rest. Tatle

Why will any man be so impertinent  
 to tell me all prospect of a future state  
 and delusion! Is there any merit in be  
 senger of ill news? If it is a dream, let  
 since it makes me both the happier and b

Unnumbered suppliants crowd preferm  
 Athirst for wealth, and burning to be gre  
 Delusive fortune hears the incessant call,  
 They mount, they shine, evaporate, and  
 Johnson. Vanity of Hu

Can we persist to bid your sorrows f  
 For fabled sufferers, and delusive woe!

DEMAGOGUE, *n. s.* Gr. *δημαγωγος*  
 ringleader of the rabble; a popular  
 orator.

Who were the chief demagogues and p  
 muls, to send for them, to flatter and emb  
 Ki

A plausible, insignificant word, in the  
 expert demagogue, is a dangerous and d  
 pon.

Demosthenes and Cicero, though eac  
 leader, or, as the Greeks called it, a *demagogue*,  
 popular state, yet seem to differ in their p



N, n. s. } Old Fr. *demesne*; Fr. *domaine*; both probably from Lat. *dominus*. That land is held originally of himself, called by the civilians, and opposed to fee, which signifies those that are held of lord. It is sometimes used also in relation between those lands that the manor has in his own hands, or in fee of his lessee, demised or let upon a term of years or life, and such other pertaining to the said manor as belong to copyholders. Estate in land, or land in mansion, in which sense *demesne* is thought to come from old Fr. *mesne*, *mesio*.

Having now provided  
an of noble parentage,  
comes, youthful, and nobly allied,  
*Shakespeare.*

dom indeed had a royal jurisdiction and  
ough the lands of that county in *demesne*  
ed for the most part by the ancient in-  
*Davies.*

s for planting forest trees have hitherto  
ineffectual, except about the *demesnes* of  
men; and even there, in general, very  
ade.  
*Swift.*

ND, v. a. & n. s. } Fr. *demandeur*;  
ABLE, adj. } Span. and Portug. *demandar*; Ital. *demandare*; Lat. *de-*  
ANT, n. s. } *mandare*; Lat. *de-*  
IER. } *mandare* and *mando* (*manu do*, to give  
nd). To claim; ask for as one's own  
or with authority; hence to question.

As a substantive it is the claim  
mount of it in money; an application  
ny thing at its price: demandable,  
is due: demandant and demander,  
gives his alleged due by law or other-

a Uriah was come unto him, David de-  
m how Joab did, and how the people did,  
war prospered. 2 Sam. xi. 7.  
er is by the decree of the watchers, and  
by the word of the holy ones.

*Dan. iv. 17.*  
*demandable*, for licence of alienation to be  
sholden in chief, have been stayed in the  
asper.  
*Bacon.*

of flesh which I demand of him,  
ght; 'tis mine, and I will have it.  
*Shakespeare.*

Young one,  
us of thy fortunes; for, it seems,  
ave to be demanded.  
*Id.*

very fast and fat, which also bettereth  
d delivereth them to the *demanders* ready  
sons.  
*Carew.*

e of Apollo being demanded, when the  
ery of Greece should have an end, re-  
they would double the altar in Delos,  
a cubick form. *Peachment on Geometry.*

it, gives life and strength to our appe-  
te that has the confidence to turn his  
*demand*, will be but a little way from  
right to obtain them. *Loche.*  
eller tells me, the demand for those my  
oes daily.  
*Addison.*

One of the witnesses deposed, that dining on a  
Sunday with the *demandant*, whose wife had sat be-  
low the squire's lady at church, she the said wife  
dropped some expressions, as if she thought her hus-  
band ought to be knighted. *Spectator.*

There are two manners of *demands*, the one of deed,  
the other in law: in deed, as in every præcipe, there  
is express demand; in law, as every entry in land dis-  
tress for rent, taking or seizing of goods, and such  
like acts, which may be done without any words, are  
*demands* in law. *Blount.*

But the misery of it is, men will not think; will  
not employ their thoughts, in good earnest, about the  
things which most of all deserve and demand them.  
*Mason.*

Every man has frequent occasion to state a con-  
tract, or demand a debt, or make a narrative of minute  
incidents of common life. *Johnson.*

Thus for short sins short hours of penance flow,  
But heavier guilt demands more lasting woe.  
*Dr. T. Brown.*

DEMBEA, a large lake of Abyssinia, is in  
the heart of the country, and supposed to be  
about 450 miles in circumference. It contains  
many islands, particularly one of great size,  
which is made a place of confinement. The  
great river Bahr-el-Azrek, so often supposed to be  
the true Nile, falls into it on the west, and issues  
from it on the south-west: it is said that the  
stream may be distinguished through the whole  
of its passage. Various small streams also fall  
into it.

DEMBEA, a province of Abyssinia, surrounding  
the great lake of that name. On the north it  
comprehends that fertile tract of which Gondar  
is the capital. On the east it includes Foggara,  
Dara, and Alata; and, on the west, the lands  
about Waindaga and Dingleber. The whole re-  
gion is fruitful, and finely varied by mountains  
and plains. It is particularly described by Bruce.

DEMEAN, v. a. & n. s. } Fr. *mener*; Ital.  
DEMEANOUR. } *menare*; Norm. Fr.

*demesner*; whence, thinks Mr. Todd, our word  
manage, i. e. conduct, carriage, *demeanour*: per-  
haps the whole, we might add, from Lat. *manus*,  
the hand. To behave; generally to carry one's  
self in a particular way. There seems to be no  
good authority for using it for debase. Dr. John-  
son's instance from Shakspeare, and Mr. Todd's  
from Doddridge, are equivocal; but the reader  
will judge.

At his feet with sorrowful *demean*,  
And deadly hue, an armed corse did lie.  
*Spenser.*

Now, out of doubt, Antipholus is mad,  
Else he would never so *demean* himself.  
*Shakespeare.*

Angels best like us, when we are most like unto them,  
in all parts of decent *demeanour*. *Hooker.*

His gestures fierce  
He, marked, and mad *demeanour*, then alone,  
As he supposed, all unobserved, unseen.  
*Milton.*

He was of a courage not to be daunted, which was  
manifested in all his actions, especially in his whole  
*demeanour* at Rhee, both at the landing and upon the  
retreat. *Clarendon.*

Those plain and legible lines of duty requiring us  
to *demean* ourselves to God humbly and devoutly, to  
our governors obediently, and to our neighbours justly,  
and to ourselves soberly and temperately. *South.*



Of so insupportable a pride he was, that where his deeds might well stir envy, his *demeanour* did rather breed disdain.

*Sidney.*

A man cannot doubt but that there is a God; and that, according as he *demean*s himself towards him, he will make him happy or miserable for ever.

*Tillotson.*

Strephon had long perplexed his brains,  
How with so high a nymph he might  
*Demean* himself the wedding night.

*Swift.*

That brow in furrowed lines had fixed at last,  
And spake of passions, but of passions past;  
The pride, but not the fire, of early days,  
Coldness of mean, and carelessness of praise;  
A high *demeanour*, and a glance that took  
Their thoughts from others by a single look.

*Byron.*

Peter was so affected at his condescending to perform such a mean office, that he says to him, It is a thousand times fitter that I should wash thine, nor can I bear to see thee thus *demean* thyself.

*Doddridge's Expositor.*

DEMENTATE, *v. a.* } Lat. *demento*, of *de*  
DEMENTATION, *n. s.* } and *mens*, the mind. To make mad. Making mad, or frantic.

DEMERARA, or DEMERARA AND ESSEQUIBO, a colony of Great Britain, in the north-eastern part of South America. It is composed of two governments, named as above, both which, having been finally confirmed to Great Britain by the peace of 1814, are now one united colony. They form a part of what was originally Dutch Guienne; but the king of the Netherlands only retains, in this part of the world, the colony of Surinam. The general features and natural history of this country have been described already in our article AMERICA, SOUTH, par. 206—220. Demerara is bounded on the north by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east by a line drawn from the mouth of Albany Creek, in a south-east direction, dividing it from the British colony of Berbice, on the west by the river Pomaron, which divides it from Spanish Guiana; its southern boundary is undetermined. Staebroek, the only considerable town, and the seat of government, is in lat. 6° 46' N., and long. 57° 45' W. from London.

The whole country is low and swampy: on the coast the tides rise to the height of from sixteen to twenty-four feet. The rivers are the Essequibo, Demerara, and Canji or Cayonny, the last being supposed to communicate with the Orinoco. The Demerara River has a bar across its mouth, which prevents ships of large burden passing it; but vessels drawing fourteen feet may be loaded at Staebroek. Here are convenient wharfs: no large vessels, however, can lie near them, on account of the declivity of the bank, but are compelled to load and unload their cargoes in the middle of a rapid stream. The Essequibo is easily entered by the largest ships, but they must also be loaded and unloaded in the stream, as the same causes prevent their lying near shore.

We have also noticed the political history of these settlements. It is only necessary to add, that while, under the British government, the general internal policy is improved, and the roads, drainage, &c., have assumed a very different aspect to that which they bore in former times, the

curse of an extensive dependence on cultivation is no where more evident. (and cotton, are the staple articles of no where on earth is a finer soil pre- hand of man. It has been a transpo- of our western possessions as man- been known to produce thirty crop- canes in succession, without replant- times it has been cropped two or three plantains, to reduce its excessive afterwards with sugar canes; but the and sometimes even the third crop, luxuriant as to be only fit to make estate is intersected with dikes a communicating with the river, by me in small flat-bottomed boats, the wha- ance of the produce is effected from the estate to another. Thus they ca from the field to the sugar-mill a house. The earth removed to form is thrown on beds, which contain the planted in rows six feet asunder. They are planted in rows from nine to apart, and the intermediate space either by plantain-trees, or the be- growing to the height of twelve or and affording a welcome shade to plants.

In the colony are from 60,000 to kept in awe with difficulty, and in- gree by the strong aversion that sub- them and the aboriginal Indians of who readily bring back all stragg- masters, and often assist in suppres- dination. The colony is gover- Dutch laws. The free inhabitants d 3000.

DEMERIT, *n. s.* Fr. *demerite*; *tus*, Lat. of *demerco*. See MERIT.

They should not be able once to stir, but it should be known, and they short- to their *demerits*.

*Spenar*

I fetch my life and be- From men of royal siege; and my de- May speak, unbosnetting, to as proud- As this that I have reached.

*Shakspe*

Thou livest by me, to me thy brea- Mine is the merit; the *demerit* thine

Whatever they acquire by their ind- nity, should be secure, unless forfeited- rit or offence against the custom of the

I considered the possession of it [a frequent occasion of personal *demerit*, generality of the bishops bartering their and the dignity of their order for the cha- lation, and polluting gospel-humility by prelacy.

DEMERSED, *part.* } From *de*  
DEMERSON, *n. s.* } *mergo*, La- drowned. A drowning. In chemi- ting any medicine in a dissolving li-

DEMESNE. See DEMAIN.

DEMETRIUS I., surnamed Po- stroyer of towns, was the son of An- the age of twenty-two he was sent- against Ptolemy, who invaded Syria- defeated Gaza, but soon repaired



ver one of the generals of the enemy. ards sailed with a fleet of 250 ships to d restored the Athenians to liberty, by m from the power of Cassander and Pto- expelling the garrison, which was statu under Demetrius Phalereus. After this expedition, he besieged and took Muny- defeated Cassander at Thermopylae. His at Athens after these victories was at- th the most servile flattery; and the were not ashamed to raise altars to a god, and consult his oracles. This jealousy of the successors of Alexander; eus, Cassander, and Lysimachus united of Antigonus and his son. Their hostile met at Ipsus, A. A. C. 301: Antigonus ed in the battle; and Demetrius, after a es, retired to Ephesus. The Athenians, lately adored him as a god, refused to m into their city; but he soon after ra- he territory of Lysimachus, and recon- mself to Seleucus, to whom he gave his e Stratonice in marriage. Athens now under tyranny, and Demetrius relieved time, and pardoned the inhabitants. of his possessions in Asia recalled him eece, and he established himself on the Macedonia. Here he was continually at the neighbouring states, and the superior of his adversaries obliged him to leave his after he had sat on the throne for seven He passed into Asia, and attacked some ovinces of Lysimachus with various suc- t famine and pestilence having destroyed est part of his army, he applied to Se- assistance. He, at first, met with a kind a, but hostilities were again soon begun; gh he gained some advantages over his w, he was at last forsaken by his troops, n prisoner. Though Seleucus kept him e ment, he maintained him like a prince, ased his time in hunting, and in other exercises. His son Antigonus offered all his possessions, and even his person, re his father's liberty, but in vain, and died in the fifty-fourth year of his age, onfnement of three years, A. A. C. 286. ains were given to Antigonus, and ho- ith a splendid funeral at Corinth, and conveyed to Demetrius.

ETRIUS I., king of Syria, surnamed Soter, ur, was son of Seleucus Philopater. t hostage at Rome, when his father died, e, Antiochus Epiphanes, usurped the n, and was succeeded by his son Antio- apator. Demetrius at last procured his n pretence of going to hunt, and fled to here the troops received him as their law- n. He put to death Eupator and Lysias, devouring to establish himself on his by cruelty and oppression, Alexander e pretended son of Antiochus Epiphanes, the crown, and defeated Demetrius in a A. A. C. 150.

ETRIUS, the disciple of Apollonius Tya- cynic philosopher of the age of Caligula. peror wished to gain him to his interest by present; but Demetrius refused it with sion, and said, If Caligula wishes to bribe

me, let him send me his crown. Vespasian was displeased with his insolence, and banished him to an island. The cynic derided the punishment, and satirised the emperor. He died in an extreme old age; and Seneca observes, that 'nature had brought him forth to show mankind, that an exalted genius can live securely without being corrupted by the vices of the surrounding world.'

DEMETRIUS PHALEREUS, a celebrated orator and peripatetic philosopher, was the scholar of Theophrastus. He acquired so much authority at Athens, that he governed the city for ten years; and he ruled with so much wisdom and virtue, that thirty-six statues were erected in honor of him. Being obnoxious, however, to the aristocratical party, they procured an order for his death; but, he escaped into Egypt, and was protected by Ptolemy Lagus. On the death of that prince he was banished by his successor. None of the works of this celebrated philosopher are extant, except his *Rhetoric*, which is usually printed among the *Rhetores Selecti*.

DEMETRIUS, czar of Russia, commonly called the false Demetrius, was, according to most authors, a native of Jaroslaw, and a novice in a monastery, where he was instructed by an old monk to personate Demetrius, son of the czar John Basilovitz, who had been murdered by Boris Gudenov, in 1597. The youth, according to his instructions, went under the name of Demetrius, and pretended to have escaped from his murderers into Lithuania, where he was taken into the service of a nobleman named Wicnovitski, to whom he told his story, and who espoused his cause. When Boris heard of this rival, he sent assassins to despatch him; but his patron being warned of it conveyed him to Mnieski, palatine of Sandomir, who promised to assist him in his design on the Russian throne, provided he would embrace the Roman Catholic religion, which he readily consented to, and was married to the palatine's daughter. Assisted by the Poles, Demetrius, in 1604, marched into Russia, at the head of a small army, and was soon joined by a number of Russians and Cossacs. He defeated an army sent against him, and an insurrection took place in his favor. On the death of Boris, the people strangled his son, and placed Demetrius on the throne; but his partiality to the Poles and contempt of the Greek religion occasioned an insurrection, and he was murdered in 1606, after a short reign of about eleven months. Mr. Archdeacon Cox, contrary to the generality of writers, considers him to have been the true prince Demetrius.

DEMI ATTICI, in ancient history, boroughs or large villages of Attica. The Athenian tribes were distributed into Demi. Homer, in his catalogue, distinguishes the Athenians by the appellation Demos. And when Theseus prevailed on them to quit the country of Attica, and settle at Athens, they still continued to frequent the Demi, and to perform their religious ceremonies there.

DEMI-CANNON, *n. s.* From demi, half, and cannon. An ancient piece of artillery, carrying a thirty-six pound ball.



What! this a sleeve, 'tis like a *demí-cannon*.

*Shakespeare.*

Ten engines, that shall be of equal force either to a cannon or *demí-cannon*, culverin or *demí-culverin*, may be framed at the same price that one of these will amount to.

*Wilkins.*

**DEMI-CULVERIN.** An old piece of ordnance carrying a thirteen pound ball.

They continue a perpetual volley of *demí-culverins*.

*Raleigh.*

The army left two *demí-culverins*, and two other good guns.

*Clarendon.*

**DEMI-DEVIL.** From *demi* and *devil*. Partaking of infernal nature; half a devil.

Will you, I pray, demand that *demí-devil*,

Why he hath thus ensnared my soul and body?

*Shakespeare. Othello.*

**DEMI-GOD, n. s.** From *demi* and *god*. Partaking of a divine nature; half a god; a hero produced by the cohabitation of divinities with mortals. See **HERO**.

He took his leave of them, whose eyes bade him farewell with tears, making temples to him as to a *demí-god*.

*Sidney.*

Be gods, or angels, *demí-gods*.

*Milton.*

Transported *demí-gods* stood round,

And men grew heroes at the sound,

Inflamed with glory's charms.

*Pope.*

Nay, half in heaven, except (what's mighty odd)

A fit of vapours clouds this *demí-god*.

*Id.*

Who is this?

Who truly looketh like a *demí-god*,

Blooming and bright, with golden hair, and stature,

If not more high than mortal, yet immortal.

*Byron.*

**DEMI-GORGE**, in fortification, is that part of the polygon which remains after the flank is raised, and goes from the curtain to the angle of the polygon. It is half of the vacant space or entrance into a bastion.

**DEMI-LANCE, n. s.** From *demi* and *lance*. A light lance; a short spear; a half pike.

On their steeled heads their *demí-lances* wore

Small pennons, which their ladies colours bore.

*Dryden.*

Light *demí-lances* from afar they throw,

Fastened with leathern thongs, to gail the foe.

*Id.*

**DEMI-MAN, n. s.** From *demi* and *man*. Half a man; a term of reproach.

We must adventure this battle, lest we perish by the complaints of this barking *demí-man*.

*Knolles.*

**DEMISE, v. a. & n. s.** Fr. *demis*; Lat. *demitto*, *demisi*, to hand down. (*de* and *mitto*, Gr. *μετιναι*). Applied to handing down by legacy or death; and, as a substantive, to death itself, by which the crown of a monarchy is generally transmitted.

Inexorable vigour is worse than a lasche *demission* of sovereign authority.

*L'Estrange.*

About a month before the *demise* of queen Anne, the author retired.

*Swift.*

My executors shall not have power to *demise* my lands to be purchased.

*Swift's Last Will.*

**DEMISE**, in law, is applied to an estate either in fee simple, fee-tail, or for a term of life or years; and so it is commonly taken in many writs.

**DEMISE**, and **RE-DEMISE**, denote a conveyance where there are mutual leases made from one to another of the same land, or something out of it.

**DEMI-SEMI-QUAVER**, in music, the shortest note, two of them being equal to a semi-quaver.

**DEMIT, v. a.** Lat. *demitto*. See **DEMISE**. To depress; to hang down; to let fall.

When they are in their pride, that is, advancing their train, if they decline their neck to the ground, they presently *demis* and let fall the same.

*Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

**DEMI-WOLF, n. s.** From *demi* and *wolf*. Half a wolf; a mongrel dog between a dog and wolf.

Spaniels, curs,

Showgas, water-rugs, and *demí-wolves*, are 'cleped

All by the name of dogs. *Shakespeare. Macbeth.*

**DEMOCRACY, n. s.** Fr. *democratic*;

**DEMOCRAT,** } Spanish *democracia*,

**DEMOCRATIC, n. s.** } from Gr. *δημος*

(*δημος* the people, and *κρατος* to govern). A government by the people at large. A *democrat* is an advocate or partizan of democracy. The old word *democratic* is only more agreeable to the etymology.

Thence to the famous orators repair,

Those ancient, whose resistless eloquence

Wielded at will that fierce *democratic*,

Shook the arsenal and falmined over Greece.

*Milton.*

They are still within the line of vulgarity, and as *democratical* enemies to truth.

*Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

While many of the servants, by industry and virtue, arrive at riches and esteem, then the nature of the government inclines to a *democracy*.

*Temple.*

The majority, having the whole power of the community, may employ all that power in making laws, and executing those laws; and there the form of the government is a perfect *democracy*.

*Locke.*

As the government of England has a mixture of *democratical* in it, so the right is partly in the people.

*Arbutnot.*

**DEMOCRITUS**, one of the greatest philosophers of antiquity, was born in Abdera, in Thrace, about the 80th Olympiad, or A.A.C. 466. His father, says Valerius Maximus, was able to entertain the army of Xerxes; and Diogenes Laertius adds, that the king, in return, presented him with some Magi and Chaldeans. From these he received the first part of his education; and, whilst yet a boy, learned theology and astronomy. He next applied to Leucippus, and learned from him the systems of atoms and a vacuum. His father dying, he and his two brothers divided the estate. Democritus made choice of that part which consisted of money, as being, though the least share, the most convenient for travelling; and it is said, that his portion amounted to 100 talents, which is nearly £20,000 sterling. He now went to visit the priests of Egypt, from whom he learned geometry; and it is said, that he penetrated even into India and Ethiopia, to confer with the Gymnosophists. In these travels he wasted his substance, so that on his return he was maintained by his brother; notwithstanding which, he procured the highest honors of his country,





DEMISDALE.



DEMOCRITUS.



ST. K. DIGBY.



DERHAM.



DESGOUTIERS.



C. D. DABYN.



CHEVALIER D'ÉON.

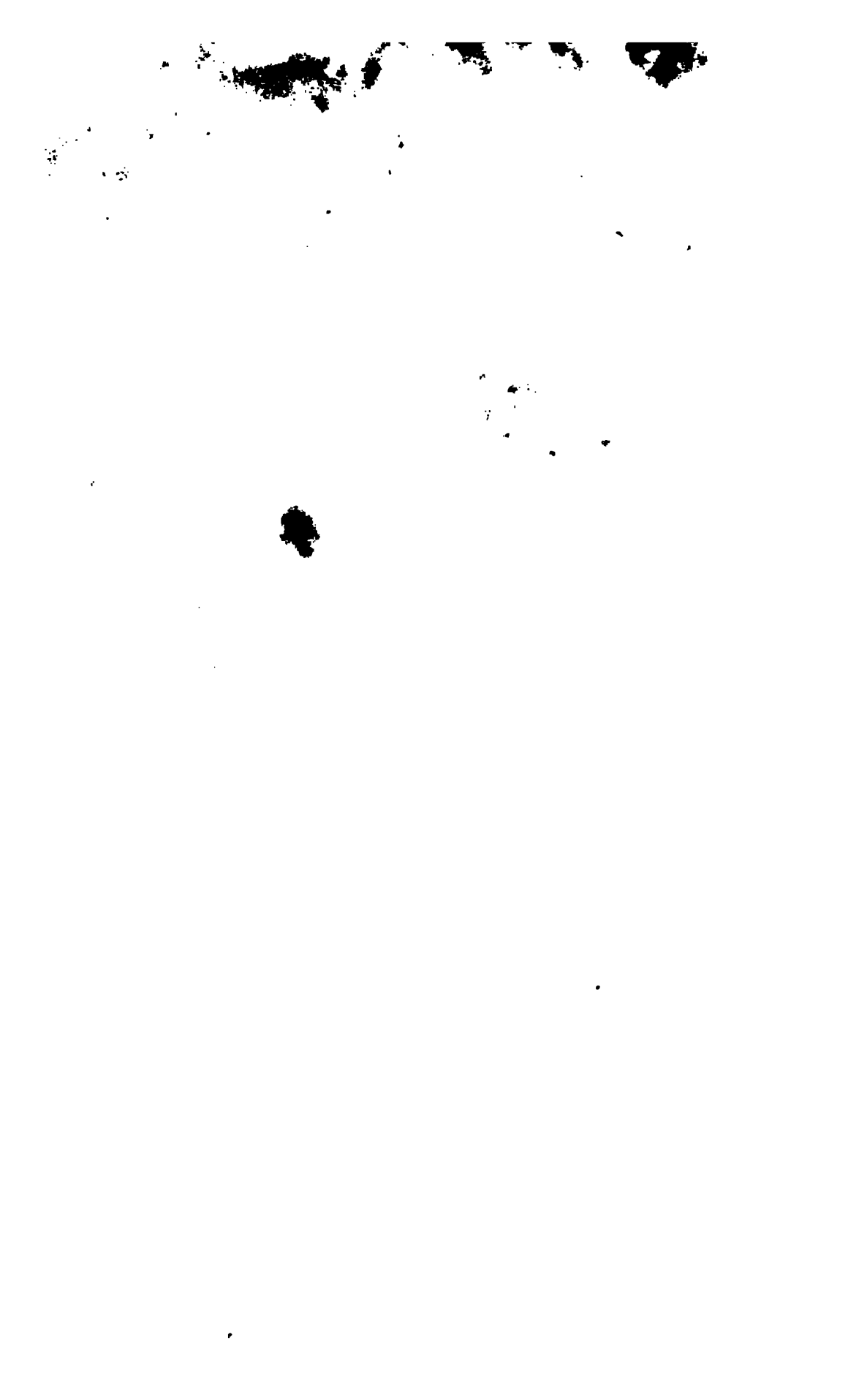


DEMOSTHENES.



DENHAM.







governed with unlimited sway and its wisdom. The magistrates of Abbeville him a present of 500 talents, and stues to him, even in his lifetime; but, really more inclined to contemplation than with public honors and employments, withdrew into solitude and retirement. He only laughed at human life, as a conceit, which made the inhabitants of Abbeville mad, on which they sent for him to cure him; but that celebrated physician told the Abderians, that those who themselves the most healthy were the most mephitic. Democritus died, according to Laetius, aged 100, A. A. C. 361. He is the author of many books, which are all borrowed from these Epicurus borrowed his

IVRE (Abraham), an eminent French mathematician, F. R. S. London, was a native of Champagne, and driven from his native country as a Protestant, by the revocation of the edict of Nantes. He settled in London as a mathematician, and was particularly celebrated for his skill and accuracy as a calculator, and he is referred to by Pope:

as Demoivre, without rule or line.

In 1754, at the age of eighty-six. His works are: *Miscellanea Analytica*, 4to.; *The Chances, or a Method of Calculating the Probabilities of Events at Play*, 4to.; and *Arithmetica*, besides papers in the *Transactions of the Royal Society*.

DEMOLISH, *v. a.* } Fr. *demolir*; from  
SHER, *n. s.* } Lat. *demolari*, i. e. *destruction*.  
and *molior* (moles, a mole); to destroy a building; hence to demolish.

and which, it is now demolished, and lies in the dust, buried in its own ruins; being nothing standing but a few broken stones, seem to mourn their own approaching ruin.  
Fuller. *Worthies of Devon.*

the fabrick of my book would long since be demolished, and laid even with the ground.  
Tillotson.

nothing played along the firmament,  
demolished works to pieces rent.

men should have the direction in the  
Dunkirk.  
Swift.

misled him thro' a spacious hall,  
hung the half-demolished wall.  
Gay

are of the builder of a new system is to  
fabrics which are standing.  
Johnson.

error of divinity had been nick-named  
eticorum; it was thought to be his duty  
every opinion which militated against  
the orthodoxy of the Church of England.  
Bp. Watson.

DEM, *n. s.* } Fr. *demón*; Ital.  
AC, *n. s. & adj.* } from Lat. *dæmon*;  
ACAI, *adj.* } *δαίμων, δαίω, δαίω*;  
AN, *adj.* } *μωv, knowing*. An  
y; a devil; generally used in a bad

the spirits now, from the element  
the reign allotted, rightlier called  
fire, air, water.

VII.

Milton.

*Demoniac* phrensy, raving melancholy. *Id.*

I felt him strike, and now I see him fly:  
Cursed demon! O for ever broken lie  
Those fatal shafts, by which I inward bleed!

Prior.

Those lunatics and demoniacs that were restored  
to their right mind, wore such as sought after him,  
and believed in him.

Bentley.

But ah! those dreadful yells what soul can hear,  
That owns a carcase, and not quake for fear?  
Demons produce them doubtless, brassen-clawed,  
And fanged with brass the demons are abroad.

Cooper.

I said not

You were the demon, but that your approach  
Was like one.

Byron.

DEMONA, VAL, a province of Sicily, which occupies the north-east portion of the island, extending from the strait of Messina to Catania, and having the Val de Mazzara to the west, and Val de Noto to the south. Its greatest width is sixty-five miles, the length 112. To it belong the Lipari and other islands. The population is about 521,000. It is mountainous and woody, being fertile only on the banks of the rivers. The chief productions are silk, hemp, flax, olives, lemons, oranges, figs, and currants; but sulphur abounds in the neighbourhood of Mount Ætna. The atmosphere is here cool and humid. The capital is Messina; the other chief towns are Melazzo, Cefalu, and Taormina.

DEMONOCRACY, *n. s.* *δαίμων* and *κρατία*. The power of the devil.

DEMONOLATRY, *n. s.* *δαίμων* and *λατρεία*. The worship of the devil.

DEMONOLOGY, *n. s.* *δαίμων* and *λόγος*. Discourse of the nature of devils. Thus king James entitled his book concerning witches.

DEMONSTRATE, *v. a.* } Fr. *demonstrer*;  
DEMONSTRABLE, *adj.* } Span. *demonstrar*,  
DEMONSTRABLY, *adv.* } *dimostrar*; from  
DEMONSTRATION, *n. s.* } Lat. *demonstrare*,  
DEMONSTRATIVE, *adj.* } *de*, and *monstro*,  
DEMONSTRATIVELY, *adv.* } to show. To  
DEMONSTRATOR, *n. s.* } prove with cer-  
DEMONSTRATORY, *adj.* } tainty; to exhibit

facts: demonstrable is that which may be proved or exhibited: demonstration, the highest degree of proof; indubitable evidence: demonstrative, having the power of indubitable proof, or of clear expression. Demonstratory, having a tendency to demonstrate. The other derivatives seem plain.

An argument necessary and demonstrative, is such as, being proposed unto any man, and understood, the man cannot choose but inwardly yield. *Hooker.*

What appeareth to be true by strong and invincible demonstration, such as wherein it is not by any way possible to be deceived, thereunto the mind doth necessarily yield. *Id.*

Where is a probability on one side, and no appearance of reason to the contrary; that probability does the work of a demonstration. *Bishop Taylor.*

He should have compelled his ministers to execute the law, in cases that demonstrably concerned the publick peace. *Clarendon.*

Demonstratively understanding the simplicity of perfection, it was not in the power of earth to work them from it. *Browne.*

L



We cannot *demonstrate* these things so as to shew that the contrary often involves a contradiction.

Tillotson.

Painting is necessary to all other arts, because of the need which they have of *demonstrative* figures, which often give more light to the understanding than the clearest discourses.

Dryden.

No man, in matters of this life, requires an assurance either of the good which he designs, or of the evil which he avoids, from arguments *demonstratively* certain.

South.

Where the agreement or disagreement of any thing is plainly and clearly perceived, it is called *demonstration*.

Loche.

The grand articles of our belief are as *demonstrable* as geometry.

Glanville.

First, I *demonstratively* prove,  
That feet were only made to move. Prior.

As for business, the world yet knows nothing of his (the Duke of Grafton) talents or resolution; unless a wayward, wavering inconsistency be a mark of genius, and caprice a *demonstration* of spirit. Junius's Letters.

DEMONSTRATION. See LOGIC.

DEMOSTHENES, the famous Athenian orator, was born at Athens, A.A.C. 381. He lost his father at seven years of age, and was placed under the conduct of guardians, who plundered his property and neglected his education. Demosthenes soon repaired this loss by his extraordinary abilities. He became the disciple of Isæus and Plato, and studied the orations of Isocrates. At the age of seventeen he gave a proof of his eloquence and abilities against his guardians, from whom he recovered the greatest part of his estate. His rising talents were, however, impeded by various natural defects, but which he overcame by dint of resolution and unwearied attention. He declaimed by the seashore, that he might be used to the noise of a tumultuous assembly, and with pebbles in his mouth, that he might correct a defect in his speech. He confined himself in a subterraneous cave, to devote himself more closely to study; and, to check all inclination to appear in public, he shaved one half of his head. In this solitary retirement, by the help of a glimmering lamp, he composed the greatest part of those orations which have since been the admiration of all ages, though his contemporaries and rivals inveighed against them, and observed that they smelt of oil. His abilities, as an orator, raised him to consequence at Athens, and he soon influenced all the decisions of the government. In this capacity he roused his countrymen from their indolence, and animated them against the encroachments of Philip of Macedon. In the battle of Cheronæa, his eloquence, however, could not supply the want of courage, and he saved his life by flight. After the death of Philip, he declared himself warmly against his son Alexander. When the Macedonians demanded of the Athenians their orators, Demosthenes reminded his countrymen of the fable of the sheep which delivered up their dogs to the wolves. By the prevalence of party, however, he was forced to retire to Træzene and Ægina, where, it is said, he lived effeminately. When Antipater made war against Greece, after the

death of Alexander, Demosthenes was publicly recalled from his exile, and a galley was sent to fetch him from Ægina. His return was attended with much splendor, and all the citizens crowded at the Piræus to see him land. But his triumph and popularity were short. Antipater and Craterus were near Athens, and demanded all the orators to be delivered up into their hands. Demosthenes fled to the temple of Neptune, in Calauria; and when he saw no hopes of safety, he took a dose of poison, which he always carried in a quill, and expired on the day that the Thesmophoria were celebrated, A.A.C. 322. The Athenians raised a brazen statue to his honor, with an inscription, of which the following is a translation:

Si tibi par menti robur, vir magne, fuisse,  
Græcia non Macedæ succubuisse hero.

Demosthenes has been deservedly called the prince of orators, and has often been compared with Cicero, whose magnificent eloquence has scarcely the effect of the powerful simplicity of his master, as he was accustomed to style him. Indeed, no orator had ever a finer field than Demosthenes, in his Olynthiacs and Philippics, which are his capital orations. For to the greatness of the subject, and to that integrity and public spirit which breathe in them, they owe the largest portion of their merit.

DEMOTICA, or DIMOTUC, a town of European Turkey, in the province of Romania; situated near the Maritsch, where a Greek archbishop resides, and the Christians have two churches. This town was the abode of Charles II. for some years. It is twelve miles south of Adrianople.

DEMPSTER OF COURT, the name formerly given, in Scotland, to the common executioner, or hangman.

DEMULCENT, *adj.* Lat. *demulceo*, from *de*, and *mulceo* to soften. Softening; mollifying; assuasive.

Pease, being deprived of any aromatick parts, are mild and *demulcent* in the highest degree; but, being full of aerial particles, are flatulent, when dissolved by digestion. Arbuthnot.

DEMULCENTS, among physicians, medicines good against acrimonious humors. Such are the roots of marshmallows, white lilies, liquorice, and viper-grass, the five emollient herbs, &c.

DEMU'R, *v. a. & n. & n. s.* Fr. *demurer*;

DEMUR'ER, Lat. *demorari*;

DEMUR'AGE, from *de*, and *morare*, delay. To doubt of; as a neuter verb, to delay a process; to pause; doubt. A demurrer is defined in the extract from Burns. Demurrage is an allowance to masters of ships for delay in them in port.

Upon this rub the English ambassadors thought to *demur*, and so sent into England to receive directions from the lords of the council. Haywood.

The latter I *demur*; for in their looks

Much reason, and in their actions, oft appears. Milton.

O progeny of heaven, empyreal thrones!

With reason hath deep silence and *demur*

Seized us, though undismayed. Id.

How can I e'er expect to have her,

Having *demurred* unto her favour? Indulgent.



ag int: demands, they expect from us a resolution in things wherein the devil of Del-ld demur. *Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

o this plea the plaintiff demurred.

*Walton's Angler.*

ly the highest and dearest concerns of a life are infinitely less valuable than those of al; and consequently ought, without any all, to be sacrificed to them, whensoever e in competition with them. *South.*

There she kept her word :

with rejoinders and replies,

g hills, and answers stuffed with lies,

er, imparlance, and essoign,

parties ne'er could issue join. *Swift.*

is something in our composition that thinks friends, and reflects and deliberates, deterred doubts, consents and denies; that wills es, and resolves, and chuses, and rejects.

*Bentley.*

my demurs but double his attacks ;

he whispers, Do, and we go snacks. *Pope.*

iminal cases, not capital, if the defendant an indictment, &c., whether in abatement rise, the court will not give judgment against answer over, but final judgment.

*Burn's Justice.*

erver signifies an abiding in point of law, ick the defendant joins issue, allowing the e true as laid in the indictment. *Id.*

URE, *adj. & v. n.* } *Fr. de bons maurs;*  
ORELY, *adv.* } from Lat. *mores,*  
RENESS, *n. s.* } manners. Of good

s. All these words have been used in a use; but now commonly mean affected or gravity. See the admirable illustration Dryden. Shakspeare uses demure as verb, and demurely for solemnly.

two most lovely virgins came in place, countenance demure, and modest grace.

*Spenser.*

be many wise men, that have secret hearts asparent countenances; yet this would be th a demure abasing of your eye sometimes.

*Bacon.*

the damsel, turned from a cat to a woman, sat demurely at the board's end, till a mouse ran her. *Id.*

a demure travel of regard, I tell them I by place, as I would they should do theirs.

*Shakspeare.*

Put on a sober habit, with respect, and swear but now and then, prayer-books in my pocket, look demurely. *Id.*

how the drums demurely wake the sleepers! *Id.*

our wife Octavia, with her modest eyes, still conclusion, shall acquire no honour, wing upon me. *Id.*

Come, pensive nun, devout and pure, sober, stedfast, and demure. *Milton.*

Next stood Hypocrisy with holy leer, oft smiling, and demurely looking down; it hid the dagger underneath the gown.

*Dryden.*

lay and looked so demure as if there had tither life nor soul in her. *L'Estrange,*

eyes having in them such a cheerfulness, as seemed to smile in them; though her mouth

and cheeks obeyed to that pretty demureness, which the more one marked, the more one would judge the poor soul apt to believe. *Sidney.*

Silent when glad; affectionate though shy;

And now his look was most demurely sad;

And now he laughed aloud, yet none knew why. *Beattie.*

DEMY, in heraldry, an epithet for any charge borne half, as or a demy-lion rampant; gules, name Mallory.



DEN. Sax. *den*; Belg. *denne*; Teut. *den*; Ital. *tanna*. A cavern; a low place. As the termination of a local name, says Gibson's Camden, it may signify either a valley or a woody place; for the Saxon *den* imports both.

And Jhesus seide to him, foxis han *dennes*, and briddis of hevene han nestis: but manne soth: hath not where he schal reste his hed. *Wiclif. Matt. 1.*

This is the wandering wood, this Errour's *den*, A monster vile whom God and man does hate; Therefore I read beware. *Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

They here dispersed, some in the air, some on the earth, some in the waters, some amongst the minerals, *dens*, and caves under the earth. *Hooker.*

What, shall they seek the lion in his *den*,

And fright him there? *Shakspeare*

Whose attempt

At first against mankind so well had thrived In Adam's overthrow; and led their march From hell's deep-vaulted *den* to dwell in light. *Milton.*

'Tis then the shapeless bear his *den* forsakes; In woods and fields a wide destruction makes. *Dryden.*

DENARIUS, in antiquity, the chief silver coin among the Romans, worth, in our money, about 7½d. at 5s. 2d. per ounce, or 8½d. when bullion is high-priced. It was about the size of a six-pence, but much thicker, and had the emperor's head on the one side; the figures on the reverse were various. In our translation of the New Testament, the denarius is called a penny. See Matt. xxii. 19.

DENAY, *n. s.* A word formed between deny and nay. Denial; refusal.

DENBIGH, a borough, market, and fair town in the county of Denbigh, North Wales. It occupies the side of a steep limestone rock, the summit of which is crowned by the ruins of its once noble castle, and commands an extensive prospect over the admired and fertile vale of the Clwyd. The population is returned at 3,786. The old town lies at the foot of the rocky pedestal on which the castle rests, and the new town extends down the side of the hill in one long and handsome avenue, nearly a length of one mile. Here are a chapel of ease, a town hall, a public dispensary, an old established banking house, and two large inns. The corporation consists of an alderman, two bailiffs, a recorder and two coroners. Denbigh is contributing with Rhuthyn and other places in sending one member to parliament, and derived its charter from king Charles II. The parish church, usually called Whit-church, lies one mile from the town, and con-



tains the tombs of Humphrey Llwyd, the antiquarian, Edwards, the Cambrian Shakspeare, and of Richard Myddleton, father of Hugh, who brought the New River to London. The castle owes its greatness to Henry, earl of Lincoln, who also enclosed the town with walls, and, after passing through various owners, it was granted by Elizabeth to the earl of Leicester. This last proprietor raised here the walls of the first protestant church erected in Great Britain, but neglected to complete his design: the ruins stand upon the rock opposite St. Hilary's chapel. There is no event in the history of the fine castle of Denbigh more worthy of historic recollection than the gallant stand it made for king Charles, under the command of the brave William Salisbury. Near the lower termination of the main street, stand the remains of a Carmelite church desecrated into a malt-kiln, but still in excellent preservation.

DENBIGHSHIRE, one of six counties into which North Wales is divided. It presents a front to the Irish Sea on the north, is bounded on the east by Flintshire, Cheshire, and Shropshire. Merioneth and Montgomery shires enclose it on the south,—and Caernarvonshire constitutes its boundary on the west. Its dimensions are 39 miles in length, by an average breadth of 23, and its area occupies 410,000 acres of land. The population is calculated at 83,167. The surface is hilly and inclined to a mountainous character, but the soil in many places remarkably rich. Two ranges of elevated hills pervade the county, and preserve a parallelism to each other during their lengths: one rises from the sea, and crossing over near Gwytherin, and thence to Cerig-y-druidion, falls in with the masses of Merionethshire; Moel Eiddyn, the most elevated summit in the chain, stands 1660 feet above the level of the sea. The Clwydian hills extend a length of thirty miles and overhang the celebrated vale of Clwyd, whence the origin of their name. Rising near the sea at St. Asaph's, they culminate in Moel Famman, and descend gradually towards the beautiful vale of Llangollen. The loftiest point, Moel Famman, attains a height of 1845 feet above the sea, and this has been judiciously selected by the Cambrians as the site of a handsome obelisk, erected to commemorate the happy accomplishment of a fifty years' reign by king George III. The vales of Clwyd, Llanrwst, Llangollen, and the maritime portion of the county, are both beautiful and fertile, while the higher grounds, occupying one-third of the whole surface, are, from neglect, in a very unproductive state. The six hundreds into which the county is divided are called Bromfield, Chirk, Isaled, Isdulas, Yale, and Rhuthyn: these are ecclesiastically partitioned into fifty parishes, most of which are in the diocese of St. Asaph. The towns are larger than those of the other Welsh counties; Wrexham is the most populous, Denbigh an ancient borough, Rhuthyn the assize town, also a contributing borough, besides Llanrwst, Abergelle, and Ruabon, in which weekly markets are held. The Dee is the noblest river which waters the county, but the Conway is the most useful, being navigable for twelve miles

from its embouchure: the others are the Elw, Aled, Alen, Clwyd, and the Ceiriog, which separates England from Wales in the valley of Chirk. The principal lakes are the Elwy, Aled, and Conway, in which the rivers bearing their names respectively originate. These all abound in fish, but are devoid of the picturesque scenery which characterizes the other Welsh pools. The artificial navigation established here is a branch of the Ellesmere canal, which is fed by the river Dee, crosses the vale of Llangollen by an aqueduct of twenty-one arches, called Pont-y-cyst, and passing to Chirk is conducted over the Ceiriog by a second aqueduct of nine arches. Iron is manufactured at Ruabon, as well as at Chirk, coal of a superior quality is worked. The woollen manufacture is spread very generally over the county: the slate trade exists only on the borders, but agriculture is a universal dominion here. But few remains of military antiquity are found here: of these castles of Denbigh and Rhuthyn are the most interesting; and, of the few monastic establishments, the abbey of Valle-Crucis and the fine church at Denbigh, now desecrated into a malt-kiln, are the principal. The county returns two members to parliament, and the boroughs of Wrexham, Holt, Denbigh, and Rhuthyn are third. The ancient family of Fielding are the earldom of Denbigh.

DENDERA, a town of Egypt, on the west side of the Nile, at the edge of a small but fertile plain, about half a mile from the river. Near the town are remarkably magnificent ruins, supposed of an ancient temple of Serapis, or Venus. The portico contains twenty-four columns, three rows, each above twenty-two feet in circumference, thirty-two feet high, and covered with hieroglyphics. The great peculiarity consists in the square capitals, with a front face of Isis on each side, the effect of which, though singular, is by no means displeasing. All the walls and ceilings of the interior are covered with sculptures, which display the highest perfection of Egyptian art. They have originally been covered with paint, the brilliant colors of which partially remain. The subjects are various religious ceremonies, priests, offerings, deities, and human sacrifices. Isis, with Osiris before her, forms the grand theme of representation. There are also numerous astronomical figures on the ceilings; of these two zodiacs have, in a particular degree, attracted the attention of the learned, who have been much divided as to the date when they were formed. De la Lande would fix their period at 3000 years ago, or 1200 before the Christian era; but Mr. Hamilton is disposed to consider them as much more modern, and probably formed in the reign of Tiberius. On the side of the great temple is a smaller one supposed to have been dedicated to Typhon, whose figure is displayed on the capitals; but the chief object of adoration seems to be an infant figure in which may be distinguished the attitude and character of the young Harpocrates. Mr. Hamilton is of opinion, that several of those structures may have been raised in the time of the Ptolemies; and the names of Tiberius and other Roman emperors, which he found on the ruins,



prove that repairs were made at that time. The whole of these edifices, with the exception of one propylon, is contained within a wall of 1000 feet, surrounded by a brick wall. In the enclosure, a great number of modern buildings have been erected, so as often to hide the ruins entirely from view.

Richardson, one of our latest travellers in Egypt, thus describes this spot: 'The scene of nearly a mile square, and consists of houses and walls of brick, that have been repeatedly overthrown and at every restoration, the new houses have been built on the top. The first thing that strikes the eye of the traveller, on the edge of a vast field of ruins, is a small square stone building, with four columns; it has an unfinished appearance, and is without hieroglyphics. It is difficult to say for what purpose this edifice was erected; it looks like a porter's lodge, or habitation for the guardian of the precincts of the temple; and I should not have mentioned it at all if it had not been constructed of the same sandstone with the temple itself; and as it must have been brought thither from a great distance, and at a great expense, it is probable that this insignificant fabric was constructed with it for religious purposes. Advancing a few paces, for several hundred yards among the ruins, we came to an elegant gateway, or propylon, which is also of sandstone, well hewn, and completely covered with sculpture and hieroglyphics, remarkably well cut. Immediately in the centre of the doorway is the beautiful ornament, usually called the globe, with a serpent and wings, emblematic of the glories of the sun, poised in the airy firmament of heaven, and directed in his course by the eternal wisdom of the Deity. The symbolism of Scripture, 'the sun of righteousness shall arise with healing in his beams,' could not be more accurately, or more elegantly represented to the human eye, than by this elegant device. To this succeed the colossal statues of Osiris, Isis, and their son Horus, seated on thrones, and people advancing in adoration, and presenting their offerings on their knees. Passing under the gateway, we find two principal devices on each side of the way, to be the sceptre of Osiris alternating with the letter T, representing the letter T, suspended by a cord; or, to speak more correctly, with a cross attached to it; it has been called the key of the Nile, and is honored by various designations.' Vol. i. 185—187.

Richardson considers this as the sign, or symbol, mentioned in the Vulgate Latin of Ezekiel ix. 4; and there intimated as a sign of life and salvation to those who believe in it. Some of the female figures are adored, and exhibit a remarkable mildness of expression. The remains of the temple still exist. The largest of these is of fine preservation, and is emphatically the temple of Dendera. It is described by Dr. Richardson, whose account as well as his disquisition on Egyptian antiquities will not easily admit of abridgment. We

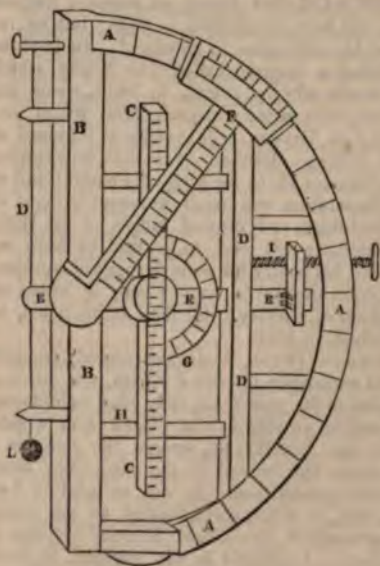
only remark, that he controverts the commonly received opinion, that the splendid sculptures in the pro-naos, which have lately arrived at Paris, are a zodiac; and in this opinion he is supported by some eminent French literati. He had an opportunity of comparing the original with part of the great French work on Egypt; to the elegant execution of which he gives the just tribute of praise, but he announces it to be extremely incorrect in every part. It is 242 miles south of Cairo, and forty-eight S. S. E. of Girge.

DENDERMONDE, a handsome town of the Netherlands, with a strong citadel. It is surrounded by marshes and fine meadows, which the inhabitants can lay under water when they please, and seated at the conflux of the Dender and Scheldt, fourteen miles east of Ghent, and nineteen south-west of Antwerp. Inhabitants 5000. In 1667 the town was besieged by Louis XIV. with an army of 50,000 men, but he was obliged to retreat with precipitation, the inhabitants having opened the sluices. The vicinity is very fertile.

DENDRACHATES, in natural history, from *δένδρον*, a tree, and *αχάτης*, an agate; the name used by the ancients for an extremely elegant and beautiful species of agate, the ground of which is whitish, variegated with veins of a brighter white. These veins are beautifully disposed in a number of various figures; but generally in many concentric irregular circles, drawn round one or more points. It is common also, in various parts of this stone, to find very beautiful delineations of trees, mosses, sea plants, and the like, so elegantly expressed, that many have erroneously taken them for real plants included in the substance of the stone; whence the name.

DENDRO'LOGY, *n. s.* *Δένδρον* and *λογος*. The natural history of trees.

DENDROMETER, from *δένδρον*, a tree, and *μετρέω*, to measure; an instrument so called from its use in measuring trees. This instrument





consists of a semicircle A, divided into two quadrants, and graduated from the middle; upon the diameter B there hangs a plummet L for fixing the instrument in a vertical position; there is also a chord D parallel to the diameter, and a radius E, passing at right angles through the diameter and chord. From a point on the radius hangs an altimeter C, between the chord and diameter, to which is fixed a small semicircle G, and a screw, to confine it in any position. The altimeter, which is contrived to form the same angle with the radius of the instrument, as the tree forms with the horizon, is divided from its centre both ways into forty equal parts; and these parts are again subdivided into halves and quarters. Upon the small semicircle G, or which is accounted the quantity of the angle made by the altimeter and radius, are expressed degrees, and the radius is numbered with the same scale of divisions. There is also a nonius to the small semicircle, which shows the quantity of an angle to every five minutes. There is also a groove in the radius, that slides across the axis, by means of a screw I, working between the chord and semicircle of the instrument; and this screw is turned by the key O. The principal use of this instrument is for measuring the length and diameter of any tree, perpendicular or oblique, to an horizontal plane, or in any situation of the plane on which it rests, or of any figure, whether regular or irregular, and also the length and diameter of the boughs, by mere inspection.

**DENDROPHORI**, from *δένδρον*, a tree, and *φέρω*, to bear; tree-bearers. In antiquity, priests who marched in procession, carrying branches of trees in their hands, in honor of some god, as Bacchus, Cybele, Sylvanus, &c. The college of the dendrophori is often mentioned in ancient marbles; and we frequently see, in basso relievos, the bacchanals, represented as men, carrying little shrubs or branches of trees.

DENHAM (Sir John), an eminent English poet, was born in Dublin in 1615; but he received his education in England. In 1641 he published a tragedy, called *The Sophy*, which was much admired; and, in 1643, wrote his famous poem called *Cooper's Hill*, which, according to Dryden, will ever be a standard of good writing. Denham was sent ambassador from Charles II. to the king of Poland; and at the Restoration was made surveyor-general of his buildings, and created knight of the Bath. On obtaining this post, he is said to have renounced his poetry for more important studies; though he afterwards wrote a copy of verses on the death of Cowley. He died at his office, in Whitehall, in 1668.

**DENHAM** (Dixon, lieutenant-colonel), eminent by his expedition to central Africa, was born at London in the year 1786, and, after completing his studies at school, was placed with a solicitor; but, in 1811, he entered the army as a volunteer, and served in the peninsular wars. After the general peace he was reduced to half pay, and, in 1819, was admitted to the senior department of the Royal Military College at Farnham. In 1823-4 he was engaged, in company with captain Clapperton and doctor Oudney, in exploring the central regions of Af-

rica. See CLAPPERTON. His courage, firmness, perseverance and moderation, energetic disposition, and his conciliatory manners, peculiarly fitted him for such a task. The narrative of the discoveries travellers was drawn up by Denham. He proceeded to Sierra Leone, as superintendent of the liberated Africans, and, in 1828, appointed lieutenant-governor of the colony. On the ninth of June, in the same year, he was attacked by a fever, and died after an illness of a few days.

DEÑIAL, DENIER. See DENY.

DENIE'R, *n. s.* Lat. *denarius*. In  
nounced as *deneer*, in two syllables.  
denomination of French money; the tw  
of a sous.

You will not pay for the glasses you have  
—No, not a *denier*. SA

DENIER is a small French copper which twelve make a sol. There are two of deniers, the one Tournois, the other the latter of which is worth a fourth more than the former. Denier is also the name of a small weight, used in assaying silver. The carat, used in trying and expressing the fineness of gold, is rather imaginary than real. A whole mass of silver, whatever be its weight, is supposed to be divided into twelve deniers; as many twelfth parts, as it contains of pure silver, it is called silver of so many deniers. Thus sterling silver, of eleven deniers fine, is a mixture, of which eleven parts are pure silver and one part copper. Each denier is supposed to be divided into twenty-four grains; and an estimating pure silver at 6s. per oz., an ounce of sterling silver is worth 5s. 6d.; and the weight of any quantity of silver can be calculated with the utmost exactness to half a grain in an ounce, or half a farthing in value per oz. The weights and grains, used by the assaymasters for this purpose, are real weights, made with the most scrupulous exactness in the above proportions, and each other.

DE'NIGRATE, *v. a.* } Lat. *denigrare*  
DENIGRA'TION, *n. s.* } *de* and *nigr*  
blacken; to make black.

DENIZEN, or } Either, says M  
DENIZON, *v. a. & n. s.* } from old Fr.  
DENIZ'ATION, *n. s.* } giving (liberty);  
Dane's son, the son of a Dane, according  
Johnson, from the Danes being made  
Alfred. A freeman; a stranger made fre  
Welsh is *dinasddyn*, a man of the city; a  
*sydd*, free of the city). To make free.

*Denizen* is a British law term, which the  
and Angles found here and retained.

That the mere Irish were reputed aliens, by the charters of *denization*, which in all were purchased by them.

Pride, lust, covetize, being several  
To these three places, yet all are in all  
Mingled thus, their issue is incestuous;  
Falschood is *denitened*, virtue is barbarous

DENIZEN, in law, an alien made a subject by the king's letters patent; otherwise called *denizen*, because 'his legitimization proceeds



donatione regis, from the king's gift." A denizen is in a kind of middle state between an alien and a natural-born subject, and partakes of both of them. He may take lands by purchase or devise, which an alien may not; but cannot take by inheritance: for his parent, through whom he must claim, being an alien, had no inheritable blood; and, therefore, could convey none to the son: and, upon a like defect of blood, the issue of a denizen, born before denization, cannot inherit to him; but his issue, born after, may. A denizen is not excused from paying the alien's duty, and some other mercantile burdens. And no denizen can be of the privy council, or either house of parliament, or have any office of trust, civil or military, or be capable of any grant of lands, &c. from the crown.

DENMAN (Dr. Thomas), an eminent physician and medical writer, was born at Bakewell, in Derbyshire, in 1733, where his father was a respectable apothecary; on whose death, he was, for some time, an assistant to his elder brother. He afterwards came to London, and attended at St. George's Hospital: he then entered the navy, as surgeon's mate, and in 1757, was made surgeon of a ship. In 1763 he quitted the navy, after having served in the expedition against Belleisle. His first publication was in London, An Essay on Puerperal Fever, which was well received; but his professional prospects were so little satisfactory, that he was happy to obtain the situation of surgeon to one of the royal yachts, which brought him in a salary of £70 a-year, without interrupting his practice. He was shortly after (1770) chosen joint-physician and man-midwife to the Middlesex Hospital, and gave lectures on the latter branch of practice. He thus slowly emerged from obscurity into the most extensive practice: was appointed licentiate in midwifery of the College of Physicians in 1783, and, six years after, an honorary fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. After the death of Dr. William Hunter, he was considered as the most eminent obstetrical practitioner in the metropolis. His great work, is *The Introduction to the Practice of Midwifery*, which, with his *Aphorisms for the Use of Junior Practitioners*, claims a place in every medical library. In the decline of life, Dr. Denman relinquished the more laborious part of his practice to his son-in-law, Sir Richard Croft, and became a consulting physician. His death, which was sudden, took place November 26th, 1815.

DENMARK, one of the most ancient monarchies in Europe, comprehends the peninsula of Jutland, Sleswick, Holstein, and Lauenburg, on the continent; and the islands of Zealand, Funen, Langeland, Falster, Laaland, Bornholm, Moen, and several others in the Baltic. Denmark Proper is that part of Scandinavia which formerly went by the name of Cimbrica Chersonesus. It is every where bounded by the sea, except on its southern frontier in Holstein, and stretches northward from about 53° 30' to 57° 30' of lat., i.e. from the right bank of the Elbe, to the extreme point of Jutland. This main-land tract is divided into three divisions, of which Holstein forms the southern, Sleswick the central, and Jutland the northern province, each

being governed by laws and institutions, occasionally very dissimilar; and contains, together with the adjacent islands, a territory of about 22,000 square miles, and a population of about 1,635,000 inhabitants, thus distributed:

Jutland contains	400,000
Zealand (including Copenhagen), Funen, and other islands,	550,000
Sleswick	300,000
Holstein	350,000
Lauenburgh	35,000
	<hr/> 1,635,000

Iceland, the Faroe Islands, and the settlements of Denmark in the East and West Indies and Africa, are supposed to add about 155,000 more to the population in the following proportions:

Iceland	50,000
Faroe Isles	5,500
East and West Indies and Africa	100,000
	<hr/> 155,500

The dismemberment of Norway from Denmark, which took place in 1814, abstracted full one-third of her population and strength, that ancient possession of the Danish crown being estimated to contain at that period 900,000 inhabitants. Denmark received from Sweden, in exchange, Swedish Pomerania, which she again parted with to Prussia for the duchy of Lauenburgh, and a sum of money.

Her remaining territory is, however, compact, and well situated for commerce. The aspect of the continental part is flat and undiversified, containing neither mountains nor rivers of any magnitude, but it is in an excellent general state of cultivation; and, in the character of its climate and rich pasturage, very much resembling our own country.

It is largely indented by the sea, and possesses numerous creeks and bays, as well as internal lakes, but only one canal of importance, that of Kiel. This will admit vessels of 120 tons burden, and extends from the Baltic to the Eyder at Rendsburg, where the river becomes navigable, thus opening a communication between the two seas, or through 105 miles of territory. Its length is twenty-two English miles. Its breadth at top 100 feet, at bottom fifty-four, and depth ten feet. It was begun in 1777, and completed in 1785, at an expense of £800,000 sterling. During the late war between 3000 and 4000 vessels annually passed through it, but in time of peace the number is diminished. It has much improved the internal trade of Sleswick and Holstein.

The revenue of Denmark fluctuates between £1,700,000 and £2,000,000, about £120,000 of which arises from the dues of the Sound: the national debt is nominally £15,000,000. The military force somewhat exceeds 20,000 men; the naval force is only 4000 men in service, but capable of being increased with great facility, as there are between 14,000 and 15,000 registered seamen. The seafaring people of the kingdom are altogether little short of 50,000.



There are no mineral productions in Denmark of any commercial importance; salt is made in considerable quantities from the lime springs of Oldesloe; and a little coal is found; but turf is the great article of fuel. Both timber and salt are imported largely. The agricultural produce consists of wheat, in small quantity, barley, oats, beans, peas, and potatoes; the last very largely. Excellent madder also abounds, and hops, flax, hemp, and tobacco, are partially cultivated. Gardens are seldom seen except in Arak, the great kitchen garden of the capital. The horned cattle and horses are very superior; in Holstein are some of the best working breeds of both, that are known: the exportation of horses is said to amount to 1200 or 1500 annually, valued at from £160,000 to £200,000 sterling. Milch cattle are also well managed here: butter and cheese abound: the sheep, though recently improved by the introduction of merino, and other breeds, are still inferior. 'There are now better meadows, and more hedges and walls in Denmark,' says Mr. Loudon, 'than in any country of Germany of the same extent.' Here was founded, in 1686, the first veterinary school in Germany. 'Artificial grasses and herbage plants enter into most rotations, and rye-grass is perhaps more sown in Holstein than any where, excepting in England. In a word, considering the disadvantages of climate, the agriculture of Denmark is in a more advanced state than that of any other kingdom of Germany.' Fishing in the bays and creeks is conducted on a large scale; the most important branch is the herring fishery; beds of oysters and muscles are not uncommon: and fresh water fish abound in several arms of the Baltic, so little is that sea impregnated with salt.

Denmark has pursued a studiously pacific policy for more than half a century, and the consequence, until nearly the close of the late wars of the French revolution, were the uninterrupted improvement and extension of her commerce. In 1800 she possessed above 2000 merchant men, 20,000 seamen, and 250,000 tons of shipping. During our second war with France these were in a state of rapid increase, but the seizure of her navy in 1807 by Great Britain, and the consequent breach between the two countries, permitted her no longer to carry on a neutral trade, and she has scarcely to the present time recovered the blow. The chief intercourse of the Danes is with the adjacent coasts of the Baltic, with England, Holland, France, and the Mediterranean.

They have found the benefit of a general carrying trade so considerable, that they have pushed it with success, both in the Mediterranean (where their flag is respected by the Barbary states, equally with that of stronger powers), and to the most distant parts of the globe. The whale fishery, likewise, employs a considerable portion of their seamen, and in the West India trade they have about seventy sail of merchantmen. Their connexion with the Guinea and Gold coasts has been in a great measure discontinued since their honorable abolition of the slave trade in 1803.

The principal exports from Denmark to Eng-

land are skins, raw hides, and, when the laws permit, oats. Until lately the most sive part of the trade between the two countries was timber from Norway. The imports of England are manufactured articles, and the produce. The duties on the imports of foreign commodities into Denmark are high on all kinds of merchandise, with the exception of the following articles, are allowed to be imported, viz. sugar, either raw or refined, coming from European ports, porcelain, colored delf cards, roasted coffee, printed calicoes, and all kinds of woollen cloth.

In 1797 the government laid open to the East Indies (previously monopolised by the Danish East India Company), to all private merchants. Similar liberal regulations have been made with regard to intercourse with the Indian possessions. The Icelandic trade was laid open by an ordinance from the king in the close of 1816. The exports of Denmark to this distant part of her dominions are wine, brandy, tobacco, and spices, together with linen and woollen cloths, timber, and hardware. The vessels generally sail thither in May or June, and return with salt fish, whale oil, cloth, woollen stockings, gloves, hides, feathers, and Eider-down. All the necessary supplies for the Greenland colonies are imported from the parent country; and oil, bone, seal-skins, and other articles, furnish the fisheries in the adjacent seas, are taken and returned. The manufactures of Denmark are confined to the supply of her own most common wants; and it is necessary to import woollen ware, printed cottons, and linen. The paper manufacture is carried on by the government. A late return of the sugar refineries in Denmark makes their number forty-six; that of paper-mills twenty-two; iron foundries four.

The constitution of Denmark was of the Gothic original. The convention of the nobles, even including the representatives of the clergy or peasants, elected the king, having still regard to the sort of their late monarch, but, however, they made no scruple of setting aside if they deemed him unworthy of the royal dignity. The convention enacted laws; controlled the great offices of state; debated all affecting to commerce, peace, war, and alliance; and occasionally gave their consent to the imposition of necessary taxes. The king was the chief magistrate of the people. His business was to see justice administered impartially, to command the army in time of war; to encourage industry, religion, arts, and sciences; to watch over the interests of his subjects. By the revolution, in 1660, the constitution was new-modelled, and it was declared that hereditary kings of Denmark and Norway should be in effect, and ought to be esteemed their subjects, the only supreme head of the earth; they shall be above all human laws, shall acknowledge, in all ecclesiastical and civil affairs, no higher power but God alone; the king shall enjoy the right of making and interpreting the laws; of abrogating, adding to, or dispensing with them. He may also annul the laws which either he or his prede-













Engraved on Steel by J. Slaney.

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Drawn by J. A. Schott.





made, excepting this royal law, which is irrevocable, and be considered as fundamental law of the state. He has the declaring war, making peace, imposing and levying contributions of all sorts.

It is finally added, 'If there is any other which has not been expressly specified shall be comprised in the following. The king of Denmark and Norway the hereditary monarch, and endued with the highest authority; inasmuch that all be said and written to the advantage of an, hereditary, and absolute king, shall be under the most favorable interpretation hereditary king or queen of Denmark way,' &c. To this singular step the natives of the people were urged at that he tyranny of the nobles. They found tyrants, as a late political bishop said, times worse than one. The nobility agreed to make a similar surrender of all their privileges.

Established religion is the Lutheran and Calvinist. The reformation was introduced in 1536, crown taking possession at that period of the revenues of the church, and depriving the bishops of their temporal power: they have no full spiritual jurisdiction, but no veto in legislation; and there exists a complete freedom of dissenters. There is a university at Copenhagen on a large scale, and another of medicine at Kiel. There is also a college of professors at Odensee in Funen; and literature, though not of general pretensions, yielded in modern times some distinguished names. We need only mention those of Schröder and Le Brun.

Grammaticus, the most ancient and best Danish historian, derives the name of Denmark from Dan the son of Humble, the first king of Mark, a word signifying a country, in the dialects of the Teutonic; according to etymology, the word Denmark signifies the country of Dan. He is said to have flourished about A. A. C. 1038 or 1050. Almost all agree that he was the son of Humble, king of Zealand. His possessions and influence were very considerable, not only in Zealand but in the islands of Langeland and Mona. He was brave, courageous, and skill in the art that induced the inhabitants of Denmark to choose him for their king. He was assisted by the assistance of the Jutlanders upon the invasion of the Saxons into their territories, and secured the sovereignty of the country if not the enemy. On this he raised and gained a complete victory over the Saxons, and obliged them to leave the country; and he was accordingly elected king. The history of Denmark, for several ages after Dan, is filled with glorious exploits of heroes, encounters with giants, dragons, &c. One of their kings, Guthred, who reigned about A. A. C. 761, is said to have conquered Britain, Sleswick, Pomerania, Holstein, &c. an assertion not easily be credited, considering the small number of succeeding warriors, even the most valiant in the world, found to subdue the inhabitants of those countries. It is certain, how-

ever, that anciently the kingdom of Denmark made a much more conspicuous figure than it does at present. The Danes appear to have had a very considerable naval force almost from the foundation of their empire; and the conquests they undoubtedly made in our island are certain proofs of their valor. Their chief enemies were the Swedes, Norwegians, and Saxons; especially the first. With one or other of these nations almost perpetual war was carried on. The kingdom was also often rent by civil dissensions, which the neighbouring monarchs did not fail to take advantage of, in order to reduce the kingdom of Denmark under their subjection. As in general, however, neither party came off with much advantage, the history of these wars affords nothing interesting.

One of the most illustrious of the kings of Denmark was Canute II., the son of Sueno I., surnamed the Great, from his wisdom as well as his conquests. He was at once king of Denmark, Norway, and England. See CANUTE and ENGLAND. He also conquered a great part of Sweden. Alstedius ranks him as the sixty-seventh monarch of Denmark. Between his son Canute III. and Sueno III. there was a succession of ten kings of whom little important is recorded. One of the greatest of the Danish monarchs, after Canute the Great, was Valdemar I. who obtained the throne in 1157; having defeated and killed the usurper Sueno III. after a civil war of ten years. He maintained a long war with the Vandals, whose power he at last entirely broke, and reduced under his subjection the island of Rugen. He also proved victorious over the Norwegians, so that their king and queen came in person to submit to him. In 1165, he laid the foundations of the city of Dantzic; which, though it has since become a place of very great consequence, consisted at first only of a few poor fishermen's huts; but the privileges and immunities conferred upon it by this monarch, soon proved the means of its becoming a flourishing city. In 1169, he entirely subdued the Courlanders; and, soon after, was invested with the duchy of Holstein by the emperor Frederic Barbarossa. He is said to have been poisoned by a quack medicine, given with a design to recover him from a distemper with which he was seized in 1182, after reigning twenty-eight years. In 1195, Canute VI., Valdemar's son and successor, caused a muster to be made of all the men fit to bear arms in his dominions; and ordered each province to fit out its proportion of shipping, every way equipped, and ready for action. The whole force of Denmark, at that time, consisted of 670 ships of war, besides the squadrons supplied by vassals, tributary states, and allies. The number of the land forces is not mentioned. In the reign of this prince, the Danish dominions were enlarged by the conquest of Stromar, and the districts of Lubec and Hamburgh, formerly Nordalbingia, but now included under the general name of Holstein. He died in 1203, and was succeeded by Valdemar II. who proved a very warlike prince. In 1211 he founded the city of Stralsund. He built the castle of Droningholm in memory of his queen, that name importing the Queen's Island; and



gained in 1218 a victory over the Livonians near the fortress of Valdemar, which was thus named from him. The flourishing state in which Denmark was at this time, appears from an estimate of the revenues of the tributary provinces, which is still extant. He kept for constant service 1400 great and small ships, each of which at a medium carried 121 soldiers; making the whole of the standing forces, besides garrisons, consist of 169,400 fighting men. In 1223, however, Henry Palatine, earl of Swerin, a German prince, having been deprived of part of his dominions by Valdemar, surprised and carried off the king himself, and kept him close prisoner for three years. The conditions on which he at last obtained his liberty were,—that he should pay a large sum of money; relinquish Holstein, Swerin, Hamburg, and all his possessions on the other side of the Elbe; and solemnly swear that he would never take any measures to punish Henry or his associates. This treaty was signed on the 25th of March 1226. Besides these territories, which Valdemar was obliged to cede by treaty, many tributary princes took the opportunity of his captivity to recover their liberty; and among the rest the inhabitants of Lubec revolted, and entered into alliance with Albert, duke of Saxony, against him. Valdemar, however, was not of a disposition to submit tamely to such treatment. He obtained a dispensation from the pope to break his engagements with Henry, and immediately entered Holstein at the head of a numerous army. Here he was met by several German princes; and a desperate engagement ensued. Valdemar at first had the advantage; but, being wounded in the eye, his troops were at last defeated with great slaughter. It does not appear that he was ever able to revenge himself, or to recover the dominions he had lost. Instead of this he was obliged, in 1228, to cede Lauenburg to the duke of Saxony, who had already seized on Ratzburg and Molna. Soon after his eldest son, Valdemar, was accidentally killed as he was hunting, and his two other sons married the daughters of his two greatest enemies. Abel, the third son, married the daughter of Adolphus duke of Holstein; and Eric, the second, the duke of Saxony's daughter. These misfortunes are supposed to have hastened his death, which happened in April, 1242; and on this the kingdom was divided between the two young princes, a war commencing the very next year between them. A peace was concluded the year following, and war renewed the year after. In 1250 Eric paid a visit to his brother Abel, entreating his mediation between him and the princes of Holstein, with whom he was then at war. Abel received him, in appearance, with great kindness, but in the mean time laid a plan for murdering him at sea: this was effected, and Abel became master of the whole kingdom. But he did not long enjoy the sovereignty thus wickedly obtained. He was tormented by his own conscience, especially when he found, among his brother's papers, one by which he was left heir to the whole kingdom on the decease of Eric, and many kind expressions with regard to himself. He was at last killed in a battle with his own subjects in 1252.

From this time to 1333 the kingdom of Denmark gradually declined. Usurpers established themselves in different provinces; while the kings of Sweden did not fail to avail themselves of the distracted state of the Danish affairs. In 1230 died Christopher II., who possessed only the cities of Scanderberg in Jutland and Neoburg in Fionia, with some few other inconsiderable places, of all the hereditary dominions of Denmark. Halland, Holbeck, Calemberg, and Samsoe, were held by Canute Porsius; Schonen, Lystre, and Bleking, by the king of Sweden, to whom they had been lately sold: John earl of Wagnia had the jurisdictions of Zealand, Falster, Laaland, and Femerin: Gerhard, those of Jutland and Fionia; and Lawrence Jonea those of Langeland and Arras. After the death of Christopher an interregnum of seven years, or according to Marcel of fifteen, ensued. The first attempt for the sovereignty was made by Otho, second son to the late king, who tried to drive Gerhard out of Jutland, but was taken prisoner, and closely confined by Gerhard. The king of Sweden wrote to pope Benedict XIII., beseeching his Holiness to confirm to him the provinces of Schonen, &c., which he possessed; and to allow him to subdue the rest of the kingdom, which was now usurped and rendered miserable by a number of petty princes, who knew not how to govern. The influence the pope he promised to hold the kingdom of him, and to pay him the usual tax collected by the church. This request, however, was refused. Valdemar of Sleswic, nephew to Gerhard, had formerly been elected king; but, on account of the superior influence of Christopher, had never enjoyed the sovereignty. He now, at the instigation of his uncle, resumed his ambitious views. Several of the nobility directed their eyes on young Valdemar, Christopher's son. But, while these two princes were laying schemes to aggrandise themselves, the unhappy Danes were distressed by exorbitant taxes, famine, and pestilence, which destroyed more than half of the inhabitants. In the midst of these calamities Gerhard, sovereign of Jutland, proposed to his nephew Valdemar an exchange of territories, which he believed would prove favorable to the designs of the latter on the crown. A treaty for this purpose was actually drawn up and signed; but the inhabitants, notwithstanding their distressed situation, so highly resented this being disposed of like cattle, from one master to another, that they refused to pay the taxes. Gerhard resolved to compel them, and therefore he levied 10,000 men, whom he had levied in Germany into the heart of the province. Providence, however, now raised up an enemy to this tyrant. One Nicholas Norevi, a man greatly esteemed for his courage, public spirit, and prudence, belied with sorrow the condition to which Denmark was reduced. He had long meditated various projects for its relief. Young Valdemar, Christopher's son, had a number of adherents in the kingdom; his most dangerous enemy was Gerhard; and, if he could be removed, the Jutlanders would at least be free from an oppressor, and might chase Valdemar, or any other they thought proper, from their sovereign. Collecting, therefore, a body of chosen horse he marched in the night to stand



re Gerhard had fixed his head-quarters; forced open the tyrant's apartment, put him to death. He then fled with expedition, and, though overtaken by the enemy's horse, forced his way out and escaped. Gerhard's sons, after their father's death, retired into Holstein, the army, composed chiefly of Danes, to be cut to pieces by the enraged Swedes, who fell upon them from every quarter. The Holsteiners kept possession of the fortified places, from which they refused to dislodge them. He accordingly took Landen, a castle situated on the Schlei: After which he laid siege to the garrison making an obstinate defence, turned the siege into a blockade, by which the Swedes were soon reduced to great extremity. He sent an express to Gerhard's sons, telling them with the impossibility of his relief more than a few days, without being able to march to his relief, and came himself as a chasas just as the governor was ready to surrender, but were defeated; though Nicholas was fortunately killed in the engagement. The kingdom thus regained its liberty, the rest of the world followed its example. Zealand declared itself. Here Henry, Gerhard's son, maintained several garrisons; and defended his possessions in spite of all the efforts of the inhabitants. For this purpose he gathered an army; but in the mean time rose among the peasants, on account of a nobleman slain by the Holsteiners. By the people were so irritated that, falling upon the Swedes, they killed 300 of them, drove the rest of the island, and chose Valdemar III. Gerhard's son, for their sovereign. The Danes lost their courage; the lands were culled by famine and pestilence ceased, and the kingdom began to flourish as formerly. Matters prospered till 1373, when Valdemar died, and was succeeded by his daughter Margareta, who ranks his grandson Olaus V. as his immediate successor; but he, being an infant, hardly he said to have reigned, and Alstedius ranks his mother, who governed during his infancy, as the successor of

her, and raised the kingdom of Denmark to the pitch of glory. She defeated and deposed the king of Sweden, in 1418; and partly by dress, partly by hereditary right, she united the union of Calmar, by which she was made sovereign of Sweden, Denmark, Norway. She held her dignity with such firmness and courage, that she was justly styled the Queen of the North. Her only son, Olaus V. when only ten years of age, in 1388, she adopted as her son, Eric duke of Pomerania, as he died in 1412, after a glorious reign of twenty even years. Eric IX., her successor, was of her great qualifications, the union fell to nothing; but Norway still conjoined to Denmark. Some say he was not Alstedius states that he resigned the kingdom in 1438, and retired to Pomerania, where he died in 1469. Upon his resignation his nephew Christopher III. duke of Bavaria, and count

palatine of the Rhine, was elected. After an illustrious reign of ten years, during which Sweden was separated from Denmark, he died in 1448, and made way for a new royal race, which still continues to reign in Denmark, by the election of Christian I., count of Oldenburg. Christian I. was crowned king of Denmark in 1448, of Norway in 1450, and of Sweden upon the deposition of Charles VIII. in 1457, who, however, was restored by the Swedes in 1464; Christian not having adhered to the terms he had made with them. He died in 1481, and was succeeded by his son John, who had frequent wars with the brave Swedish governors, Steno and Sweno Sture. John, dying in 1513, was succeeded by Christian II. who recovered Sweden for a short time on the death of Steno Sture; but was expelled for his cruelties, by the illustrious Gustavus Vasa, who threw off the Danish yoke, and restored the independence of his country in 1520. See SWEDEN.

Christian died in 1559, but was previously deposed, and Frederick I. duke of Holstein elected king in 1523. He reigned only ten years; dying in 1533, when he was succeeded by his son Christian III. a wise and politic prince, by whom, in 1536, the protestant religion was established in Denmark. He was succeeded in 1559 by his son Frederick II. who, after reigning about twenty-nine years, left the kingdom to his son Christian IV. who, however, was not crowned till 1596. This monarch twice visited England, in compliment to his son-in-law king James I.; in July 1606 and 1614. In 1629, he was chosen head of the Protestant league formed against the house of Austria; but, though personally brave, he was in danger of losing his dominions; when he was succeeded in that command by the famous Gustavus Adolphus king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Christian, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his son Frederic III. consented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch after this persuaded him to declare war against Charles X. king of Sweden, which had almost cost him his crown in 1657. Charles stormed the fortress of Fredericstadt; and, in the succeeding winter, he marched his army over the ice to the island of Funen, where he surprised the Danish troops, took Odensee and Nyburg, and marched over the Great Belt to besiege Copenhagen itself. Oliver Cromwell interposed; and Frederic defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roschild; by which he ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Sconia, the island of Bornholm, Bahus, and Drontheim, in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederic sought to elude these severe terms; but Charles took Cronenburg, and once more besieged Copenhagen by sea and land. The steady intrepid conduct of Frederic under these misfortunes endeared him to his subjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence, till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic, and beat the Swedish fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favor of Frederic, who showed on every occasion great abilities both civil and military: and, having forced Charles to raise the siege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the English fleet under Montague appeared in the Baltic.



This enabled Charles to besiege Copenhagen a third time: but, France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital: by which the island of Bornholm returned to the Danes; but the island of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

The year 1660, as we have already intimated, affords an instance of a revolution in Denmark, unparalleled in the annals of history, viz. that of a free people resigning their liberty into the hands of their sovereign of their own accord, and without the least compulsion rendering him despotic. This was in part occasioned by the great character which Frederic had acquired by his late prudent and valiant conduct. At that time he had also taken care to ingratiate himself with the commonalty, by obliging the nobility to allow them some immunities which they did not enjoy before, and permitting them by a special edict to possess lands. After the conclusion of the treaty with Sweden, a diet was summoned at Copenhagen, to take into consideration the state of the kingdom, which was now very much exhausted, by the calamities of war. This distressed state of affairs was, by the commons, attributed to the nobility; who, on the other hand, took no care to conciliate the affections of the inferior classes: but rather increased their discontents by their arrogance. They had even the imprudence to remonstrate against the immunities above mentioned, which had been granted by the king during the siege of Copenhagen. In consequence of this, the deputies of the commons and clergy united against them; and, being joined by the citizens of the capital, formed a very considerable party. On bringing forward in the assembly the sums necessary for the national exigencies, a general excise was proposed by the nobles on every article of consumption; and they professed themselves willing to submit to it, though, by an express law, their order was to be exempted from taxes. This offer, however, was accompanied with a remonstrance to the king; in which they endeavoured to reclaim many obsolete privileges, and to add fresh immunities, tending to diminish the royal prerogative, and check the rising influence of the commons and clergy. This proposal occasioned great disputes in the diet; and the two inferior orders insisted, that they would not admit of any tax which should not be levied equally upon all ranks. The nobles not only refused to comply with this proposal, but even to be subject to the present tax for more than three years; pretending that all taxes whatever were infringements on their privileges. By way of compensation, however, they proposed new duties upon leather and stamped paper, and at last offered to pay a poll tax for their peasants. This at first seemed to be agreeable to the two inferior estates; but they suddenly changed their minds, and demanded that the tithes and domains, which the nobles had hitherto possessed exclusively, and at a very moderate rent, should be let to the highest bidder. In the heat of the dispute, one of the chief senators having imprudently thrown out some reproachful expressions against the commons, a general ferment ensued, and the assembly was broken up in confusion. This gave occasion

to the interposition of the king's friends; idea of rendering the crown hereditary, enlarging the royal prerogative, began to be suggested as the proper method of humbling nobility. This was first proposed by the bishop of Zealand; an act for rendering the crown hereditary was drawn up; and the best method of publicly producing it taken into consideration. All this time the king seemed quite inactive; could he be prevailed upon to take any part in an affair which so nearly concerned him. His indolence was abundantly compensated by his alertness and diligence of his queen. On the morning of the 8th of October, therefore, the bishop of Zealand having obtained the assent and signatures of the ecclesiastical deputies, the new proposal, delivered it to Nausen, master of Copenhagen and speaker of the commons, whose speech in favor of it had produced a great effect upon the assembly, that they subscribed to it unanimously; the nobles being all the while perfectly secure, and entirely ignorant of the action. Next day it was presented to the king, by the bishop and Nausen; and finally to the nobles, while they professed their general willingness to assent to the declaration, observed to the commons that it required the most serious discussion. Nausen replied, that the commons had already taken their resolution; that they would lose no time in debate; and that, if the king would not concur with them, they would immediately repair to the palace by themselves, they had not the least doubt that the king would graciously accept their proffer. In the meantime the nobles had privately despatched a messenger to the king, intimating that they were willing to render the crown hereditary in the line of his issue, provided it was done without usual formalities. But his majesty stipulated an equal right of succession in the female line. He added, however, that he by no means intended to prescribe rules for their conduct; that he would follow the dictates of their own judgment, and he would owe every thing to their free choice. In the interim, the other deputies arrived at the palace, and the bishop of Zealand addressed his majesty on the resolution taken by the commons, adding, that they were ready to sacrifice their lives in the defence of an establishment so salutary to the country. His majesty, assured them of his protection, and promised to redress all grievances, mentioned the concurrence of the nobles as a necessary condition, and dismissed them with an exhortation to continue their sittings until they should have arrived at their design to a pacific conclusion. The nobles, breaking up without coming to any agreement, and preparing, it is said, to leave Copenhagen, the court and the popular party, by necessary measures to force them to a compliance. Orders were given to shut the gates of the capital, when a message arrived that they were willing to concur with the commons, and subscribe to the conditions of the royal pleasure. The matter now remained but to ratify the transaction with proper solemnity. Accordingly, on the 10th of October, the estates assembled in the most solemn manner, the capitulation or charter signed by the king on his accession to the throne; abso-



engagements, and cancelled all the imposed upon his sovereignty! The concluded by the ceremony of doing the new oath with great ceremony; a new form of government was under the title of The Royal Law

I. was succeeded, in 1670, by his son, who obliged the duke of Holstein nounce the advantages he had gained of Roschild. He then recovered a places in Schonen; but his army d in the bloody battle of Luncles XI. of Sweden. This de put an end to the war, which ostinately continued till he was rely at the battle of Landskroon; exhausted his dominions in his mions, he was in a manner aban his allies, and forced to sign a treaty s prescribed by France, in 1679. wever, did not desist from his mili-; and at last became the ally and Louis XIV. He died in 1699, and ed by Frederic IV., who, like his maintained his pretensions upon d, probably, would have become at duchy, had not the English and raised the siege of Tonningen; while ng of Sweden, Charles XII., then years of age, landed within eight enhagen, to assist his brother-in-law Holstein. Charles probably would itself master of Copenhagen, had sh majesty agreed to the peace of which was entirely in the duke's mother treaty concluded with the al, Frederic obliged himself to fur- of troops who were to be paid by tes; and who afterwards did great at the French. Notwithstanding rederic was perpetually engaged in e Swedes. While Charles was an der, he marched through Holstein Pomerania, and in 1712 into Bre- ok the city of Stade. His troops, e totally defeated by the Swedes at who laid his favorite city of Altona rederic revenged himself by seizing the ducal Holstein, and forcing the eral, count Steinbock, to surrender ner, with all his troops. In 1716 f Frederic was so great, in taking nd Stralsund, driving the Swedes ay, and in reducing Wismar and hat his allies began to suspect he t the sovereignty of all Scandinavia. urn of Charles of Sweden from his wed the war against Denmark with ered spirit; but upon his death at Frederichsal, Frederic durst not re- of his Britannic majesty's mediation and the crown of Sweden; in con- which a peace was concluded at hich left him in possession of the wick. Frederic died in 1730, after his capital reduced to ashes by an e, in 1728. His son and successor made no other use of his power,

and the advantages with which he mounted the throne, than to cultivate peace with all his neighbours, and to promote the happiness of his subjects, whom he eased of many oppressive taxes. In 1734, after guaranteeing the Pragmatic Sanction, he sent 6000 men to the assistance of the emperor, during the dispute about the succession to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, especially over Hamburgh. He obliged the Hamburgers, in 1736, to call in the mediation of Prussia, to abolish their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of silver marks. He had, in 1738, a dispute with king George II. about the little lordship of Steinhurst, which had been mortgaged to the latter by the duke of Holstein Lauenburg, and waich Christian said belonged to him. Some blood was spilt during the contest; in which Christian, it is thought, never was in earnest. It brought on, however, a treaty, in which he availed himself of his Britannic majesty's predilection for his German dominions; for he agreed to pay Christian a subsidy of £70,000 sterling a year on condition of keeping in readiness 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover: which was a gainful bargain for Denmark. And two years after he seized some Dutch ships for trading without his leave to Iceland: but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Christian had so great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his son to be declared successor to his then Swedish majesty. Some steps for that purpose were certainly taken: but whatever Christian's views might have been, the design was frustrated by the jealousy of other powers. Christian died in 1746, with the character of being an excellent monarch. His son and successor, Frederic V., had, in 1743, married the princess Louisa, daughter to king George II. He improved upon his father's plans for the happiness of his people; but took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. For it was by his intervention that the treaty of Closen was concluded between the duke of Cumberland and the French general Richelieu. Upon the death of queen Louisa, mother to the late king, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunswick Wolfenbittel; and died in 1766.

He was succeeded by his son Christian VII. who married the princess Carolina Matilda of England, an alliance which proved unfortunate, as is generally stated through the intrigues of the queen dowager. The king had displaced several of her friends who had for some time had a share in the administration; and the two new favorites, Brandt and Struensee, who had now appeared, paid great court to the queen. The dowager on this took occasion to insinuate, that the queen had condescended to an intrigue with Struensee. The result is familiar to most of our readers. When the plan of removing the existing administration was brought to maturity, it was resolved to surprise the king in the middle of the night, and force him instantly to sign an order for committing the ministers to separate prisons; to accuse them of high treason in general, and particularly with a design to dethrone or poison



the king. If this could not be properly authenticated, it was determined to suborn witnesses to confirm the report of a criminal correspondence between the queen and Struensee. This design was executed on the night of the 16th of January, 1772, when a masked ball was given at the court. The queen, after having danced most part of the evening with count Struensee, retired to her chamber about two in the morning. About four the same morning prince Frederic rose, and went with the queen dowager to the king's bed-chamber, accompanied by general Eichstedt and count Rantzau. Having ordered his valet de chambre to awake the king, they informed him that the queen, with Struensee, his brother, and Brandt, were at that moment busy in drawing up an act of renunciation of the crown, which they would immediately after compel him to sign; and there was therefore a necessity for him to give an order for their arrest. Christian is said to have hesitated for some time, and to have been inclined to refuse this scandalous requisition; but at length, through importunity, and, according to some accounts, being even threatened into compliance, he consented to what they required. Count Rantzau was despatched, at an untimely hour, into the queen's apartments, and immediately executed the orders of the king. This unfortunate lady, together with an infant princess, was conveyed in one of the king's coaches to the castle of Cronenburgh, escorted by a party of dragoons. Struensee and Brandt were seized in their beds and imprisoned, as well as other members of the administration to the number of eighteen. The queen dowager and her adherents assumed the government, and a total change took place in all departments of the state. The prince royal, son of queen Carolina Matilda, then in the fifth year of his age, was put under the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governess, under the superintendency of the queen dowager. Struensee and Brandt were put in irons, and underwent long and frequent examinations. Struensee at last confessed that he had conducted a criminal intrigue with the queen. These ministers were both beheaded on the 28th of April; but many of their partisans were set at liberty. Such is one mode of accounting for the revolution of 1772. The confession of Struensee is by many supposed to have been extorted by fear of the torture, and to have no foundation in truth; but, as no means were used by the court of Great Britain to clear up the queen's character, the affair undoubtedly wears a suspicious aspect. At last, however, his Britannic majesty interfered so far as to send a small squadron of ships to convoy the unhappy princess to Germany. The city of Zell was appointed for her residence; and in this place she died of a fever on the 10th May, 1775, aged twenty-three years and ten months.

Of Struensee as a minister, 'it must not be forgotten,' says an able writer in the *Edinburgh Review*, September 1826, 'that he was the first minister of an absolute monarchy who abolished the torture, and that he patronised those excellent plans for the emancipation of the enslaved husbandmen, which were first conceived by Reverdil a Swiss, and of which the adoption by the second Bernstorff has justly immortalised that

statesman. He will be honored by after what offended the Lutheran clergy: the exercise of religious worship granted to Catholics, and even to Catholics; Danish clergy were ambitious of retaliation to persecute, not only long after it possible to exercise it, but even after they the disposition to do so; at first to over-terwards to degrade non-conformists; stages, as a badge of the privileges and an established church.'

The same writer, in a *Review of general Skenskiold's 'Memoirs of the Revolution'*, observes, that the evidence against him consisted in a number of circumstances, then incapable of an innocent explanation, to be by her attendants, who were employed on her conduct. She owned that she was of much imprudence; but in her dying she declared to M. Roques, pastor of the church at Zell, that she never had been unfaithful to her husband. (Communicated by M. to M. Secretan, the editor of *Falkenskjold's* the 7th of March 1780. *Falk.* 234.) I that her own signature affixed to a confession alleged against her. But if general Falkenskjold was rightly informed (for he has every appearance of honest intention), that signature proved but the malice and cruelty of her enemies. Schack, the counsellor sent to interrogate Cronenburgh, was received by her with civility when he spoke to her of her connection with Struensee. When he showed Struensee's confession to her, he artfully intimated that the minister would be subjected to a severe death if he was found to have falsely confessed to the queen. 'What!' she exclaimed, 'I believe that if I was to confirm this death I should save the life of that unfortunate.' Schack answered with a profound bow, the queen took a pen, wrote the first syllable of her name, and fainted away. Schack completed the signature, and carried away the fatal document in triumph. Struensee himself, however, confessed his intercourse to the confessor. It is said that his confession was obtained by threats of torture, facilitated by the hope of life, and influenced by a knowledge of the proceeding against the queen could not be carried beyond divorce. But his repeated avowals to Dr. Munter do not seem to allow of such an explanation. Any supposition favorable to this unhappy princess remains, unless it should be thought that as Dr. Munter's narrative was written under the eye of her oppressors, they thus caused the confessions of Struensee to be made in it, by their own agents, without the perhaps without the knowledge of Munter. His subsequent life is so little known, that it is difficult to determine whether he ever had the means of posing the falsification. It must be admitted, however, it is added, that internal evidence does not favor this hypothesis; for the passages in his narrative, which contain the avowals of his having a striking appearance of genuineness.

Their treatment of Matilda did not seem to be advantageous to the queen dowager's party.—Another revolution took place



the queen dowager's friends were and a new council was formed under the auspices of the prince royal. After that king, who from the beginning of his reign had a great degree of incapacity, was excluded from the government; and the queen finally succeeded to the throne in concert with great circumspection and the whole of the public affairs. The part with the late empress of Russia with the Turks, the immediate opponent being Sweden, and, in 1801, the confederacy formed by the northern powers against the naval superiority of Great Britain, the title of a Convention of Neutrality, this league was quickly dissolved by the arrival of Lord Nelson in the Baltic, the battle of the 2d April of that year, the peace of defence formed by the Danish king at Copenhagen, and compelled the Danes to a cessation of arms, in order to pre-empt capital. In this short war they lost a great deal in the West Indies, and the settlement of the coast of Coromandel. The dispute between England and the northern powers was soon after amicably adjusted by a foreign possession was restored to the queen. She had noticed a second rupture between Great Britain and Russia in 1807, and in consequence to the commerce of the north it led also to the still more humiliating of the dismemberment of Norway. United efforts of the allies to crush the Buonaparte, this country and Russia entered into that arrangement with the crown of Sweden, which terminated in his taking possession of this old appendage of Denmark.

The language of Denmark is a dialect of the German, and bears a strong affinity to that of the Dutch, which is disagreeable to strangers on account of its drawling tone with which it is pronounced. Many words have been borrowed from French and the Dutch is often used in composition. French also is well understood, and is spoken by all classes.

(John), once a critic of celebrity, a tradesman in London, was born in 1704, received the rudiments of his education at the University of Cambridge, and took his degree of A. B. in 1724, after which he travelled in France and Italy, and returned to his native country in 1726. On his return he was acquainted with Dryden, Wycherley, and Southern; whose conversation was with a passion for poetry, and the study of the ancients, diverted him from the exercise of his trade. His zeal, however, for the profession recommended him to the duke of Devonshire, who procured him a place in the household of £120 per annum; which he held some years, till, by want of economy, he was obliged to dispose of it to satisfy some demands. In 1704 came out his *Essay on Liberty Asserted*; in which were some remarks on the French nation, that he himself fell into a persuasion, that the queen would insist on his being delivered up, he would consent to a peace; and in 1705, when the congress was held at Utrecht, he is said

to have waited on his patron, the duke of Marlborough, to desire that no such article might be stipulated. The duke told him he really had no interest with the ministry; but had made no such provision for his own security, though he could not help thinking he had done the French as much injury as Mr. Dennis. Dennis, partly through a natural petulance of temper, and partly to procure the means of subsistence, was continually engaged in paper wars with his contemporaries. His attacks on distinguished authors were numerous, among whom were Addison, Steele, and Pope. In the close of his days a play was acted for his benefit, at the little theatre in the Hay-market; when Pope, notwithstanding his previous gross abuse of him, even wrote a prologue to the play. He died on the 6th of January, 1733. As a dramatic author, it was justly said of him by a wit, that he was the most complete instructor for a dramatic poet, since he could teach him to distinguish good plays by his precepts, and bad ones by his examples.

**DENOMINATE**, *v. a.* Fr. *denominer*;  
**DENOMINABLE**, *adj.* } Span. *denominar*;  
**DENOMINATION**, *n. s.* } Ital. and Lat. *denominare*;  
**DENOMINATIVE**, *adj.* } from *de*  
**DENOMINATOR**, *n. s.* } and *nomino*, *nomen*,  
 a name. To give name to. Denominable signifies, that may be named; denomination the name given; denominative, that which gives a name; characteristic: denominator, the giver of a name, or a particular number in the doctrine of fractions. See FRACTIONS.

**DENON**, Dominique Vivant, baron de, was born Feb. 4, 1747, at Chalons-sur-Saône, of a noble family. He was destined to study law at Paris, where he was favorably received in society; and his talent and inclination led him to devote himself to the arts. A comedy which he wrote, called the Good Father, gained him the favor of the ladies. His amiable manners made him a favorite of Louis XV., who appointed him *gentilhomme ordinaire* about his person. He was afterwards attached to an embassy at St. Petersburg, where Catherine, however, observed him with a jealous eye. Subsequently he was intrusted with a diplomatic mission to Switzerland. On this occasion, he drew Voltaire's likeness (engraved by St. Aubin), and the well known picture *Le Dejeuner de Ferney*. He then occupied, during seven years, a place in the French embassy at Naples. His residence in this city, and repeated visits to Sicily and Malta, gave him an opportunity of exercising his talent for drawing and engraving. Denon had the principal direction of the artists engaged in preparing the *abbé St. Non's Voyage Pittoresque de Naples et de Sicile*, and the text was chiefly taken from his journal. This elegant work appeared at Paris in 1788. The remainder of Denon's journal, relating to Sicily and Malta, appeared separately, in 1788. His career at Naples was interrupted by the death of the minister Vergennes, his patron, or, according to some, by the displeasure of the queen, Maria Caroline. But still his love for the study of the great masters detained him in Italy. He resided at Venice during several years, where he shone in the



circles of the countess Albrizzi, who was distinguished for her amiable and intelligent character, and loved to be surrounded by men of talent. Denon was not forgotten in her *Ritratti*, where she bestows the greatest praise on his character, his passion for the arts, his cheerfulness, and amiable disposition, and excuses the raillery with which he attacked the foibles of others. The observation and restraint, to which the revolution subjected Frenchmen in foreign countries, compelled him to leave Venice. After a short stay in Florence and Switzerland, he was obliged to return to France during the reign of terror; but he made himself agreeable to Robespierre, and was, in consequence, subsequently accused of devotion, at that time, to Jacobin principles. During this period he exercised himself in engraving. At last, he became acquainted with Buonaparte, and immediately united himself with him. He accompanied the general in his campaigns to Italy and Egypt, and Desaix to Upper Egypt. The work which was the result of this journey, was an addition to Denon's fame, particularly the engravings which ornament it (Paris, 1802, 2 vols. fol., and 3 vols. 12mo., without engravings). Denon, in this, has shown himself a very able artist. Nature, animate and inanimate, the monuments of centuries, and the Arabian flying through the desert, are represented with great fidelity. When he returned to Paris with Buonaparte, he was appointed general director of the museums, and all the works of art executed in honor of the French successes—monuments, coins, the erection of the triumphal pillar in the place de Vendôme, &c. He accompanied Napoleon in all his campaigns, and employed himself in drawing, and in selecting those masterpieces in the conquered countries, which were taken to Paris as trophies. In 1815, he was compelled to witness the restoration of the spoils. After the abdication of the emperor, he retained his office, but was deprived of it in 1815, in consequence of having joined Napoleon on his return from Elba. He retained, however, his place in the institute. From that time he lived retired, and the preparation of engravings and lithographs of his splendid collection of works of art, formed the occupation of his last years. He died at Paris, April 28, 1825. His mind was active to the last. Denon much resembled Voltaire in his old age. In 1826 appeared at Paris the *Description des Objets d'Art composant le Cabinet de feu M. le Bar. V. Denon*, in 3 vols. (Monuments antiques, tableaux et estampes). The cabinet was sold by auction.

**DENOTE**, *v. a.* } Lat. *denoto*, to mark;

**DENOTATION**, *n. s.* } to be a sign of; to be token; to show by signs: the act of denoting; a symptom

**DENOUNCE**, *v. a.* } Fr. *denoncer*; Span.

**DENOUNCER**, *n. s.* } *denunciar*; Ital. *denon-*

**DENOUNCEMENT**. } *ciare*; Lat. *denunciare*,

from *de* against, and *nuncio*, to carry orders. To threaten or impugn by public or open proclamation. Denouncement is the proclamation made.

**DENSE**, *adj.* } Lat. *densus*, close; com-

**DENSITY**, *n. s.* } pact; approaching to solidity.

**DENSITY**, denotes vicinity or closeness of matter; but in mechanical science, it is a term of comparison, expressing the proportion of equal molecules, or the quantity of matter in one body to the number of molecules in the same bulk of another body. Density, therefore, is directly as the quantity of matter and inversely as the magnitude of the body. Since it may be shown experimentally that the quantities of matter, or the magnitudes of different bodies, are proportional to their weights, of consequence the density of any body is as its weight, and inversely as its magnitude. The inverse ratio of the magnitudes of two bodies having equal weights, in the same place, constitutes the ratio of their densities.

**DENSHIRE**, *v. a.* A barbarous term for husbandry.

**DENTAL**, *adj. & n. s.* } From Lat. *dens*, *dentis*,

**DENTI'ULATION**, *n. s.* } Dental is,

**DENTI'ULATED**, *adj.* } to the teeth,

**DENTIFRICE**, *n. s.* } name of a

**DENTISE**, *v. a.* } shell-fish:

**DENTIST**, *n. s.* } lated, being

**DENTI'TION**. } teeth, like a saw: dentifrice, a tooth-

brush; dentise, to renew the teeth; dentition, the corresponding substantive; and dentist, a word for the profession of healing, preparing and drawing teeth.

**DENTALIUM**, in natural history, a genus of shells belonging to the order of vermes testaceae. The shell consists of one tubulous straight valve at both ends, and not divided into chambers. There are twelve species, distinguished by the angles, striae, &c., of their shells.

**DENTARIA**, tooth-wort, or tooth-pennywort, a genus of the siliquosa order in the tradynamia class of plants; natural order, eth, siliquosae. The siliqua parts with the valves and the valvules roll spirally backward. The stigma is emarginated; the calyx closes longitudinally. There are five species, all hardy perennials; producing annual stems twelve or eighteen inches high, adorned with many lobed leaves, and spikes of quadrifid cruciform flowers of a red or purple color. They delight in shady places, and are propagated either by seeds or parting the roots. They may be sown in autumn or early in the spring in a shady border of light earth; and the plants are three inches high, they may be removed where they are to remain. The time for sowing the roots is in October or November, or in the spring.

**DENTATUS** (Curius), a renowned Roman general, whose virtues render him more memorable than his victories, flourished A. C. 400. He was thrice consul; conquered the Sabines, and Lucanians; and gave each forty acres of land, allowing himself no more. The ambassadors of the Samnites making a visit, found him boiling turnips in a pipkin, which they offered him gold to come over to them: he told them his design was not to be rich, but to command those who were defeated. He defeated Pyrrhus near Tarentum, and the honour of a triumph.



rus (Sicinius), a hero of ancient Rome, plebeian order, who flourished about 500. When disputes ran high between patricians and plebeians, concerning the Agrarian Law,

Dentatus addressed the people, and pointed upon his achievements and his hard labours he had served his country in the wars; he had been an officer thirty; first centurion and then a tribune; he had fought battles, and by the force of his single arm saved the lives of a multitude of his fellow citizens.

He had gained fourteen civic, five military and eight golden crowns; besides eighty rings, sixty bracelets, eighteen gilt spears, thirty-three horse-trappings, of which nine were killed in single combat: he had received forty-five wounds, all before him. These were his honors; yet notwithstanding all this, he had never received any of those lands which were won from the enemy; he continued to drag on a life of poverty amidst the midst of others possessed those very lands which his valor had won, without any recompense to him, or ever having contributed to the conquest. The people unanimously declared that the law might be passed, and that his merit should not pass unrewarded. The senators attempted to speak, but were overpowered by the cries of the people. A number of resolute young patricians stood up bravely amongst the crowd, broke the ranks, and dispersed the multitude. For they were fined by the tribunes, but they defied their object for the time, by getting the agrarian law postponed. Such was the character of the Roman patricians, at one of the most glorious periods of that celebrated republic. *ELLA*, in botany, a genus of the monogynous order, and pentandria class of plants: the corolla is parted perianth, with small subulated stamens. five short subulated filaments; all; *PERICARP.* globular; *CAPS.* bilocular, egg shaped, and very numerous. *one only*, a native of New Caledonia. *ELLII*, *n. s.* Ital. Modillions.

*ELLIONS*, or *dentelli*, make a noble show by their projections. *Spectator*, No. 415.

*TELES*, or *DENTILS*, in architecture, are in cornices bearing some resemblance particularly used in the Ionic and Corinthian orders.

*TRISCALPRA*, in surgery, an instrument used to cut yellow, livid, or black teeth; to be applied, near the gums, it scrapes off the morbid crust.

*TRITION*. See *ODONTOLOGY*.

*NUDE*, *v. a.* } Lat. *denudo*, from *de*  
*NUDE*, *v. a.* } and *nudo* (*ne* and *duo*)  
*NUDE*, *n. s.* } the root of *induo* to  
to strip; to make naked.

has *denuded* himself of all incumbrances, and is relieved. *Decay of Piety*.

ready can be obtained, unless we would devote all force to defend us. *Clarendon*.

summer-time you *denude* a vine-branch of its leaves, grapes will never come to maturity.

*Ray on the Creation*.

OL. VII.

**DENUNCIATION**, *n. s.* } Lat. *denuncial*  
**DENUNCIATOR**, *n. s.* } See **DENOUNCER**.  
The act of denouncing; the proclamation of a threat; a public menacer.

In a *denunciation* or indictment of a war, the war is not confined to the place of the quarrel, but is left at large. *Bacon*.

Christ tells the Jews, that, if they believe not, they shall die in their sins; did they never read those *denunciations*? *Ward*.

Midst of these *denunciations*, and notwithstanding the warning before me, I commit myself to lasting duration. *Congreve*.

The *denunciator* does not make himself a party in judgment as the accuser does. *Ayliffe's Parerg.*

**DENY**, *v. a.* } Fr. *nier*; Span. *denegar*;  
**DENIAL**, *n. s.* } Ital. and Lat. *negare*; from  
**DENIER**, } Lat. *ne* and *ago*, to refuse to do. To refuse; contradict; and hence to disregard; denounce.

If we *deny*en he shall *denye* us; if we believeen not he dwellith feithful he mai not *denye* himself. *Wiclif*, 2 Tymo. 2.

It shall be therefore a witness unto you, lest you *deny* your God. *Joshua* xxiv. 27.

And therfor, though he had thus made a realme, holy Scripture *denyid* to call hym a kyng. *Fortescue*.

The *denial* of landing, and hasty warning us away, troubled us much. *Bacon*.

My young boy  
Hath an aspect of intercession, which  
Great nature cries—*deny* not. *Shakespeare*.

Here comes your father; never make *denial*:  
I must and will have Catherine to my wife. *Id.*

It may be I am esteemed by my *denier* sufficient of myself to discharge my duty to God as a priest, though not to men as a prince. *King Charles*.

How unworthy is he of life, who with the same breath that he receives, denies the Giver of it.

*Bishop Hall. Contemplations.*  
The negative authority is also *deniable* by reason. *Browne*.

Ah, charming fair, said I,  
How long can you my bliss and yours *deny*? *Dryden*.

We may *deny* God in all those acts that are capable of being morally good or evil: those are the proper scenes in which we act our confessions or *denials* of him. *South*.

The best sign and fruit of *denying* ourselves, is mercy to others. *Spratt*.

Our Saviour assures us, that if a tender mother cannot *deny* the son of her love any reasonable request, much less will God *deny* his Holy Spirit to them that ask him. *Clarke's Sermons*.

No man more impudent to *deny*, where proofs were not manifest; no man more ready to confess, with a repenting manner of aggravating his own evil, where *denial* would but make the fault fouler. *Sidney*.

By the word *Virtue* the affirmer intends our whole duty to God and man, and the *denier* by the word *Virtue* means only courage, or, at most, our duty towards our neighbour, without including the idea of the duty which we owe to God. *Watts*.

If you had been contented to assist him indirectly, without a notorious *denial* of justice, or openly insulting the sense of the nation, you might have satisfied every duty of political friendship. *Junius*.

It has been asserted, that, if you alter her symbols, you alter the being of the church of England. This, for the sake of the liberty of that church, I must absolutely *deny*. *Burke*.

M



I have gnashed  
My teeth in darkness till returning morn,  
Then cursed myself till sun-set;—I have prayed  
For madness as a blessing—'tis denied me. *Byron.*

**DENYS** (St.) a town of France, in the department of Paris, famous for a magnificent church, built by king Dagobert, in 632; in which were the tombs of many of the French kings, of the constable Guesclin, and of marshal Turenne. In the treasury, among other curiosities, were the swords of St. Lewis, and the Maid of Orleans, and the sceptre of Charlemagne. The abbey of the Benedictines, a magnificent piece of modern architecture, has more the appearance of a palace than a convent. In 1793 the republican populace broke into the royal tombs, and greatly dilapidated the buildings. In 1806 Bonaparte caused them to be repaired, selected the church as the burying-place for his own family, and founded a chapter here of ten canons, which the Bourbons have retained with some modifications. The late prince of Condé has been interred here since the return of Louis XVIII. St. Denys is seated on the river Crould, near the Seine, five miles north of Paris, and contains 6000 inhabitants.

**DEOBSTRUCT**, *v. a.* } From *de* privative,  
**DEOBSTRU'ENT**, *adj.* } and **OBSTRUCT**,  
which see. To clear away obstacles; deobstruent  
is, having the power to remove obstructions.

It is a singular good wound-herb, useful for deobstructing the pores of the body.

*More's Antidote against Atheism.*

Such as carry off the faces and mucus, deobstruct the mouth of the lacteals, so as the chyle may have a free passage into the blood. *Arbuthnot on Diet.*

All sopas are attenuating and deobstruent, resolving viscid substances. *Id. on Aliments.*

**DE'ODAND**, *n. s.* Lat. *Deo dandum*. A thing given or forfeited to God.

*Deodands* are forfeitures which the ignorance and superstition of ancient times introduced and called by the name of *deodands*, from the application of them to pious uses. *Burn's Justice.*

**D'EON** (the Chevalier), born in 1728, at Tonnere, in Burgundy, of a respectable family, is principally distinguished for consenting to appear half his life as a woman. He received a liberal education; and, becoming an orphan, the Prince de Conti procured him a commission as a cornet of dragoons. He was employed in 1755 on a mission to Petersburg, after which he joined his regiment, and served with considerable credit in the campaign of 1762, as aid-de-camp to Marshal Broglie. The year following he was invested with the order of St. Louis, and accompanied the duke de-Nivernois to England as secretary. On the duke's leaving England, D'Eon remained in the character of minister plenipotentiary, until he was superseded by the count de Guerchy, to whom he was appointed secretary. At this arrangement he was very indignant, and published in revenge an account of the negotiations in which he had been engaged; wherein he stigmatized the conduct of the count. He was prosecuted by de Guerchy for a libel in the Court of King's Bench, in July, 1764, and being found guilty absconded, and was outlawed.

In 1771 doubts were entertained of his sex, and bets were laid to a game that D'Eon was a woman. In one produced an action at law, that ended in suit. The chevalier in the mean time France, where he assumed (comp said) the female dress, but for which he has never been ascertained; in this respect was certainly sanctioned which continued his pension, and to retain the cross of his order.

In 1785 D'Eon came to England appearing as a woman, he gave lessons but when the Revolution deprived pensions, he presented in June 1791 to the National Assembly, in which he complained of being obliged to wear a tunic, and asked permission to restore his uniform. His petition remained unanswered. He now again sought an asylum where he passed the latter part of his life in poor circumstances; and died in New Street, May 21st, 1810. His countess Ellysée, discovering that the chevalier was of male sex, after his decease invited several other gentlemen to examine the body, which was interred in St. Pancras church-yard. Charles Genevieve Le Beau, Andre Timothee D'Eon de Beaumont said to have been the author of *L'Esprit des Lois*, 6 vols. 12mo.; *Loisirs*, 13 vols. 8vo. *Mémoires, et Négociations particulières*, &c.

**DEOPTILATE**, *v. a.* Lat. *de optulere*. To clear a passage; to free from obstruction.

Though the grosser parts be excluded, are the dissoluble parts extracted, where effectual in deopplings. *Brouncker's V.*

A physician prescribed him a deopplingative apozem.

**DEOSCUATION**, *n. s.* Lat. *osculum* (*os*, *oris*, the mouth). Kiss.

We have an enumeration of the sacrifices and worship required to be performed to immortals, genuflections, thurifications, and

**DEPAINT**, *v. a.* or **DEPEINCE**, also writes it. Fr. *depeint*; *de*, and *peindre*. To picture; to describe by colour; to resemble.

He did unwilling worship to the  
That on his shield depainted he did

The red rose medled with the white  
In either cheek depeinted lively here

Such ladies fair would I depeint  
In roundelay, or sonnet quaint.

**DEPART** *v. a.* & *n. s.* }  
**DEPART'ER**, } Sp.  
**DEPART'ING**, *n. s.* } It.  
**DEPART'MENT**, } La.  
**DEPART'URE**, } a

**פָּרַח** (to divide). To separate; to neuter verb, to quit a place, taking to desert; to fall away; to be lost; to desist from a practice and to revert to departure both express the away, and abandoning, or death.



ly a continental division of territory, a general application.

folks schulen be gederid bfore him; and porte hem atwynne, as a scheparde dep fro kids. *Wiclif. Matt. 25.*

thee N. to my wedded wife, to love and ill death us depart.

*Old Family Prayer Book, (1661).*

soul was in departing; fro she died.

*Gen. xxxv. 18.*

parted quickly from the sepulchre, with at joy, and did run to bring his disciples *Matt. xxviii.*

lestest thou thy servant depart in peace, thy word. *Luke xxix.*

mists have a liquor called water of de part, *Bacon.*

which hath no stomach to this fight, m depart; his passport shall be made.

*Shakspeare.*

wish Christian peace to souls departed, a poor people's friend. *Id.*

our brave father breathed his latest gasp, swiftly as the post could run, ght me of your loss and his depart.

*Id. Henry VI.*

ad dispatch in private by the consul; lled by him this evening lone. *Ben Jonson.*

What besides row, and dejection, and despair, ality can sustain, thy tidings bring; ture from this happy place. *Milton.*

ty prevailed not with any of them to de se most unreasonable of all their demands. *Clarendon.*

of the Lord, and departure from evil, are like importance. *Tillotson.*

dst thou leave me, cruel, thus alone;

d kiss from a departing son!

last adieu!

*Dryden.*

us their good prince in his timely depar- barred him from the knowledge of his ts. *Sidney.*

an fleets, during their command at sea, veral stations and departments; the most was the Alexandrian fleet, and the se African. *Arbuthnot.*

lemen, his particular friends, in various of ministry, &c.

*Burke. Character of Lord Chatham.*

departing being's soul

hymn peals, and the hollow bells knoll.

*Byron.*

MENT. This word was adopted by l assembly of France instead of pro- the ancient provinces of that king- divided into departments, of which, Corsica, there were eighty-three. artments were much more equal in tent than the provinces; some of the ve provinces being divided into four artments, whilst some of the smaller ute exactly one, and in some instances es are included in one department. tment has been subdivided into dis- ach district again into cantons.

RE, in navigation, is the easting or a ship in respect of the meridian it

departed or sailed from; or it is the difference of longitude, either east or west, between the present meridian the ship is under, and that where the last reckoning or observation was made. This departure, any where but under the equator, must be counted according to the number of miles in a degree proper to the parallel the ship is under. The departure, in plane and Mercator's sailing, is always represented by the base of a right-angled plane triangle, where the course is the angle opposite to it, and the distance sailed is the hypothenuse; the perpendicular or other leg being the difference of latitude. And then the theorem for finding it is always this: as radius to the sine of the course; so is the distance sailed, to the departure sought.

DEPASTURE, *v. a.* Lat. *depasscor*; *de* and *pasco*, from Gr. *πασω*. To feed; to eat up.

They keep their cattle, and live themselves, in bodies pasturing upon the mountains, and removing still to fresh land, as they have depastured the former. *Spenser.*

DEPAUPERATE, *v. a.* Lat. *depaupero*; *de* and *pauper*. To make poor; to impoverish; to consume.

To represent God in a carved stone, or a painted table, does depauperate our understanding of God, and dishonours him below the painter's art. *Bp. Taylor.*

Great evacuations, which carry off the nutritious humours, depauperate the blood. *Arbuthnot.*

DEPECTIBLE, *adj.* Lat. *depecto*. Tough; clammy; tenacious; capable of being extended.

It may be also, that some bodies have a kind of lensor, and are of a more depectible nature than oil, as we see it evident in coloration; for a small quantity of saffron will tinct more than a very great quantity of brazil or wine. *Bacon.*

DEPEND', *v. a.*

DEPEND'ANCE, *n. s.*

DEPEND'ANT, *adj. & n. s.*

DEPEN'BENCE,

DEPEN'DENCY,

DEPEN'DENT, *adj. & n. s.*

hence, to be connected with, so as to be subject to the will of, or be supported by, another; and to be in suspense, whether of interest or attention. Dependance and dependence, the one from the older French and the other from the Latin verb, are both used in the literal as well as figurative sense.

On God, as the most high, all inferior causes in the world are dependent. *Hooker.*

Never be without money, nor depend upon the courtesy of others, which may fail at a pinch. *Bacon.*

Never was there a prince bereaved of his dependancies by his council, except where there hath been either an over-greatness in one counsellor, or an over-strict combination in divers. *Id.*

By no means be you persuaded to interpose yourself in any cause depending, or like to be depending, in any court of justice. *Id.*

We work by wit and not by witchcraft;

And wit depends on dilatory time. *Shakspeare.*

Her madness hath the oddest frame of sense;

Such a dependency of thing on thing,

As ne'er I heard in madness. *Id.*



A great abatement of kindness appears as well in the general dependants, as in the duke himself also, and your daughter. *Shakespeare.*

What shalt thou expect,  
To be dependant on a thing that leans? *Id.*

How dependant and servile is the life of man, that cannot either want one element, or endure it corrupted. *Bishop Hall. Contemplations.*

For a six-clerk a person recommended a dependant upon him, who paid six thousand pounds ready money. *Clarendon.*

From the frozen beard  
Long icicles depend, and crackling sounds are heard. *Dryden.*

They slept in peace by night,  
Secure of bread, as of returning light;  
And with such firm dependance on the day,  
That need grew pampered, and forgot to pray. *Id.*  
Every moment we feel our dependance upon God,  
and find that we can neither be happy without him,  
nor think ourselves so. *Tillotson.*

In all sorts of reasoning, the connexion and dependance of ideas should be followed, till the mind is brought to the source on which it bottoms. *Locke.*

We speak of the sublunary worlds, this earth, and its dependencies, which rose out of a chaos about six thousand years ago. *Burnet's Theory.*

The expectation of the performance of our desire, is that we call dependence upon him for help and assistance. *Stillingsfleet.*

There is a chain let down from Jove,  
So strong, that from the lower end,  
They say, all human things depend. *Swift.*

The judge corrupt, the long depending cause,  
And doubtful issue of misconstrued laws. *Prior.*

The direful monster was afar descried,  
Two bleeding babes depending at her side. *Pope.*

But if you're rough, and use him like a dog,  
Depend upon it—he'll remain incog. *Addison.*

We are indigent, defenceless beings; the creatures of his power, and the dependents of his providence. *Rogers.*

This is not like the tribute which earthly kings exact; who as much depend upon their subjects for the support of their power, as their subjects do upon them for the protection of their property. *Mason.*

Thus happiness depends, as nature shows,  
Less on exterior things than most suppose. *Comper.*

MAN. Think'st thou existence doth depend on time?  
It doth; but actions are our epochs, *Byron.*

DEPERDITION, *n. s.* Lat. *deperdo*; *de* and *perdo*; Gr. *περθω*; to lose or waste. Loss; destruction.

It may be unjust to place all efficacy of gold in the non-omission of weights, or deperdition of any ponderous particles. *Broune.*

DEPHLEG'M, or } Low Lat. *de-*  
DEPHLEG'MATE, *v. a.* } *phlegmo.* To clear  
DEPHLEG'MEDNESS, *n. s.* } from phlegm, or  
aqueous insipid matter.

We have sometimes taken spirit of salt, and carefully dephlegmed it. *Boyle.*

In divers cases it is not enough to separate the aqueous parts by dephlegmation; for some liquors contain also an unsuspected quantity of small corpuscles, of somewhat an earthy nature, which, being associated with the saline ones, do clog and blunt them, and thereby weaken their activity. *Id.*

The proportion betwixt the coralline solution and

the spirit of wine, depends much upon the nature of the former liquor, and the dephlegmedness of

DEPHLOGISTICATED AIR. *S. GEN.*

DEPICT; Lat. *depingo*, *depictus*, from *pingo*, *pictus*; to paint; describe.

The cowards of Lacedemon depicted shields the most terrible beasts they could imagine.

When the distractions of a tumult are depicted, every object and every occurrence is presented to your view, that, while you read, indeed to see them.

In a cottage by night may I pass the soft time  
In the field and the meadows all day;  
With the wife of my heart, whose charms, prime,  
Depict her as blooming as May. *B.*

DEPILATORY, *n. s.* } Lat. *de-*  
DEPIL'IOUS, *adj.* } and *pilus*,  
That which takes off the hair. Without

This animal is a kind of lizard, or quadruped, and depilous; that is, without woolly hair.

DEPILATORY MEDICINES, those applied to take off the hair; such are lime, and caustic substances, which ought to be used with great caution. Unless they destroy the roots of the hair remain unaffected, and grow again.

DEPLETION, *n. s.* Lat. *depleo*, *depletio*; act of emptying.

DEPLORE', *v. a.* } Fr. *deplorer*  
DEPLOR'ABLE, *adj.* } Port. *deplorar*  
DEPLOR'ABLENESS, *n. s.* } Lat. *deploro*  
DEPLOR'ABLY, *adv.* } *de* and *ploro*,  
DEPLOR'ATE, } To lament  
DEPLORA'TION. } bemoan; de-  
and deplorate, lamentable; that which is bemoaned.

This was the deplorable condition to which the city was reduced. *C.*

The bill of all weapons gives the most glancing deplorable wounds.

But chaste Diana who his death deplored  
With Esculapian herbs his life restored.

The case is then most deplorable when reversed over to the wrong side. *L.*

Notwithstanding all their talk of reason and philosophy, God knows, they are deplorably stupid.

It will be considered in how deplorable a situation lies in that kingdom.

A third's all pallid aspect offered more  
The traits of sleeping sorrow, and betrayed  
Through the heaved breast, the dream of  
shore

Beloved and deplored.

DEPLUME', *v. a.* } Lat. *deplum*  
DEPLUMA'TION, *n. s.* } pluck; or  
plucking, or plucking off the feathers.  
gery, a swelling of the eyelids, accompanying the fall of the hairs from the eye-brows.

DEPONE', *v. a.* } Lat. *depono*, *deponere*  
DEPO'NENT, *n. s.* } to lay down. To  
oath, in law. To pledge or adventure  
on some scheme of success. A participant  
of verb. See the extract.



very—such witness (who answers interrogatories) called a *deponent*. Cowell.

this I would *depose*  
such as any cause I've known. Hudibras.

deponents have no active voice are called *deposed*,  
generally signify action only; as fateor,  
Clarke's Latin Grammar.

**DEPOPULATE**, *v. a. & v. n.* } Fr. *dé-*  
*POPULAT*, *n. s.* } *peupler*; It.  
*POPULATION*, } *dispopolare*,  
*depopulare* (*de* and *populo*), to ravage.  
of the people of a country; to ravage.  
transitive verb, to become dispeopled. A  
destroyer or waster of inhabited

his arms upon unarmed and unprovided  
spoil only and *depopulate*, contrary to the  
of war and peace. Bacon.

Where is this viper,  
it would *depopulate* the city, and  
every man himself? Shakespeare.

as thou grieve then, Adam! to behold  
all thy offspring, and so sad  
me! thee another flood,  
d sorrow a flood, thee also drowned  
thee as thy sons. Milton

I exhausted to the last remains,  
desert towns and driven plains. Dryden.

in death in different shapes  
states the nations. Philips.

thou hearest the dire effect of war,  
as. Id.

not the place to enter into an enquiry  
country be *depopulating*. Goldsmith.

**DEPORT**, *v. a. & n. s.* } Fr. *deporter*, *de-*  
**DEPORTMENT**, *n. s.* } *portment*; Ital. *de-*  
*porta*, from Lat. *portare*; Gr. *φορῶν*, to  
self. To behave, demean; generally  
a compound pronoun.

to sweep the way with a few notes, touching  
own *deportment* in that island. Wotton.

She Delia's self  
surpassed and goddess-like *deport*. Milton.

ness of his temper, and the gravity of his  
carried him safe through many difficulties,  
d and died in a great station. Swift.

ambassador *deport* himself in the most  
anner before a prince. Pope.

it's a fine person, or a beauteous face,  
deportment gives them decent grace?  
d with all other requisites to please,  
want the striking elegance of ease. Churchill.

**DEPORTATION**, Lat. *deportatio*, of *de* and

ation, which is a *deportation* for ever into  
ad, was anciently with us a civil-death.  
Ayliffe.

**DEPOSE**, *v. a.* } Fr. *deposer*; Ital. *deporre*;  
*NO*, *n. s.* } Span. *deponer*; Lat. *depo-*  
**DEPOSITION**, } *ner*, *depositus*, from *de* and  
lace. Hence, to swear, because by so  
an deposits or pledges his faith to the  
his declaration. To lay down, lodge;  
e, deprive of; and generally, to lay  
up.

First, of the king; what shall of him become?  
The duke yet lives that Henry shall *depose*

Shakespeare.

There shouldst thou find one heinous article,  
Containing the *deposing* of a king. Id.

According to our law,

*Depose* him in the justice of his cause. Id.

Love straight stood up and *deposed*, a lie could not  
come from the mouth of Zelmane. Sidney.

Its shores are neither advanced one jot farther into  
the sea, nor its surface raised by additional mud *de-*  
*posed* upon it by the yearly inundations of the Nile.

Woodward.

If you will examine the veracity of the fathers by  
those circumstances usually considered in *depositions*,  
you will find them strong on their side.

Sir K. Digby.

A witness is obliged to swear, otherwise his *deposition*  
is not valid. Ayliffe.

His [James II.] conduct and the passage of Charles  
the Second's reign, might rankle still at the hearts of  
some men, but could not be set to account among the  
causes of his *deposition*. Bolingbroke.

**DEPOSIT**, *v. a. & n. s.* } For etymon,  
**DEPOSITARY**, } see **DEPOSE**. To  
**DEPOSITORY**, } lay up. The  
place of deposit is a depositary; and a person in  
trust is a depositary.

I gave you all.

—Made you my guardians, my *depositories*,

But kept a reservation to be followed

With such a number. Shakespeare.

The Jews themselves are the *depositories* of all the  
prophecies which tend to their own confusion.

Addison.

They had since Marsellies, and fairly left it: they  
had the other day the Valtoline, and now have put it  
in *deposit*. Bacon.

God commands us to return as to him, to the poor,  
his gift, out of mere duty and thankfulness: not to  
*deposit* them with him, in hopes of meriting by them.  
Sprat.

The eagle got leave here to *deposit* her eggs.

L'Estrange.

The difficulty will be to persuade the *deposing* of  
those lusts, which have, by I know not what fascina-  
tion, so endeared themselves. Deacy of Piety.

**DEPOSITION**. The proof in the high court of  
chancery is by the depositions of witnesses; and  
the copies of such regularly taken and published,  
are read as evidence at the hearing. For the  
purpose of taking deposition in or near London,  
there is an examiner's office appointed; but for  
such as live in the country, a commission to  
examine witnesses is usually granted to four  
commissioners, two named on each side, or any  
three or two of them to take the depositions  
there. And if the witnesses reside beyond sea,  
a commission may be had to examine them there  
upon their own oaths; and if foreigners, upon the  
oaths of two skilful interpreters. The commis-  
sioners are sworn to take the examinations truly  
and without partiality, and not to divulge them  
till published in the court of chancery; and  
their clerks are also sworn to secrecy. The wit-  
nesses may be compelled, by a process of sub-  
pœna, as in courts of common law, to appear  
and submit to examination; and when their de-  
positions are taken, they are transmitted to the



court with the same care that the answer of a defendant is sent. 3 *Black.* 455.

DEPOT denotes any particular place in which military stores are deposited for the use of the army. In a more extensive sense it signifies several magazines collected together for that purpose. It is likewise applied to any particular fort or place, appropriated for the reception of recruits to detached parties, belonging to different regiments. In England, the barracks near Maidstone are depôts for the British cavalry, and Chatham is allotted to the infantry. In the time of war the greatest attention should be given to preserve the several depôts which belong to the fighting army. Hence the line of operation should invariably be connected with them; or rather no advance should be made upon that line, without the strictest regard being had to the one of communication.

DEPÔT is again used to denote a particular place at the tail of the trenches, out of the reach of the cannon of the place attacked; where the troops generally assemble, when a sally from the besieged is suspected.

DEPÔT also means a temporary magazine for forage, for fascines, gabions, tools for mining, &c., with such other articles necessary for the support of an army, or for carrying on a siege.

DEPRAVE, <i>v. a.</i>	} Fr. <i>depraver</i> ; Span. and Portug. <i>depravar</i> ; Ital. and Lat. <i>depravare</i> , from <i>de</i> and <i>pravus</i> , crooked. To corrupt, vitiate, calumniate.
DEPRAYER, <i>n. s.</i>	
DEPRAVATION,	
DEPRAVEDNESS, <i>n. s.</i>	
DEPRAVEMENT,	

DEPRAVITY. *ate*: he who corrupts is a depraver; depravement, depravation, depravedness, and depravity a corrupt, vitiated state; depravation is used by Shakspeare for calumny.

We admire the providence of God in the continuance of scripture, notwithstanding the endeavours of infidels to abolish, and the fraudulence of heretics to deprave, the same. *Hooker.*

Who lives that's not depraved, or depraves?  
*Shakspeare.*

Stabborn critics are apt, without a theme  
For depravation, to square all the sex. *Id.*

What sins do you mean? Our original depravedness, and proneness of our eternal part to all evil. *Hammond.*

But from me what can proceed  
But all corrupt, both mind and will depraved?  
*Milton.*

He maketh men believe, that apparitions are either deceptions of sight, or melancholy depravements of fancy. *Browne.*

A taste which plenty does deprave,  
Loaths lawful good, and lawless ill does crave.  
*Dryden.*

We have a catalogue of the blackest sins that human nature, in its highest depravation, is capable of committing. *South.*

This will be equivalent to the proposal made by Boileau to the academicians, that they should review all their polite writers, and correct such impurities as might be found in them, that their authority might not contribute at any distant time to the depravation of the language. *Johnson. Plan of Dictionary.*

If this be so, there must be a cause or causes for such a depravity in our common people. *Franklin.*

DEPRECATE, <i>v. a.</i>	} From L. <i>deprecari</i> , to pray against: from, <i>apollari</i> .
DEPRECATION, <i>n. s.</i>	
DEPRICATIVE, <i>adj.</i>	
DEPRECATORY, <i>adj.</i>	

Bishop Fox understanding that the king was still discontent, being troubled that of breaking off the truce should grow, sent many humble and deprecatory letters to the king to appease him.

I, with leave of speech implore  
And humble deprecation, thus replied.

Sternutation they generally conceived as a sign, or a bad one; and so, upon this commonly used a gratulation for the occasion for the other.

In deprecating of evil, we make acknowledgment of guilt, and of God's justice, as well as clemency in sparing, the guilty.

Poverty indeed, in all its degrees, is persuaded to deprecate from themselves.

The judgments which we would deprecate removed.

The Italian entered them in his prayer the three evils he petitioned to be delivered might have deprecate greater evils.

*Baker's Reflections.*

DEPRECIATE, <i>v. a.</i>	} Fr. <i>depreciation</i> , <i>n. s.</i> Lat. <i>de pretium</i> (from Gr. <i>πρατης</i> , a seller) an act given to the seller for his goods. To lessen in price or value; the act of lessening of, or underrating a thing.
DEPRECIATION, <i>n. s.</i>	

They presumed upon that mercy, which conversations, they endeavour to depreciate.

As there are none more ambitious of those who are coiners in poetry, it is very such as have not exceeded in it to the works of those who have.

It has been held, indeed, by some (but certainly not by all of them, or upon all occasions), that juries in favour fairly, in fixing the value of the property their consideration the depreciation of money has taken place since the statutes passed. *Sir*

DEPREDATE, <i>v. a.</i>	} Fr. <i>deprédation</i> , <i>n. s.</i> Lat. <i>de predare</i> , to rob. To plunder.
DEPREDAATION,	
DEPRÉDATOR.	

The substantives plainly follow.  
It maketh the substance of the body incompact, and so less apt to be consumed by the spirits.

It is reported that the shrub called our which is a kind of briony, and colewort together, one or both will die: the cause they be both great depredators of the earth of them starveth the other.

The land had never been before so free from berries and depredations as through his reign.

Were there not one who had said, If thou come, and no farther; we might such vicissitudes, such clashing in nature depredations and changes of sea and land



**DEHEND**, *v. a.* } Lat. *deprehendo*,  
**DEHENSION**. } from *de* and *prehen-*  
 take. To catch; to take unawares; to  
 take fact.

men believe men upon their own authority,  
 since *deprehended* in so gross and impious an  
 act?

*More.*

retched creature, being *deprehended* in that  
 was held in ward.

*Hooker.*

otions of the minute parts of bodies, which  
 at effects, are invisible, and incur not to the  
 yet they are to be *deprehended* by experience.

*Bacon.*

**DEPRESS**, *v. a. & n. s.* } Fr. *deprimer*; It.  
**DEPRESSION**, } and Lat. *deprimere*,  
**DEPRESSOR**, } from *deorsum*, down-  
**DEPRESSION**. } wards; and *primere*,  
 to press or push down;  
 to let fall; to humble. Depressor and  
 depression, in anatomy, are terms applied to  
 whose action is to depress the parts to  
 they adhere.

ension of the nobility may make a king more  
 but less safe.

*Bacon.*

of a rectangular form, if laid one by another  
 row between supporters sustaining the two  
 the pieces between will necessarily sink by  
 a gravity; and much more, if they suffer  
 union by other weight above them.

*Wotton.*

same thing I have tried by letting a globe  
 raising or *depressing* the eye, or otherwise  
 it, to make the angle of a just magnitude.

*Newton.*

*depress* their own minds, despond at the  
 reality, and conclude that the making any  
 a knowledge is above their capacities.

*Locke.*

Passion can *depress* or raise  
 as heavenly, as the human mind.

*Prior.*

earnful truth is every where confessed,  
 a worth, by poverty *depressed*.

*Johnson.*

**DEPRIVE**, *v. a.* } Fr. *priver*; Span. and  
**DEPRIVATION**, *n. s.* } Port. *privar*; Ital. and  
**DEPRIVABLE**, *adj.* } Lat. *privare*; from *de*  
 To bereave or depose; taking of  
 hence to hinder, to debar from. Deprive  
 is certain formal and legal applications;  
 e. Deprivable is that which may, in  
 be taken away.

th *deprived* her of wisdom, neither hath he  
 to her understanding.

*Job, xxxix. 17.*

Most happy he,  
 least delight sufficeth to *deprive*  
 distance of all pains which him oppress.

*Spenser.*

rather that enjoy them, (the church's grants)  
 seem wrongfully, and are *deprivable* at all

*Hooker.*

ster, *deprived* for inconformity, said, that if  
 sed him, it should cost an hundred men's

*Bacon.*

ented the loss of an excellent servant, and  
 manner in which he had been *deprived* of

*Clarendon.*

his face I shall be hid, *deprived*  
 need countenance.

*Milton.*

those end is destruction, and eternal *depriva-*  
 tion.

*Bentley.*

Now wretched Oedipus, *deprived* of sight,  
 Led a long death in everlasting night. *Pope.*  
 I have no hope of a future existence except that  
 which is grounded on the truth of christianity; I wish  
 not to be *deprived* of this hope. *Bishop Watson.*

DEPRIVATION, ECCLESIASTICAL, is of two  
 kinds, viz. à beneficio, when for some crime a  
 minister is for ever deprived of his living; and  
 ab officio, when a minister is for ever deprived  
 of his order. It is the same with deposition and  
 degradation. It is usually for some heinous  
 crime deserving death, and is performed by the  
 bishop in a solemn manner. See DEGRADATION.

DEPTFORD, a town situated on the Thames,  
 partly in the county of Kent, and partly in  
 Surrey. It derives its name from a deep ford  
 over the Thames, formerly used, but now cleared.  
 It was generally known in ancient records by the  
 name of Deptford Strond. Deptford is now a  
 large and populous town, though it has no mar-  
 ket, and is divided into Upper and Lower Dept-  
 ford. It contains about 3000 houses, many of  
 which are neat and well built, two churches,  
 several meeting-houses, and two charity schools.  
 The greatest support and consequence of Dept-  
 ford arises from its excellent docks. Here the  
 royal navy was formerly built and repaired.  
 The storehouses, which form a square, have, in  
 the last war, had several additional buildings:  
 the whole yard covers thirty-one acres of ground,  
 containing two wet docks, one single, the other  
 double, three slips, a basin, and two ponds for  
 masts, with the various manufactories for anchors,  
 cables, masts, blocks, &c., and apartments for the  
 numerous officers employed. Here the royal  
 yachts are generally kept. Besides the national  
 docks, there are several others belonging to ship-  
 builders for merchants' vessels. Near the dock  
 formerly stood Says-Court, where Peter the  
 Great resided for some time, and in this yard he  
 completed his knowledge of the practical part of  
 naval architecture. The Red-house, on the  
 north-west side of the dock, is a large collection  
 of warehouses and storehouses for navy provi-  
 sions. At Deptford, in 1515, was first formed  
 the society of the Trinity House, by Sir Thomas  
 Spert. There are annually relieved by this com-  
 pany about 3000 poor seamen, their widows and  
 orphans, at the expense of £6000. The govern-  
 ors are invested with the power of examining  
 the mathematical classes of Christ's Hospital,  
 and the masters of his Majesty's ships; and  
 have the appointment of all pilots; erecting and  
 maintaining lighthouses, buoys, beacons, &c.  
 Their business was formerly carried on in a hall  
 in the parish of Deptford Strond; but it is now  
 conducted in a spacious building near the Tower,  
 erected in 1787. This town is four miles east of  
 London.

DEPTH, *n. s.* Belg. *diepte*; Teut. *tieff*. See  
 DEEP. The measure of deepness; hence a deep  
 place; the sea, an abyss, a quiet place, or season;  
 and, figuratively, obscurity and sagacity. The  
 plural, depths, is very frequent in the received  
 translation of the Bible.

The depths have covered them: they sank into the  
 bottom as a stone.

*Ezod. xv. 5.*

As for men, they had buildings in many places  
 higher than the depth of the water.



Thou spirit, ————— Inspire,  
As thou art wont, my prompted song, else mute,  
And bear through height or depth of Nature's bounds.

Milton.

And in the depth of winter, in the night,  
You plough the raging seas to coasts unknown.

Denham.

The false tides skim o'er the covered sand,  
And seamen with dissembled depths betray.

Dryden.

or tho', in nature, depth and height

Are equally held infinite;

In poetry the height we know,

'Tis only infinite below.

Swift.

There are greater depths and obscurities in an elaborate and well written piece of nonsense, than in the most abstruse tract of school divinity.

Addison's Whig Examiner.

It is certainly a sign of great self-ignorance, for a man to venture out of his depth, or attempt any thing he wants opportunity or capacity to accomplish.

Mason.

DEPULSION, *n. s.* } Lat. *depulsio*. A beat-  
DEPU'LSORY, *adj.* } ing or thrusting away.

DEPURE', *v. a.* }

Fr. *depurer*; from

DEPU'RATE, *v. a. & adj.* } Lat. *depurgo*; de  
DEPURATION, *n. s.* } and *purgo*. To

cleanse, purify. The verbs are synonymous, and the meaning of the derivatives is plain.

It produced plants of such imperfection and harmful quality, as the waters of the general flood could not so wash out or depure, but that the same defection hath had continuance in the very generation and nature of mankind.

Raleigh.

Brimstone is either used crude, and called sulphur vive; or is of a sadder color, and, after depuration, such as we have in magdeleons, or rolls of a lighter yellow.

Broune's Vulgar Errors.

Chemistry enabling us to depurate bodies, and in some measure to analyse them, and take asunder their heterogeneous parts, in many chemical experiments we may, better than in others, know what manner of bodies we employ.

Boyle.

Neither can any boast a knowledge depurate from the defilement of a contrary, within this atmosphere of flesh.

Glanville.

DEPUTE', *v. a.* } Fr. *deputer*; Dut. *depu-*  
DEPU'ATION, } *teren*; Span. and Port. *depu-*

DEPUTY. } *putar*; Ital. and Lat. *depu-*

*tare*; to judge or choose; hence *deputatus*, a person chosen. To send another; to empower another to transact one's business. A deputy is a person so sent, generally or specially.

And Absolom said unto him, See thy matters are good and right, but there is no man deputed of the king to hear.

2 Sam.

Presbyters, absent through infirmity from their churches, might be said to preach by those deputies, who, in their stead, did but read homilies.

Hooker.

A man hath a body, and that body is confined to a place; but where friendship is, all offices of life are, as it were, granted to him and his deputy; for he may exercise them by his friend.

Bacon.

Cut me off the heads

Of all the fav'rites that the absent king

In deputation left behind him here,

When he was personal in the Irish war.

Shakespeare.

He looks not below the moon, but hath designed the regiment of sublunary affairs into sublunary deputations.

Brown.

He exerciseth dominion over them as the vicerent and deputy of Almighty God.

Hale's Origin of Mankind.

The authority of conscience stands founded upon its vicerency and deputation under God.

South.

And Linus thus, deputed by the rest,

The heroes welcome and their thanks expressed.

Roscommon.

A bishop, by deputing a priest or chaplain to administer the sacraments, may remove him.

Ayliffe's Pastors.

DEQUANTITATE, *v. a.* from Lat. *de* and *quantitas*. To diminish the quantity of.

This we affirm of pure gold; for that which is current, and passeth in stamp amongst us, by reason of its alloy, which is a proportion of silver or copper mixed therewith, is actually dequantitated by fire, and possibly by frequent extinction.

Broune's Vulgar Errors.

DERACINATE, *v. a.* Fr. *deraciner*, from *de* and *racine*, a root, from Lat. *radix*, *radice*. To tear up by the roots.

Her fallow leas

The darnel, hemlock, and rank fumitory

Doth root upon; while that the culter rusts

That should deracinate such savagery.

Shakespeare.

DERAIGN', *v. a.* }

See ARRIGN. But

DERAIGN'MENT, or } Minsheu says from either

DERAINMENT, *n. s.* } Fr. *desarroyer* or *de-*

*ranger*, to disorder, or Norman *defrene*, 'a proove of the deniall of a man's owne fact.' To prove, or justify.

When the parson of any church is disturbed to demand tythes in the next parish by a writ of *indicare* the patron shall have a writ to demand the advowson of the tythes being in demand: and when it is *deraigned*, then shall the plea pass in the court christian, as far forth as it is *deraigned* in the king's court.

Blount.

DERANGE', *v. a.* }

Fr. *desranger*, to dis-

DERANGEMENT, *n. s.* } order. The quotation

from Blount includes a curious explanation of this word. It is of modern introduction, as to its general, but now very common, application both to disordered minds and things.

In some places the substantive *derangement* is used in the very literal signification with the French *drayer*, or *desranger*; that is, turning out of course, displacing or setting out of order; as, *derangement* of departure out of religion, and *derangement* or discharge of their profession, which is spoken of those religious men who forsook their orders and professions.

Blount.

Most nations have adopted peculiar expressions, to signify the form or degree of *derangement* of intellect. The term *derangement*, which we have taken immediately from the French, and which means out of rank, or order, is metaphorically applied to the mind, to denote that its ideas are out of the rank, or order generally preserved by intelligent beings.

Dr. Rees.

DERAY', *n. s.* Fr. *desrayer*. To turn out of the right way; 'tumult; disorder; noise; merriment;' and even 'solemnity,' says Dr. Johnson, adding, truly, 'not in use.'

DERBEND, or DERBENT, a town of Persia, said to have been founded by Alexander the Great, and once the residence of the celebrated caliph Haroun-al-Raschid. The Russians took it in the year 1722, and retained possession until



when it was restored to the Persians. As it was subdued and possessed by them. In the year 1796, the empress of Russia having declared war against the Persians, the British army entered Daghestan, at the head of the Caspian Sea; having reconnoitred Derbend, he made an assault, but the town surrendered. The best part of the town is crowned by a citadel of a triangular figure. Many of the houses used are cubes of six feet, but the streets are so narrow that cannon are mounted on the towers. The entrance to the town is by an ancient iron gate. There is a tradition in the neighbourhood that the empire of the Medians is to be overthrown by a yellow army, which shall enter by this gate. Every stranger is, therefore, permitted to enter the town, and a tax is taken of all strangers at the gate, as is mentioned. The streets of Derbend are very narrow, but the town is well supplied with water by a fine, but almost ruined, aqueduct. The inhabitants consist of various eastern tribes, and amount altogether to about 4000. There is little trade, but a great quantity of wheat is cultivated in the neighbourhood, and the gardens are fine. To the north-east there are many graves covered with flag-stones above the natural size of man; and many curious objects in the vicinity. One of these, some years ago, was found to contain undecayed bones of various animal dimensions, a battle-axe, shield, and arrows. The walls are built with stones as hard as iron; and near it are the remains of a wall reached from the Caspian to the Black Sea, seated near the Caspian Sea, at the foot of Mount Caucasus, in long 48° 60' E., lat. 40° 30' N., and is now the capital of the principality of Derbend. See below. It is on a declivity to the margin of the Caspian Sea, and is about half a mile from the west is a passage leading into the Caspian Sea, which are possessed by barbarous nomadic tribes. Derbend is considered one of the gates of Persia, and its name signifies, in Persian, a locked door. It is surrounded by high towers of considerable strength.

**DERBENT**, a principality or khanship of Derbend, bounded on the north by the river Derwent, on the south by the rivers Salian, on the east by the Caspian Sea, on the west by the district of Talasseran. It is about twenty miles in length by fifteen miles in breadth: it is mountainous and well watered. The soil is very fertile, wheat yielding twenty and thirty fold. There are also fine grapes produced, but the wine is not good. Some silk and manufactures are also carried on.

**DERBY**, or **DERRENT**, a town of European Turkey, in the province of Romania, twenty miles from Adrianople.

**DERBY**, or **DERBYSHIRE**, an inland county of England, situated nearly in the centre of the island at an almost equal distance from the north and western seas. It is bounded on the north by Yorkshire and part of Cheshire; on the east by Nottinghamshire; on the south by Leicestershire; and on the west by Staffordshire and Derbyshire. Its form is extremely irregular; but the figure to which it approaches the

nearest is that of an inverted pyramid; this, however, is extremely arbitrary, owing to its uncommon indentations and projections. It is of considerable extent, being computed to be the twentieth in point of magnitude, and the nineteenth in point of population, of all the English counties. Its greatest length, in a direction S.S.E. to N.N.W. is about fifty-six miles and a half. Its greatest breadth, from E.N.E. to W.S.W., thirty-three miles. It contains about 972 square miles, or 622,080 statute acres. Here are six hundreds, one borough, eleven market towns, and 116 parishes. This county is in the diocese of Litchfield and Coventry, and the province of Canterbury, and is included in the midland circuit.

Prior to the Roman invasion, the site of the present county belonged to the Coritani. The Romans included it in the division named Flavia Cæsariensis; but during the time of the Anglo-Saxons it belonged to the kingdom of Mercia. The word Derby, from whence comes the name of the county, is of uncertain derivation. By the Saxons it was called Northworthig, and by the Danes Deoraby. The latter is obviously the source whence its modern name, and probably that of the river Derwent, is derived; but its precise meaning cannot now be ascertained.

The eastern and western districts, into which the Derwent naturally divides this county, are materially different, both in respect to the air, the face of the country, and the soil. The climate of the eastern division is healthy, temperate, and pleasant; but in the western district the air is much keener, and the state of the weather always more changeable. The face of the country presents, if not the most agreeable and pleasing, certainly the most varied and romantic scenery of any county in England. There is the most striking difference and contrast of features between the northern and southern parts; the former abounding with hill and dale. The country gradually rises until we come to the neighbourhood of Wirksworth, and then begins to assume that picturesque and sublime appearance which it continues to possess to its extremity. That chain of hills arises, which stretching northwards is continued in a greater or less breadth quite to the borders of Scotland, and forms a natural boundary between the east and west sides of the northern part of the kingdom. Its course in this county is inclined a little to the west. It spreads as it advances northerly, and at length fills up the whole of the north-west angle; also overflowing a little, as it were, towards the eastern parts. The hills are at first of small elevation; but, being in their progress piled one upon another, they form very elevated ground in the tract called the High Peak, though without any eminences which can rank among the loftiest mountains even of this island. The most considerable in height are the Axe-edge and the Kinder-scout mountains. Mr. Farey, in his admirable and comprehensive View of the Agriculture and Minerals of this county, has given an alphabetical list of the several mountains, hills, and eminences throughout Derbyshire, or in the borders of the adjoining counties, describing their situations, the strata on the top of each,



&c. These amount to upwards of 700 in number. This intelligent and truly scientific writer has also enumerated upwards of fifty of the principal narrow and rocky valleys or defiles with precipitous cliffs in and near to this county, describing their situations, the strata exhibited in their sides and bottoms, and the names of the most noted rocks, caverns, &c., in each. These lists are uncommonly curious and interesting. The High Peak is not, as many suppose, a high barren rock, but an extensive range of rather elevated ground, called the Peak Hundred. It is cultivated and populous.

The principal rivers of Derbyshire, beside the Derwent, are the Trent, the Dove, the Wye, the Errewash, and the Rother. The Derwent rises in the High Peak district, and leaves this county on the Leicestershire border near Wilne. The Trent enters the county from Staffordshire, a little south of Calton, and leaves it near Barton, on the confines of Leicestershire. The Dove rises a little south of Buxton, and, joining the Trent near Burton in Staffordshire, finally quits the county. The Wye, rising in the vicinity of Buxton, never leaves the county, but falls into the Derwent a few miles below Bakewell. The Errewash rises in the coal district near Alfreton, and falls into the Trent a few miles below its junction with the Derwent. The Rother rises near Chesterfield, and enters Yorkshire between Kilmarsh and Beighton. These rivers are well stocked with almost every kind of fresh-water fish. The Dove and the Trent have been long celebrated by Cotton, and still more by his invaluable friend, the pleasing and honest Isaac Walton, in his admirable book on angling. Nor has the Derwent received less honor from the pens of Darwin and Seward. This county is benefited by an extensive inland navigation. The principal canals are the following: the Grand Trunk from the Trent near Wilden-Ferry to the river Mersey near Runcorn-Gap. It was planned by the ingenious Mr. Brindley, and was begun on July 17th, 1766, and finished in May 1777. The Chesterfield Canal, another of Mr. Brindley's projects, extends from Chesterfield to the river Trent, at which it arrives a little below Gainsborough: its whole length being about forty-six miles. Langley Bridge, or Errewash Canal, extends from Langley Bridge to the Trent, opposite to the entrance of the Soar. Its length is about eleven miles. The Peak Forest Canal was completed in the year 1800. It extends about fifteen miles in length, besides a railway of six miles, from the Ashton-under-line Canal, near Duckensfield Bridge, to the basin and limekilns at Chapel-Milton. The railway, passing Chapel-en-le-Frith, leads to Loads-knowl limestone quarries in the Peak. Cromford Canal begins at Cromford, near Matlock, and joins the Errewash Canal at Langley Bridge: its length is about fourteen miles. Ashby-de-la-Zouch Canal, about fifty miles in length, joins the Coventry Canal at Marston Bridge, about two miles to the south of Nuneaton, and ends at Ashby-de-la-Zouch in Leicestershire. The Derby Canal commences in the Trent, at Swarkestone Bridge; and, crossing the Trent and Mersey Canal, terminates at Little Eaton, about three miles north

of Derby. The length of this branch is eight miles and a half, with a rise of about nine feet. There is a railway branch of miles and a half to the Smithy Houses and thence to the collieries near Derby. Another branch of this canal begins at Derby, and holds an easterly direction nearly parallel to the road leading to Nottingham, and finally joins the Errewash Canal between Long Eaton and Sandiacre: its length is eight miles and a half. This canal is four feet wide at top, twenty-four at bottom, and five deep in the ebbest part.

There is an almost endless variety of soils in this county. In the northern parts very extensive peat-bogs exist. The soil in these consists chiefly of ligneous particles, the roots of decayed vegetables mixed with siliceous earth or sand, and a coaly substance derived from decayed vegetable matter. The surface presents nothing but the barren black thin covering of heath or ling. But in some parts of the Peak there is to be found what the inhabitants call a corn-loam, apparently consisting of a virgin earth impregnated with lime. This soil is good; but the parts where it is found are counterbalanced by vast tracts of barren and mountains, whose sides present very different soil, being chiefly composed of rocks. In some parts of Derbyshire near the borders of Cheshire and Staffordshire these barren rocks are high, bleak, and numerous. Indeed so rugged is almost all the road between Chesterfield in Cheshire and Buxton in this county that it has been quaintly remarked to be—

Up hill to Buxton all the way,  
And up hill all way back.

When the mountain is formed of the lime-stone soil, though scanty, is productive of the best grasses, which form good pasturage for cattle. On that part which is called the East Moor serves the Rev. D. P. Davies, a late writer on the history, &c., of this county, scarcely any vegetation; not a dale or a vale which seems to have received the cultivation of man, or the fostering smile of the sun. The most common soil in the southern parts is reddish clay or marl. This soil is also found to prevail through the middle part of the extensive tract of limestone which lies on the north side of the county, and consists of much siliceous earth, which readily effervesces with acid. Some parts of the southern district are sparsely covered with small beds of sand or gravel. A large tract of country producing coal is covered with a clay of different colors; black, gray, and especially yellow. This kind of soil is found in some parts where the gritstone lies with; but there it is frequently of a black and bituminous quality. That on the north side of the county, where the limestone prevails, is of a brown color and loose texture. The banks of the rivers and in the valleys are different from that of the adjacent parts, and evidently have been altered by the depositions of frequent inundations. It is extremely difficult to compress the great mass of information collected by Mr. Farey and others have collected relative to the soils of this county. Mr. Farey's map, however, contains a delineation of the



soils of this and the adjoining one. Those which belong to this are the following:—A very extensive tract, from Morley south, along the borders of Nottinghamshire, to the extreme boundaries of the county on the edge of Yorkshire north, consists of numerous strata of bind, clunch, shale, and other argillaceous strata, enclosing and separating seams of coal and coaly impressions of vegetables. These strata, on exposure to the air, rain, and frosts, perish and fall to different kinds of clay or loam.

The very extensive coal district, branching out of Derbyshire, north and south, into Yorkshire and a small part of Nottinghamshire, has been suitably denominated the Derbyshire and Yorkshire Coal Field. Mr. Farey, with his usual attention to interesting detail, has given an alphabetical list of about 500 collieries which are, or have been, worked in Derbyshire and in the bordering parts of the seven adjacent counties. Of these it appears nearly one-half are in Derbyshire.—The gravel of which these coal districts are chiefly composed, produces a clayey soil, which is indiscriminately strewed over the county, but chiefly in patches about Derby and parts bordering on Staffordshire. These patches of sand are again intermixed with other patches of red marl strata, occupying the largest portion of the southern districts. The yellow limestone strata are to be found chiefly, if not entirely, in some few parts bordering on Nottinghamshire, a little above and below Bolsover, in this county. It occupies nearly 21,600 acres. The coal measures, or strata, already mentioned, occupy altogether 190,000 acres. The gritstone and shale strata occupy, with the exceptions yet to be mentioned, a tract of land about 160,500 acres, extending rather diagonally from Duffield south to the borders of Lancashire north; and in breadth in the widest part, from about Chapel-le-Frith to near Dove on the borders of Yorkshire. The mineral limestone and toadstone strata occupy an unshapen mass of land, extending from Wirksworth to Castleton, being about 51,500 acres. Along the same tract of country, but more to the Staffordshire side, is also a limestone stratum, making a surface of about 40,500 acres. This limestone appears to have undergone an amazing degree of shrinking; and hence there are vast shake-holes and caverns, some of them of a tremendous and frightful depth, in various parts. These natural caverns are in number about twenty-seven. It will be proper to enumerate one or two of them in this place.

Bagshaw's Cavern, or the Crystallised Cavern, in Mule-Spinner Mine, is a little south-west of Bradwell, and is 400 yards in length. Elden Hole, surrounded with a stone wall, a little north of Peak Forest Town, is a very deep hole, connecting with a vast lateral cavern below. The opening or chasm in the rock is about five yards long and three broad. The top of it is somewhat higher than the surface of the earth, with a very jagged and uneven mouth, opening into a chasm, steep, black, and full of horror. This chasm has more than once been descended. It was formerly represented as altogether unfathomable, and, according to a certain depth, with such

noxious air, that no animal could respire it without inevitable destruction. Cotton affirmed, more than a century ago, that he let down 884 yards of line, of which the last eighty yards were wet, without finding a bottom; and it has been confidently asserted, that a poor man, who was once lowered in a basket to the depth of 200 yards, on being drawn up died in a state of delirium. We cannot give a better description of the actual depth and dimensions of this singular cavern, than the following of Mr. Lloyd's, as contained in vol. xiii. of the Philosophical Transactions Abridged. Mr. Lloyd having seen several accounts of the unfathomable depth of Elden Hole, in Derbyshire, and being in that neighbourhood, he was inclined to make some enquiries about that noted place, of the adjoining inhabitants; who informed him that about fourteen or fifteen years before, the owner of the pasture in which this chasm is situated, having lost several cattle, had agreed with two men to fill it up; but finding no visible effects of their labor, after having spent some days in throwing down many loads of stones, they ventured to be let down into it, to see if their undertaking was practicable; when, on finding at the bottom a vast large cavern, they desisted from their work, as it would have been almost impossible to have procured a sufficient quantity of stones to have filled it up. On enquiry of one of these men whether there were any dams at the bottom, and being assured in the negative, Mr. L. procured two ropes of forty fathoms nearly in length, and eight men to let him down.

For the first twenty yards Mr. L. was let down, he could assist himself with his hands and feet, as it was a kind of confined slope; but after that the rock jettied out into large irregular pieces, on all the three sides next him; and on that account he met with some difficulty in passing, for about the space of ten yards more; at which depth the rope was moved at least five or six yards from the perpendicular. Thence down, the breadth was about three yards, and the length at least five or six, through craggy irregular slits of rock, which were rather dirty, and covered with a kind of moss, and pretty wet, till he came within about twelve or fourteen yards of the bottom, and then the rock opened on the east side, and he swung till he descended to the floor of the cave, where he perceived there was light enough came from the mouth of the pit, though at the distance of sixty-two perpendicular yards, to read any print. When at the bottom, he perceived that the cavern consisted of two parts; the first being a cave, in shape not much unlike that of an oven; and the latter, a vast dome of the form of the inside of a glass-house; with a small arched passage from the one to the other, through which a slope of loose stones, that have been thrown in from time to time, extends from the wall at the west side of the first dome, to almost the bottom of the second cave or dome, with such an angle, that the farther end of the cave is lower by twenty-five yards than the place where he first landed. The diameter of this cavern may be nearly fifty yards: the top he could not trace with the eye; but he had reason



to believe it extended to a vast height; for when nearly at the top of one of the incrustated rocks, at the height of about twenty yards, he could find no closure of the dome, though he then saw much farther than when he stood at the bottom.

The curiosities to be met with in the small cavern are not worth mentioning; indeed he did not meet there with any stalactitical incrustations whatever; but the wall consisted of rude and irregular fragments of rock. But among the singularities in the second cavern, he observed the following; climbing up a few loose stones on the south side, he descended again through a small slit into a little cave, four yards long and irregular, as to height not exceeding two yards; and the whole lined with a kind of sparkling stalactites, of a fine deep yellow color, with some small stalactitical drops hanging from the roof. Facing the first entrance is a most noble column, of the same kind of incrustation, above thirty yards high: and, proceeding on to the north, he came to a large stone, covered with the like matter; and under it was a hole two yards deep, lined with the same; whence sprung a rock consisting of vast solid round masses, like the former in color, though not in figure, on which he easily ascended to the height of twenty yards, and got some fine pieces of stalactites, pendent from the cragged sides which joined this rock.

After this, proceeding forward, he came to another pile of incrustations, different from the two former, and much rougher; and which was not tinged with such a yellow, but rather with a brown color; and at the top of this also is a small cavern, into which he went. The last thing he took notice of was the vast drops of stalactites, hanging like icicles from every part of the vault; some of which were as large as a man's body, and at least four or five feet long. The greatest part of the walls of the large cavern was lined with incrustations, and they were of three kinds: the first being the deep yellow stalactites; the second being a thin coating, like a kind of light stone-colored varnish on the surface of the limestone, and which glittered exceedingly by the light of the candles; and the third being a sort of rough efflorescence, every minute shoot resembling a kind of rose-flower. Having satisfied his curiosity with a view of this astonishing vault, he began to return. Fastening the rope to his body, he gave the signal to be drawn up; which he found to be a much more difficult and dangerous task than the descent, owing to his weight drawing the rope into clefts, between the fragments of the rock, which made it stick; and to his body jarring against the sides, which he could not possibly prevent with his hands. Another circumstance also increased the danger, which was, the rope loosening the stones over head, whose fall he every instant dreaded.

After writing the above, Mr. L. was informed there was formerly the mouth of a second shaft in the floor of the great cavern, somewhere under the great heap of stones; and that it was covered up by the miners, at the time when so many loads were thrown in from the top. It is reported to have gone down a vast depth farther, and to have had water at the bottom; but he did not perceive any remaining appearance of such

opening himself, nor did the miners, who down with him, say any thing about it.

Golconda is also a very large cavern at Hopton. Poole's Hole, about half a mile of Buxton, is a very long cavern. The entrance is extremely narrow; but at the end of twenty or thirty yards a spacious and lofty cavern opens, from the roof and sides of water, continually dropping, congeals in pillars and masses on the floor. Further cavern is a large suspended icicle or stalactite denominated The Flitch of Bacon. Beyond the cavern again becomes contracted; little further on it again expands, into a height and width, and continues so till what is called Mary Queen of Scots' name given to a large massy column of stalactites, on account of its having been visited that much injured princess during her confinement at Buxton, when she wrote on a pane of the hall:

Buxton, whose fame thy baths shall ever  
Which I, perhaps, shall see no more, far

The cavern extends beyond this pillar about 669 yards. Peak's Hole, near Castleton, is a remarkable cavern, in which are several or springs of water. Besides these hot caverns there are numerous water-shallows, in the rocks, into which streams of water disappear: in all about twenty.

Both Mr. Lloyd and the traditions in the neighbourhood, mention the appearance of water at the bottom of the several shafts. It has been conjectured that this is the continuation of a subterranean river; indeed of that very river which runs out of the mouth of the cavern at Castleton.

Among the wonders of the Peak is The Weeden's Well, constituting one of the springs which ebb and flow like the sea. That the ebb and flow is certain; but it is at very irregular periods, sometimes not in a day or two, sometimes twice in an hour. The basin of the spring is about a yard deep, and the length and breadth. When it flows, the water rises with a bubbling noise, as if the air was pent up within the cavities of the rock, forcing itself a passage, and driving the water before it. It is occasionally used as a rest for the sick.

But the great medicinal wonder of the Peak is Buxton Wells, the waters of which, for their medicinal use, have this singularity, that within five feet of one of the hot springs there arises a cold one; as, indeed, in many other places in England, and other countries. These springs possess a less degree of heat than those at Bath. The water is sulphureous, with a small quantity of saline particles, but is not in the least impregnated with a sulphuric acid, hence they are very palatable in comparison with other medicinal waters. See Buxton. Mr. Pennant observes, with his usual elegance, 'With joy and gratitude I this moment collect with rapture the return of spirit, flight of pain, and the re-animation of my long crippled rheumatic limbs.' About



h-east of Buxton, in one of the most situations of the whole kingdom, is

Here too is a medicinal bath of great warm springs of which were first dis-  
bought the year 1698. Near this place  
petrifying spring; and the whole sur-  
country is uncommonly interesting and

In many respects Matlock, as a wa-  
ce, is preferable to Buxton. Here are  
noise, and dissipation.

dwelt at some length on the soil, &c.,  
nty, there is less occasion and still less  
detail its other natural productions.  
ely consist of lead, antimony, mill-  
nd-stones, marble, alabaster, alum, pit-  
iron, which constitute, of course the  
s of its trade. In addition, there are  
cotton mills at Derby and Ashbourne;  
le marble works at Ashford; and consi-  
oolen manufactories in various parts.  
so made in this county in considerable

It sends to parliament two members  
nty, and two for the town of Derby.  
is a singular custom in this county of  
the churches on the anniversary of the  
of the church, or on midsummer eve,  
st. The ancient custom of hanging  
ds of roses in the churches, with a pair  
cut out of white paper, which had been  
fore the corpses of unmarried women  
erals, also prevails in the neighbour-  
he Peak; and the county wakes are  
observed on the Sunday following the  
e dedication of the church or chapel,  
saint's day after whom it is named.  
ircles, tumuli of earth and stones,  
ones, rock-basins, and rude military  
test the ancient British customs. The  
Roman remains are, an altar preserved  
n-Hall; some inscribed pigs of lead  
ferred to the British Museum; and  
plate found in Risley-Park. Several  
ads passed through the county; and  
ay be traced in several places.

hard Arkwright, Brindley, Samuel Ri-  
Anthony Blackwall, Flamsteed the  
r royal, and bishop Halifax, are among  
bies it has produced. The gentlemen's  
ugh not numerous, are nowhere ex-  
individual splendor and romantic si-  
See CHATSWORTH.

, the county town of Derbyshire, is  
the Derwent, over which it has a hand-  
e bridge. A small brook runs through  
nine stone bridges. It is large, popu-  
well built; containing five churches, of

Saints is the chief, the tower of which  
t in height, the upper part being richly  
ed. The interior is particularly light,  
nd spacious. The roof is supported by  
ns on each side; the windows are  
handsome, and the symmetry and pro-  
of the whole building have a very pleasing  
ancient writings this church is called  
ws, which name it still retains among  
on people. It was originally a free  
chapel, and besides the master or rec-  
was the dean of Lincoln, had seven  
ries. The county hall, county gaol, infir-

mary, an elegant assembly room, and a theatre,  
are the other principal buildings. The county  
hall is a handsome stone building, erected in the  
year 1730. In 1734 a machine was erected here  
by Sir Thomas Lombe, for the manufacturing of  
silk, the model of which he brought from Italy at  
the risk of his life. It was the first of its kind  
erected in England; and its operations are to  
wind, double, and twist the silk, so as to render it  
fit for weaving. It has employed many hands in  
the town. When Sir Thomas's patent expired,  
in 1732, parliament was so sensible of the value  
and importance of the machine that they granted  
him a further recompense of £14,000, for the  
hazard and expense he had incurred in intro-  
ducing and erecting it, upon condition that he  
should allow an exact model of it to be taken.  
This model is deposited in the Tower of London.  
Derby has a considerable manufactory of silk,  
cotton, and fine worsted stockings; and a fab-  
ric of porcelain equal, if not superior, in quality  
to any in the kingdom. Several hands are em-  
ployed in the lapidary and jewellery branches;  
and the work of this kind, executed here, is in  
high estimation. Derbyshire spar and marble,  
as well as foreign marble, are also wrought here  
into various ornamental articles. The malting  
trade is extensively carried on in this town. It  
is governed by a mayor, nine aldermen, &c. The  
aldermen are appointed for life, unless removed  
for ill behaviour. The recorder is chosen by the  
corporation, who can remove him at pleasure.  
The common-clerk is coroner and clerk of the  
peace, and is likewise chosen by the corporation;  
but both these officers must be approved of by  
his majesty. This town sends two members to  
parliament, who are elected by the corporation,  
freemen, and sworn burgesses; the mayor is the  
returning officer. A court of record is held here  
every second Tuesday, besides the quarter ses-  
sions, and a half-yearly court-leet.

The Derby General Infirmary is an excellent  
institution, situated near the London road, in a  
healthful, airy, and dry situation, abounding with  
good water. The building is constructed of a  
beautiful hard white stone, of a handsome, yet  
simple elevation, of three stories, containing a light  
central hall, with a double stair-case. Here the  
iron dome, the wide stone gallery, and the very  
large stone stair-case resting upon the perforated  
floor of the hall, which covers part of the base-  
ment story, excite admiration from their well  
known strength and solidity. This infirmary pos-  
sesses a degree of perfection unknown to similar  
establishments; for instance, in the construction  
of two light and spacious rooms, one for each  
sex, called day, or convalescent rooms, where  
persons recovering, instead of being confined to  
the same room day and night, as has been the  
usual practice, may eat their meals and pass the  
day. Here is also a fever house, where relief is  
administered, in case of infectious diseases. The  
entrance to this is directly oppositè to the front,  
and has no internal connexion with the infirmary.  
Besides the convalescent rooms, and the fever  
house, superior accommodations are provided for  
patients laboring under acute diseases in general;  
these consist of four small wards, containing one,  
two, three, and four beds respectively, with a



water-closet, nurse's bed-room, and scullery. This arrangement enables the medical men to separate the diseases from each other, as may best suit their natures; and the wards being parted off from the body of the house by folding doors, silence is obtained, and too much light excluded (essential in some cases), rendering this part of the establishment more convenient, perhaps, on the whole than many private houses. Another contrivance is, that ventilation shall be copious, and the warmth regulated at pleasure: and with respect to water-closets, to prevent the draft from the house being reversed, a mode of construction has been invented which does away every objection. A small steam engine is used to pump water, wash, &c. A statue of Esculapius, indicating the object of this useful institution, is placed upon the centre of the dome. The building is calculated to hold upwards of 100 patients. Three physicians, four surgeons, and a house apothecary, have been appointed to the institution since it was opened for relief of in and out patients in June 1810.

The ordnance depot is situated near the infirmary, and was erected, according to a plan of Mr. Wyatt's, in 1805. It consists of an armory in the centre, calculated to contain 15,000 stand of arms. Above this is a room of the same proportions, containing accoutrements for the use of the army. On the north and south sides are two magazines, capable of containing 1200 barrels of ammunition. Four dwellings are situated in the angles of the exterior wall; two of which are barracks, and the other two are the residences of officers in the civil department.

Derby, as the centre of the literature of the county, and the scene of many of its improvements, has given birth to, and still boasts, many excellent literary institutions and libraries. The Derby Philosophical Society, the object of which is, the promotion of scientific knowledge by occasional meetings and conversation, and by the circulation of books, was founded by Dr. Darwin, who spent the last twenty years of his life in this neighbourhood. The first meeting, in the year 1788, was at Dr. Darwin's house; and he retained the chair of this society till his decease. It boasts a considerable number of members, and is in possession of an extensive and valuable library.

Another flourishing institution made its appearance here in the year 1808, under the title of the Derby Literary and Philosophical Society. The objects of this association are, 'the pursuit of literary and scientific enquiries, and the improvement of its members in the power of gaining and of communicating knowledge.' The means by which these objects are attempted to be accomplished are the production and discussion of papers, or essays, which may be written on any subject connected with literature or science, excluding only the practical departments of medicine and surgery, party politics and religion. It is a fundamental law of this society, that each member shall furnish an essay in his turn, and no instance has hitherto occurred in which this rule has been violated. The meetings are held monthly from September to April inclusively, one paper being read, and another

discussed, on each evening. These are the principal institutions, but there are eight or ten others in the town, and one exclusively devoted to the cultivation of French literature. Derby has a market on Wednesday and Friday. It is situated in a fine plain, opening as it advances southward into a beautiful and highly cultivated country. It is thirty-six miles north of Coventry, and 126 north-west by west of London.

DERBY, a town of the United States, in Orleans county, Vermont, on the north line of the state, and on the east shore of lake Memphr-magog.

DERBY, a town of New Haven county, Connecticut, on the point of land formed by the confluence of Naugatuck and Housatonic rivers. This town was settled in 1665, under New Haven jurisdiction, and has an academy.

DERBY, a town of Pennsylvania, in Chester county, seven miles from Chester, and five from Philadelphia. It is situated on Derby Creek, which falls into Delaware River, near Chester.

DERBY, WEST, a township of England, in the county of Lancaster, four miles from Liverpool, and containing about 3000 inhabitants.

To DERE, *v. a.* Sax. *deþuan*. To last. See DARE. Obsolete.

So from immortal race he does proceed,  
That mortal hands may not withstand his might  
Dred for his derring doe, and bloody deed;  
For all in blood and spoil is his delight.

*Færie Que.*

DEREHAM, or MARKET DEREHAM, a market town of Norfolk, sixteen miles north from Norwich, and 100½ N.N.E. from London. This is a clean and well paved place, and stands on a small rivulet which supplies it with water. The church is a very ancient structure, and the steeple is open to the body like that of a cathedral: it contains four chapels, one of which, St. Edmunds, contains an antique chest, taken out of the ruins of Beckenham Castle, in which are deposited the records of the church. The first erected in 1468, is a fine specimen of ancient sculpture, being richly carved. In the churchyard stands a square tower containing a peal of bells. In this church the poet Cowper was buried in 1800. Here are also three respectable meeting-houses. This town has sustained considerable damage by fires; first in the year 1581 when nearly the whole town was destroyed; and again in 1679. The market is on Friday, and is stocked with provisions, and the greatest market in the county.

DERELICT, *n. s. & adj.* } Lat. *derelictus*

DERELICTION, *n. s.* } *de* and *relinquo*, to leave. Terms first applied to property voluntarily relinquished or forsaken: but to any other abandonment or forsaking; to emptiness; and figuratively to the mind.

There is no other thing to be looked for, but effects of God's most just displeasure, the withdrawal of grace, *dereliction* in this world, and in the world to come confusion. *Hosk.*

*Derelict* lands, suddenly left by the sea, belong to the king: but if the sea shrink back so slowly, the gain be by little and little, it shall go to the owner of the lands adjoining.

2 *Comm.* 261, quoted by Jacob



y prevailed, so as to seize upon the most rapied, and derelict minds of his [lord friends. *Burke.*

rs imply, also, such lands as the sea, from them, leaves dry and fit for cul- if they are left by a gradual recess of y are adjudged to belong to the owner ining lands; but when an island is he sea, or a large quantity of new rs, such derelict lands belong to the

M (Dr. William), a celebrated Eng- born in 1657. In 1682 he was pre- vicarage of Wargrave in Berkshire, 89, to the rectory of Upminster, plying himself with great eagerness nd experimental philosophy, he soon istinguished member of the Royal ose Philosophical Transactions con- it variety of curious and valuable ruits of his industry. In his younger ublished his Artificial Clock-maker, een often reprinted: and in 1711, 12, delivered the Boyle's Lectures, which ds digested under the well-known ysico-Theology and Astro-Theology; ce of the being of a God from a the Works of Creation and of the he next published Christo-Theology, ation of the divine authority of the eligion. He died at Upminster in ft a valuable collection of curiosities, specimens of English birds and

E, v. a. } Ital. and Lat. *deridere*,  
n. s. } from *de* and *rideo*. To  
s, } laugh; to mock with laugh-  
t, adj. } ter; to scorn. Derivative  
r. } and derisive seem syno-  
natives.

ision daily; every one mocketh me.

*Jer. xx. 7.*

ilful violation of oaths, execrable blas- like contempts offered by *deriders* of rel- tokens of divine revenge have been ow.

*Hooker.*

of the righteous cannot be so much de- success is magnified.

*Bishop Hall. Contemplations.*

assaulted, overcome; led bound, ision, captive, poor, and blind, m thrust.

*Milton.*

be the portion of those who have de- ord, and made a mock of every thing and religious?

*Tillotson.*

s dome they quaff, they feast;

s were spread from guest to guest,

ovial mood his mate addressed. *Pope.*

eved with the scorn and *derision* of the us was the blessed Jesus despised and m.

*Rogers.*

adore Newton for his fluxions, *deride* ligion.

*Berkley.*

at expectation, when her wings are once sily reaches heights which performance tain; and when she has mounted the fection, *derides* her follower, who dies in

*Johnson. Plan of Dictionary.*

DERIVE, v. a. & v. n.

DERIV'ABLE, adj.

DERIV'ATION, n. s.

DERIV'ATIVE, n. s. & adj.

DERIV'ATIVELY, adv.

DERIV'ER, n. s.

Fren. *derivér*;

Span. and Port. *derivar*;

Ital. and *derivare*;

Lat. *derivare*, to

draw water, from

*de* and *rivus*; Heb.

יִרְיָ, a stream. Hence to draw or trace from a source; and as a neuter verb to come from; to owe origin to. Derivable is traceable, to or from; hence deducible in argument. Derivation, literally, a drainage of water, and a drawing out, or displaying words or ideas from their original sources; the drawing out a peccant humor of the body; and the thing drawn out, or derived. Derivative is used as a substantive in this last sense.

Though not in word nor deed ill meriting,  
Is from her knight divorced in despayre,  
And her dew loves *derys'd* to that vile witchers snayre.  
*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

Christ having Adam's nature as we have, but in- corrupt, *deriveth* not nature, but incorruption, and that immediately from his own person, unto all that belong unto him. *Hooker.*

I am, my lord, as well *derived* as he,  
As well possess. *Shakspeare.*

For honour,  
'Tis a *derivative* from me to mine,  
And only that I stand for. *Id.*

The streams of the publick justice were *derived* into every part of the kingdom. *Davies.*

By which I knew the time,  
Now full, that I no more should live obscure;  
But openly begin, as best becomes  
The authority which I *derived* from Heaven. *Milton.*

As it is a *derivative* perfection, so it is a distinct kind of perfection from that which is in God. *Hale.*

They endeavour to *derice* the varieties of colors from the various proportion of the direct progress or motion of these globules to their circumvolution, or motion about their own centre. *Boyle.*

The word *Honestus* originally and strictly signifies no more than creditable, and is but a *derivative* from Honor, which signifies credit or honour. *South.*

Such a one makes a man not only a partaker o other men's sins, but also a *dericer* of the whole intire guilt of them to himself. *Id.*

Men *derive* their ideas of duration from their reflec- tion on the train of ideas they observe to succeed one another in their own understandings. *Locke.*

Most of them are the genuine *derivations* of the hypothesis they claim to. *Glanville.*

Among other *derivatives* I have been careful to insert and elucidate the anomalous plurals of nouns and preterites of verbs.

*Johnson. Preface to Dictionary.*

Here is the fountain of truth, why do you follow the streams *derived* from it by the sophistry, or pol- luted by the passions of man? *Bishop Watson.*

The mind that is immortal—it *derives*  
No colour from the fleeting things without;  
But is absorbed in sufferance or in joy,  
Born from the knowledge of its own desert.

*Byron.*

DERNIE'R, adj. Last. Is a French word used only in the following phrase.



In the Imperial Chamber, the term for the prosecution of an appeal is not circumscribed by the term of one or two years, as the law elsewhere requires in the empire; this being the *dernier* resort. *Ayliffe*.

The court of *dernier* resort is the peerage of England. *Franklin*.

**DERMESTES**, in zoology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of coleoptera. The antennæ are clavated, with three of the joints thicker than the rest; the breast is convex; and the head is inflected below the breast. Many varieties of this genus, as well as their larvae, are to be met with in dried skins, bark of trees, wood, seeds, flowers, the carcasses of dead animals, &c. There are eighty-seven species, of which the following are the most remarkable: *D. domesticus* varies greatly in size and color, some being found of a dark brown, others of a much lighter hue. The form of it is oblong, almost cylindrical. The elytra are striated, the thorax is thick and rather gibbous. This little animal, when touched, draws in its head under its thorax, and its feet beneath its abdomen, remaining so motionless that one would think it dead. This is the insect which makes in wooden furniture those little round holes that reduce it to powder. *D. ferrugineus* is the largest of the genus; its color is a rusty iron, having many oblong, velvet black spots upon the elytra, which give the insect a gloomy, yet elegant appearance. *D. lardarius*, of an oblong form and of a dim black color, easily distinguishable by a light brown stripe that occupies transversely almost the anterior half of the elytra. That color depends on small gray hairs situated on that part. The stripe is irregular at its edges, and intersected through the middle by a small transversal streak of black spots, three in number, on each of the elytra, the middlemost of which is somewhat lower than the rest, which gives the black streak a serpentine form. Its larva, which is oblong, somewhat hairy, and divided into segments alternately dark and light colored, gnaws and destroys preparations of animals preserved in collections, and even feeds upon the insects; it is also to be found in old bacon. This species may be destroyed by arsenic. *D. violaceus*, a beautiful little insect: its elytra are of a deep violet blue. The thorax is covered with greenish hairs, the legs are black. The whole animal's being of a glittering brilliancy renders it a pleasing object. The larva, as well as the perfect insect, inhabits the bodies of dead animals.

**DERMODY** (Thomas), an English poet, was born in the south of Ireland in 1775. His father was a schoolmaster at Ennis, and employed him, when only nine years old, in teaching the Latin and Greek languages. He, however, ran away from home at an early age, and enlisted as a common soldier. Having obtained the notice of the present marquis of Hastings, that nobleman procured him a commission; but his conduct was most dissipated, and rendered all efforts to serve him abortive. A volume of his poems appeared in 1800; and another was published in 1802, in which year he died, at Sydenham in Kent, of disease brought on by his vices. His pieces have since been collected and published by Mr. Raymond.

**DEROGATE**, *v. a., v. n. & adj.* } *ger,*  
**DEROGATELY**, *adv.* } *and*  
**DEROGATION**, *n. s.* } *dero*  
**DEROGATIVE**, *adj.* } *and*  
**DEROGATORY**, *adj.* } *der*  
**DEROGATORILY**, *adv.*

from *de* and *rogo*, to demand. To act to diminish the legal force of a prior act, custom; hence to disparage generally: as neuter verb, to detract; lessen reputation; to rate. The adjective means degenerated, graded. Derogative and derogatory detractious; dishonorable.

So surely he is a very brave man, neither any thing which I speak to his derogation; for I said he is a mingled people, it is no disparagement. *Spenser in h*

We should be injurious to virtue itself, if we derogate from them whom their industry has made great.

Is there no derogation in it?

—You cannot derogate, my lord.

*Shak*

Into her womb convey sterility;

Dry up in her the organs of increase,

And from her *derogate* body never spring

A babe to honour her. *Id. King*

The wisest princes need not think it any tention to their greatness, or derogation to the ciency, to rely upon counsel.

By several contrary customs and styles us many of those civil and canon laws are co and derogated.

That spirits are corporeal, seems to me a derogative to himself, and such as he should labour to overthrow; yet thereby he establishes doctrine of lustrations, amulets, and charms.

*Broun's Vulgar*

That which enjoins the deed is certain law; and it is also certain, that the scripture allows of the will, is neither the derogation u ation of that law.

These deputed beings are derogatory from dom and power of the Author of Nature, wh less can govern this machine he could create, direct and easy methods than employing th servient divinities.

None of these patriots will think it a s from their merit to have it said, that they many lights and advantages from their intim my lord Somers.

**DEROGATORY CLAUSE**, in a testament, tain sentence, cipher, or secret character the testator inserts in his will, and of v reserves the knowledge to himself alone, a condition, that no will he may make l is to be reckoned valid, if this derogator is not inserted expressly and word for w is a precaution invented by lawyers again wills extorted by violence or obtained gestion.

**DERRY**, a township of the United S Dauphin county, Pennsylvania, situated east side of Swatara Creek, two miles s confluence with the Susquehannah, at brated for its curious cave. Its ent under a high bank, nearly twenty feet w about eight or ten feet in height. It gradually nearly to a level with the cre



s are numerous, of different sizes, and with stalactites curiously diversified in color.

IS, *n. s.* Fr. *dervis*, from Per. *derwish*. See article below. A priest or monk among

there, where Christ vouchsafed to teach, *derwishes* dare an impostor preach. *Sandys.*

is at first made some scruple of violating to the dying brachman; but told him, at he could conceal nothing from so excellent *Spectator.*

s, or DERVICH, a name given to a sort among the Turks, who lead a very e, and profess extreme poverty; though allowed to marry. The word originally a beggar, or a person who has nothing; use the religious, and particularly the of Mevelava, profess not to possess, they call both the religious in general, Mevelavites in particular, dervishes.

in Egypt several kinds: those that are ts are a kind of religious order and live hough there are of these some who l return again to their convents. Some character, and yet live with their fami-exercise their trades: of this kind are ng dervishes at Damascus, who go once a week to a little uninhabited convent, rm their extraordinary exercises. There l sort of them who travel about the ind beg, or rather oblige people to give, ever they sound their horn something given them. The people of these i Egypt, wear an octagonal badge, of a white alabaster, at their girdles, and a cap without any thing round it. The in Persia, are called abdals, servants

See ABDALS. The dervishes called tes are a Mahomedan order of religi-chief or founder of which was one Mevehey are very numerous. Their chief y is that near Cogni in Natolia, where al makes his residence, and where all bles of the order are held; the other ing all dependent on this, by a privi- to this monastery under Ottoman I. vishes affect humility and charity. They o bare-legged and open-breasted, and o burn themselves with hot irons, to selves to patience.\* They always fast esdays, eating nothing on those days sun-set. Tuesdays and Fridays they tings, at which the superior presides. hem plays all the while on a flute, and dance, turning their bodies round and th the greatest swiftness imaginable. tice they observe with great strictness, y, it is said, of Mevelava their patriarch araculously round for the space of four out any food or refreshment, his com-ansa playing on the flute; after which nto an ecstasy, and therein received s for the establishment of his order. ere the flute an instrument consecrated and the shepherds of the Old Testa-ause they sang the praises of God upon profess poverty, chastity, and obedi-  
L. VII.

ence; but if they choose to go out and marry, they are always allowed. The generality of dervishes are mountebanks: some apply themselves to legerdemain, postures, &c., to amuse the people; others pretend to sorcery and magic: but all of them, contrary to Mahomet's precept, are said to drink wine, brandy, and other strong liquors, to give them the degree of gaiety their order requires. The dervishes are great travellers; and, under pretence of preaching, and propagating their faith, are continually passing from one place to another: on which account they have been frequently used as spies. See MAHOMET AND KORAN.

DERWENT, a rapid river of the county of Cumberland, rising in Borrowdale, from whence it emerges to form a lake. It receives the Cocker at Cockermouth, after which it falls into the Irish sea at Workington.

DERWENT, a second river of England, which runs into the Ouse, five miles south-east of Selby, in the county of York. 3. A river of England, which rises in Northumberland, and flows into the Tyne, about three miles above Newcastle. 4. A river of England which rises in the northern part of the county of Derby, and is formed of several streams, one of which issues from the cavern of Castleton. It forms one of the principal ornaments of the magnificent seat of Chatsworth and afterwards falls into the Trent, eight miles E. S. E. of Derby.

DERWENT FELS; a chain of mountains in Cumberland, reckoned among the loftiest in England. One of them is celebrated for its mines of black lead, from which, for its superior quality, great part of Europe and America are supplied. In travelling through the valley of Borrowdale, amongst these mountains, they exhibit to the admirer of nature's romantic beauties, the representation of a stormy ocean; the numerous distant hills appearing like so many waves rising and undulating behind each other. The immense masses of rugged rocks, however, abruptly broken off here and there, occasionally start up to dispel the illusions of fancy; and, together with the trees, villages, farms, and cattle, which he discovers as he proceeds, serve to convince the traveller that he is still on terra firma.

DERWENT WATER, or the LAKE OF KESWICK, a beautiful lake of Cumberland, in the vale of Keswick, lying between the mountain of Skiddaw on the north and the craggy hills of Borrowdale on the south, whence it derives its chief supplies of water. See CUMBERLAND.

DESAGULIERS (John Theophilus), a Protestant divine, born at Rochelle in 1683. He was educated at Christ Church, Oxford; where he succeeded Dr. Keill in reading lectures on experimental philosophy at Hart Hall. The duke of Chandos made Dr. Desaguliers his chaplain, and presented him to the living of Edgware, near his seat at Cannons: he was afterwards chaplain to Frederic prince of Wales. He introduced the practice of reading public lectures on experimental philosophy, in London, and continued them with great success to the time of his death in 1749. He communicated many curious papers to the Philosophical Transactions; published a valuable Course of Experimental Philosophy, in 2 vols. 4to; and edited



an edition of Gregory's Elements of Catoptrics and Dioptrics, with an Appendix on Reflecting Telescopes, 8vo. He was also a member of several foreign academies.

DESAIX (Louis Charles Anthony), a celebrated French general, born near Riom, in 1768. At an early life he made choice of the military life, and before the revolution had risen to the rank of lieutenant. In the republican army he was first employed as aid-de-camp to general Custine. He displayed great bravery at the battle of Lauterbourg, where, though severely wounded, he kept the field, rallying the disordered batallions. Having been successively created general of brigade and of division, he contributed, very considerably, to the famous retreat of Moreau. At the battle of Rastadt he commanded the left wing of the French army, obliging the archduke Charles to fall back; and he afterwards heroically defended the bridge of Kehl, where he was severely wounded. He accompanied Buonaparte into Egypt, where he was appointed governor of the upper part of the country. Having signed the treaty of El Arish with the Turks and English, he returned to Leghorn, but was detained there as a prisoner of war by admiral lord Keith. Upon obtaining his parole he returned to France, and accompanied Buonaparte to Italy. He was killed at the battle of Marengo, June 14th, 1800.

DESAQUADERO, a river of South America, in Peru, over which the Ynca Huana Capac built a bridge of flags and rushes, to transport his army to the other side, and which remained a few years since.

DESART, or DESERT, a large extent of country entirely barren, and producing nothing. In this sense some are sandy deserts; as those of Lop, Xamo, Arabia, and several others in Asia; in Africa, those of Libya and Zara: others are stony, as the desert of Paran in Arabia Petrea. The Desert, peculiarly so called in Scripture geography, is that part of Arabia south of the Holy Land, where the children of Israel wandered forty years. See DESERT.

DESATIR is a lately discovered collection of sixteen sacred books, consisting of the fifteen old Persian prophets, together with a book of Zoroaster. This, at least, is what the book itself pretends to be. The collection is written in a language not spoken at present any where, and equally different from the Zend, the Pelvi, and modern Persian. The last of the fifteen prophets, Sasan, who lived at the time of the downfall of the Sassanides, when the Arabians conquered the country, literally translated the Desatir, and accompanied it with commentaries. This work was afterwards, until the 17th century, one of the chief sources of the ancient Persian religious doctrines, interwoven with astrology and demonology; and, after having been forgotten for about a century and a half, a learned Parsee discovered it at Ispahan. His son, Molla Firuz, was induced by the marquis of Hastings to publish an edition of the Desatir at Bombay, in 1820, to which Erskine added an English translation. Erskine, however, considers the collection as spurious; and Sylvester de Sacy (Journal des Savants, Feb., 1821) believes that the Desatir is the work of a Parsee in the 4th century

of the Hegira, who, as he thinks, invented the language, in order to give to the collection which is itself an assemblage of old traditions and significant mysteries, an air of genuineness. Joseph von Hammer, on the contrary, is said to consider it as genuine. At all events, it is interesting to learn from this work, with greater accuracy, an old religious system of the East, which are to be found, with pandæmonism as the metempsychosis, the elements of the worship of the stars, of astrology, the theurgy, the doctrine of amulets, as well as the elements of the Hindoo religion, particularly the system of castes, and many elements of the Christian religion. Yet no trace of any connexion with the Zendavesta and the magic of the Parsees has been found in the Desatir.

DESCANT, *v. n., & n. s.* Span. and Ital. *canto*, from Lat. *de* and *canto*, to sing. The term seems formed in our language from the same which signifies a song or tune, in parts; a harmony for different voices or instruments; hence a discourse consisting of various parts; and singing in various parts. To discourse; declare generally used in the latter sense, contentuously.

DESCANT, in music, signifies the art of composing in several parts. Descant is threefold viz. double, figurative, and plain. Double descant is when the parts are so contrived, that the treble, or any high part, may be made a bass; and, on the contrary, the bass the treble. Figurative or florid descant is that part of an air of music wherein some discords are concerned, as well, though not so much, as concord. This may be termed the ornamental and rhetorical part of music, in regard that there are introduced all the varieties of points, syncop, diversities of measure, and whatever is capable of adorning the composition. Plain descant the ground-work and foundation of all musical compositions, consisting altogether in the orderly placing of many concords answering to some counterpoint.

DESCARTES, René (Renatus Cartesius), original thinker, and reformer of philosophy with whom the modern or new philosophy often considered as commencing, was born in 1596, at La Haye, in Touraine, and died in Stockholm, in 1650. While pursuing his education in the Jesuits' school at La Fleche, where he studied philology, mathematics, and astronomy, his superior intellect manifested itself. After having read much, without coming to any certain conclusions, he travelled. Both his habit and inclination led him to embrace the military profession, and he fought as a volunteer at the siege of Rochelle, and in Holland under prince Maurice. While he served in Holland, at a mathematical problem in Dutch, pasted up in the streets of Breda, met his eye. Not being acquainted with the language, he asked a man who stood near him to translate the problem to him. This man happened to be professor Beeckman, principal of the university of Dort, and himself a mathematician. He smiled at the question the young officer, and was greatly surprised, the next morning, to find that he had solved it. From hence Descartes went to Germany, a



in Bavarian service. His situation, affording him little opportunity of pursuing his favorite studies, he left the army in 1643, visited Moravia, Silesia, Poland, Prussia, and the shores of the Baltic. In 1645 he visited West Friesland with advantage, he hired a boat, and embarked with a single sailor, thinking him a foreign merchant, and much money in his baggage, resolved to see him. Imagining him ignorant of their meeting, they conversed of their plan openly.

Perceiving his danger, drew his sword, threatened them in their own tongue, and threatened the first man that should offer him aid.

The sailors were overawed, and gave up the design. After a variety of travels, he returned to Holland, where he composed most of his works, from 1629 to 1649, drew about him a circle of scholars, and was engaged in many controversies, especially with theologians. His system abounds in singularities and subtleties; but a spirit of independent reasoning prevails throughout it, and has contrived to excite the same spirit in others. It has been given to give to philosophical inquiries a new direction, and found many adherents, especially in England, France, and Germany. Descartes holds his belief of the existence of the soul as being on the consciousness of thought: "I think, therefore I exist" (*cogito, ergo sum*).

He applied his system with much ingenuity, and applied it to the then empiric philosophy of Bacon, and the Aristotelian scholastics, and the rigorous, systematic or mathematical method of reasoning. From his system originated a new notion among the moderns, that the evidence and certainty of philosophy consisted in definitions, arguments, and a methodical arrangement of them. The thinking being, whether the soul, or the soul, evidently differs from matter, whose existence consists in space or extension, by its simplicity and immateriality (and also, its immortality), and by the freedom it possesses over it. But every perception of truth is not clear and distinct; it is in a measure involved in doubt, and is so far from being a finite being. This imperfection of its ideas led to the idea of an absolutely perfect being. He, therefore, here makes use of the ontological proof of the existence of God in a different manner from that in which St. Thomas of Canterbury had, somewhat earlier, made use of the same; and hence the name of the ontological proof. He placed at the head of his system the idea of an absolutely perfect being which he considers as an innate idea, and from it all further knowledge of truth. The principal problems of metaphysics he considered to be substantiality and causality. He proceeded greatly to the advancement of mathematics and physics. He made use of the direct observations of others, defining them, and assigning them their place in his system. The higher departments of geometry (to which he successfully applied analysis), as well as optics, dioptrics, and mechanics, were extended by him, their method simplified, and thereby the way prepared for the great advances made in the sciences by Newton and

Leibnitz; for instance, he contributed much to define and illustrate the true law of refraction. His system of the universe attracted great attention in his time, but has been long since exploded. It rests on the strange hypothesis of the heavenly vortices, immense currents of ethereal matter, with which space is filled, and by which he accounted for the motion of the planets. He labored much to extend the Copernican system of astronomy. Descartes loved independence; he nevertheless suffered himself to be persuaded to go to Stockholm, upon the invitation of queen Christina, who was very desirous of his society. He died at that place four months after his arrival. His body was carried to Paris in 1666, and interred anew in the church of St. Genevieve du Mont. Descartes was never married, but had one natural daughter, Francina, who died in his arms, in her fifth year, and whose loss he felt acutely. His works have at various times been published, singly and together; as, for instance, at Amsterdam, 1692, 9 vols. 4to. Baillet and Tarpelius have written his life. (See his letters; also the eulogies on him by Gaillard, Thomas, and Mercier, and Leibnitz's account of him in his letters.)

DESCEND', *v. a. & v. n.*

DESCEND'ANT, *n. s.*

DESCEND'ENT, *adj.*

DESCEND'IBLE, *adj.*

DESCEN'SION, *n. s.*

DESCEN'SIONAL, *adj.*

DESCENT', *n. s.*

Fr. *descendre*;

Span. *descender*;

Ital. *discendere*;

Lat. *descendere*,

from *de* privative,

and *scandere*, to

clamber. To walk

downwards; or cling as to a rope, going downwards. As a neuter verb, to fall, or sink, or go downwards: hence, to be derived from, and to come in order of inheritance. A descendant is applied to offspring, near or remote: descendant, falling, sinking; derived from: descendible, that which may be descended, or may descend. Descension, figuratively, a degradation, or a declension.

DESCENT, in heraldry, is used to express the coming down of any thing from above; as, a lion en descent is a lion with his head towards the base points, and his heels towards one of the corners of the chief, as if he were leaping down from some high place.

DESCENT, or hereditary succession, in law, is the title whereby a man, on the death of his ancestor, acquires his estate by right of representation, as his heir at law. An heir, therefore, is he upon whom the law casts the estate immediately on the death of the ancestor; and an estate so descending to the heir is in law called the inheritance. See INHERITANCE. Descent is either lineal or collateral. Collateral descent is that springing out of the side of the line or blood; as from a man to his brother, nephew, or the like. See CONSANGUINITY. Lineal descent is that conveyed down in a right line from the grandfather to the father, from the father to the son, and from the son to the grandson, &c.

DESCENT OF DIGNITIES. A dignity differs from common inheritances, and goes not according to the rules of the common law: for it descends to the half blood: and there is no coparcenership in it, but the eldest takes the whole.



The dignity of peerage is personal, annexed to the blood; and so inseparable, that it cannot be transferred to any person, nor surrendered even to the crown: it can move neither forward nor backward, but only downward to posterity; and nothing but corruption of blood, as if the ancestor be attainted of treason or felony, can hinder the descent to the heir.

DESCRIBE', *v. a.* } Fr. *descrire*; Span. *describir*; Ital. *descrivere*; Lat. *describere*, *DESCRIB'ER*, *n. s.* } *describer*; Lat. *describere*, *DESCRIPTION*, *n. s.* } *descriptio*; Lat. *describere*, *DESCRIPTIVE*, *adj.* } from *de*, concerning, and *DESCRIVE'*, *v. a.* } *scribere*, to write. To delineate; trace out; distribute a thing or country into its parts: description is both the act and form of describing. Describe is used for describe by Surrey.

DESCRY', *v. a. & n. s.* } Fr. *descrier*. To *DESCRIB'ER*, *n. s.* } give notice of any thing suddenly discovered: hence to spy out; detect; discover.

How near 's the other army?

—Near, and on speedy foot, the main *descry* stands in the hourly thought, *Shakespeare.*

DESEADA, DESIRADA, or DESIDERADA, the first of the Caribbee Islands, discovered by Columbus in his second voyage, in 1494, when he gave it that name. It is ten miles long and five broad, and looks at a distance like a galley, with a low point at the north-west end. The soil is in some places black and good, in others sandy and unproductive. It lies twelve miles east of Guadaloupe.

DESEADA, or CAPE DESIRE, the south point of the Straits of Magellan, at the entrance of the South Sea. Long. 74° 18' W., lat. 53° 4' S.

DES'ECRATE, *v. a.* } Lat. *desacro*, from *DESCRAT'ION*. } *de*, privative, and *sacro*, to consecrate; although the Latin compound *desacro* also signifies to hallow. To apply to common or profane purposes, that which has been consecrated.

The founders of monasteries imprecated evil on those who should *desecrate* their donations.

*Salmon's Survey.*

DESERT', *v. a., n. s. & adj.* } Fr. *deserter*; *DESERT'ER*, } from Lat. *desero*, *DESERT'ION*, } *desertum*. *DESERT'ICE*, *n. s. Fem.* } To leave, forsake, abandon. A desert is a solitary, forsaken place; hence, as an adjective, wild, unfrequented, uninhabited: a deserter, he who forsakes his post of duty; and Milton has afforded us a feminine substantive of this meaning.

And it is written in the book of salm's, the abscission of him be maad *desert*, and be there noon that dwelle in it, and anothie take his bishopriche.

*Wiclif. Ded. 1.*

He found him in a *desert* land, and in the waste howling wilderness. *Deuteronomy, xxxii. 10.*

For light she hated, as the deadly bale,  
Ay went in *desert* darkness to remaine,  
Where plain none might her see, nor she see any  
plaine. *Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

I have words  
That would be howled out in the *desert* air,  
Where hearing should not catch them. *Shakespeare.*

He, looking round on every side, beheld  
A pathless *desert*, dusk with horrid shades

[It is] as vain to go about to compel (the pair) into one flesh as to weave a garment of Cleave to a wife, but let her be a wife, not a sary, not a *desertrice*. *Id. Tetra*

Hosts of *deserters*, who your honour sold,  
And basely broke your faith for bribes of gold

Christ hears and sympathises with the agonies of a soul under *desertion*, or the present stinging affliction.

What is it that holds and keeps the orb's stations and intervals, against an incessant rent tendency to *desert* them?

The members of both houses, who at first were counted *deserters*, and outed of their parliament. *King*

Thou, false guardian of a charge too good  
Thou, mean *deserter* of thy brother's blood.

A *deserter*, who came out of the citadel garrison is brought to the utmost necessity. *Tutler.*

*Deserted* is my own good hall,

Its hearth is desolate;

Wild weeds are gathering on the wall

My dog howls at the gate.

DESERTER. A deserter is, by the law of war, punishable by death; which, a victor, is executed upon him at the head of the regiment he formerly belonged to, with a written on his breast. A reward of shillings is given to every person who apprehends a deserter, and persons concealing, harboring, buying the clothes, arms, &c. of such person are liable to very heavy penalties. No commissioned officer or soldier shall enlist in any other regiment, troop, or company, without a regular discharge from the regiment, company, in which he last served, on the day of being reputed a deserter, and sufficiently: and in case any officer shall receive and entertain such non-commissioned officer or soldier, or shall not, after discovered to be a deserter, immediately inform him, and give notice thereof to the commanding officer of the regiment, in which he last served, he, the said commanding officer, shall, by a court-martial, be punished.

DESERT', *n. s.* } Old Fr. *desert*

DESERT'LESS, *adv.* } participial form of *desert*, which see. Merit or demerit, reward or punishment: *desertless* is Dryden for without merit.

Being of necessity a thing common, it is the manifold persuasions, dispositions, and of men, with equal *desert* both of praise and shunned by some, by others desired.

Use every man after his *desert*, and 'scape whipping? *S.*

She said she loved,  
Loved me *desertless*; who with shame and  
Another flame had seized upon my breast.

All *desert* imports an equality between conferred, and the good deserved, or made

I was determined to be advanced in my  
by force of *desert*, or not at all. *Bishop.*



**DESERVE**, *v. a.* } *Fr. deservir*; *Lat. de-*  
*VER, n. s.* } *virtute*, to be useful, from  
**VEDLY**, } *de* and *servus*, to be a  
*ving, n. s.* } slave. To be worthy of  
 all: all the derivatives from this root  
 id to both by respectable writers. But  
 id absolutely, to be deserving, &c.,  
 nly expresses merit.

hey honoured, as having power to work or  
 men *deserved* of them. *Hooker.*

love is never linked to the *deserver*,  
 deserts are passed. *Shakespeare.*

All friends shall taste  
 ges of their virtue, and all foes  
 of their *deservings*. *Id.*

with some high minds, is an overweight of  
 ; or otherwise great *deservers* do, perchance,  
 erable presumers. *Wotton.*

rell, if here would end  
 ery: I *deserved* it, and would bear  
 i *deservings*. *Milton.*

ring of others can be no excuse for our in-  
 r our uncharitableness.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*  
 are the places where best manners flourish,  
 e *deserving* ought to rise. *Otoay.*

er cannot give him death: though he  
 t, he *deserves* it not from me. *Dryden.*

t my Orazia's death I have not seen  
 ty so *deserving* to be queen. *Id.*

ing to the rule of natural justice, one man  
 i and *deserves* of another. *South.*

*deservently* cuts himself off from the affec-  
 hat community which he endeavours to sub-  
*Addison.*

to each bishoprick some portion of the royal  
 al patronage, which is now prostituted by  
 molor and the Minister of the day to the  
 of parliamentary corruption, that every Bi-  
 have means sufficient to reward all the de-  
 rgy of his diocese. *Bp. Watson.*

**DESCATE**, *v. a. & n.* } *Lat. desicco, de-*  
*CANTS, n. s.* } and *siccus*; *Heb.*  
**CA'TION.** } ציה *dry* (*Min-*

To dry up; to exhaust; to grow dry;  
 its are applications that dry up sores.

there is moisture enough, or superfluous,  
 helpeth to digest and *desiccate* the moisture.

*Bacon's Natural History.*  
 spirits issue out of the body, there followeth  
 , induration, and consumption. *Id.*

ferments were elevated from the sea, or  
 rated places thereof, by the heat of the sun.

the beginning, may be prevented by *desic-*  
 wasted. *Wicman.*

e a *desiccative*, according to Paulli, it can-  
 e the fibres, as our author imagines; if it  
 it, it must constrict the stomach, rather  
 it. *Johnson.*

**DESRATE**, *v. a.* } *Lat. desidero.* To  
**TRA'TUM, n. s.** } want or desire in  
 A desideratum is that which is much,  
 en long, desired.

are of wonderful assistance toward the so-  
 his so desirable and so much *desiderated*  
*Cheyne.*

**DESIGN**, *v. a. & n. s.*

**DESIGN'ABLE**, *adj.*

**DESIGN'ATION**, *n. s.*

**DESIGN'EDLY**, *adv.*

**DESIGN'ER**, *n. s.*

**DESIGN'ING** *part. adj.*

**DESIGN'LESS**, *adj.*

**DESIGN'LESSLY**, *adv.*

**DESIGN'MENT**, *n. s.*

taking for after it; to devote, taking to; to plan,  
 project. As a substantive a design is the scheme  
 or plan of an undertaking in the mind, or in any  
 form of development: and designment is syno-  
 nymous with design: designable is distinguish-  
 able: designation, the act or form of pointing or  
 marking out: designedly, purposely, with some  
 proposed object in view: designing is generally  
 used in an ill sense. Designless is without plan  
 or scheme, purposeless; designlessly is inadver-  
 tently.

Leave these sad *designs*

To him that hath more cause to be a mourner.

*Shakespeare.*

News, lords! our wars are done:

The desperate tempest hath so banged the Turks,  
 That their *designment* halts. *Id.*

William the Conqueror forebore to use that claim  
 in the beginning, but mixed it with a titular pre-  
 tence, grounded upon the will and designation of  
 Edward the Confessor. *Bacon.*

We are to observe whether the picture or outlines  
 be well drawn, or, as more elegant artizans term it,  
 well *designed*; then, whether it be well coloured; which  
 be the two general heads. *Wotton.*

That Providence, which keeps the whole from  
 destruction, will also keep all its necessary parts from  
 corruption, lest the work of God become insufficient  
 to the end of its designation. *Bishop Taylor.*

One of those places was *designed* by the old man  
 to his son. *Clarendon.*

In this great concert of his whole creation, the  
*designlessly* conspiring voices are as differing as the  
 conditions of the respective singers. *Boyle.*

'Tis a greater credit to know the ways of captivating  
 nature, and making her subserve our purposes and *de-*  
*signments*, than to have learned all the intrigues of  
 policy. *Glanville.*

Is he a prudent man, as to his temporal estate, that  
 lays *designs* only for a day, without any prospect to  
 the remaining part of his life? *Tillotson.*

The acts of religious worship were purposely *de-*  
*signed* for the acknowledgment of a Being, whom the  
 most excellent creatures are bound to adore as well as  
 we. *Stillingfleet.*

You are not for obscurity *designed*,

But, like the sun, must cheer all human kind.

*Dryden.*

He was born to the inheritance of a splendid for-  
 tune; he was *designed* to the study of the law. *Id.*

A sedate settled *design* upon another man's life,  
 puts him in a state of war with him against whom he  
 has declared such an intention. *Locke.*

'Tis not enough to make a man a subject, to con-  
 vince him that there is regal power in the world; but  
 there must be ways of *designing* and knowing the per-  
 son to whom this regal power of right belongs. *Id.*

The power of all natural agents is limited: the  
 mover must be confined to observe these proportions,  
 and cannot pass over all these infinite *designable* de-  
 grees in an instant. *Digley.*



Uses made things; that is to say, some things were made *designedly*, and on purpose, for such an use as they serve to.

*Ray on the Creation.*

There is a plain *designation* of the Duke of Marlborough: one kind of stuff used to fatten land is called marle, and every body knows that borough is a name for a town.

*Swift.*

There is a great affinity between designing and poetry; for the Latin poets, and the *designers* of the Roman medals, lived very near one another, and were bred up to the same relish for wit and fancy.

*Addison.*

The hand strikes out some new *design*,  
Where life awakes and dawns at every line. *Pope.*

'Twould shew me poor, indebted, and compelled,  
*Designing*, mercenary; and I know  
You would not wish to think I could be bought.

*Southern.*

It has therefore always been both the rule and practice for such *designers* to suborn the publick interest, to countenance and cover their private.

*Decay of Piety.*

Spectators only on this bustling stage,  
We see what vain *designs* mankind engage.

*Churchill.*

Would I describe a preacher, such as Paul,  
Were he on earth, would hear, approve, and own,  
Paul should himself direct one, I would trace  
His master-strokes, and draw from his *design*.

*Cowper.*

**DESIGN**, in manufactories, expresses the figures with which the workman enriches his stuff, or silk, and which he copies after some painter or eminent draughtsman, as in diaper, damask, and other flowered silk and tapestry, &c. In undertaking of such kinds of figured stuffs, it is necessary, says Mons. Savary, that before the first stroke of the shuttle, the whole design be represented on the threads of the warp; we do not mean in colors, but with an infinite number of little packthreads, which being disposed so as to raise the threads of the warp, let the workman see, from time to time, what kind of silk is to be put in the eye of the shuttle for woof. This method of preparing the work is called reading the design, and reading the figure, which is performed in the following manner: a paper is provided, considerably broader than the stuff, and of a length proportionate to what is intended to be represented thereon. This they divide lengthwise, by as many black lines as there are intended threads in the warp; and cross these lines by others drawn breadthwise, which, with the former, make little equal squares; on the paper thus squared, the draughtsman designs his figures, and heightens them with colors as he sees fit. When the design is finished, a workman reads it, while another lays it on the simblot. To read the design is to tell the person who manages the loom the number of squares or threads comprised in the space he is reading, intimating at the same time, whether it is ground or figure. To put what is read on the simblot is to fasten little strings to the several packthreads, which are to raise the threads named; and this they continue to do till the whole design is read. Every piece being composed of several repetitions of the same design, when the whole design is drawn, the drawer, to re-begin the design afresh, has nothing to do but to raise the

little strings, with slip-knots, to the to simblot, which he had laid down to the this he is to repeat as often as is need the whole is manufactured. The ribbon have likewise a design, but far more sin that now described. It is drawn on p lines and squares, representing the t the warp and woof. But instead of lines the figures of the former consist, these stituted of points only, or dots, placed i of the little squares formed by the int of the lines. These points mark the t the warp that are to be raised, and t left blank denote the threads that are their situation: the rest is managed i former.

**DESIGN**, in music, is defined by Ro be the invention and the conduct of th the disposition of every part, and th order of the whole. See **MUSIC**.

**DESIGN** is particularly used, in pai the first idea of a large work, drawn with an intention to be executed and fi large. In this sense it is the simple c outlines of the figures intended to be rep or the lines that terminate and circ them: such design is sometimes drawn i on ink, without any shadows at all: s it is hatched, that is, the shadows are by sensible outlines, usually drawn ac other with the pen, crayon, or graver times the shadows are made with th rubbed so as that there do not appear at other times, the grains or stroke of appear, as not being rubbed; sometime sign is washed, that is, the shadows are a pencil in Indian ink, or some other li sometimes the design is colored, that are laid on resembling those intende grand work.

**DESIGNATION** of an estate is mad tenants, butments, and boundings. At Romans there were designations of th and other magistrates, some time be elections.

**DESIGNATOR**, a Roman officer, signed and marked each person his j rank in public ceremonies, shows, proces He was a kind of master of the ceremo regulated the seats, march, order, &c were designators at funeral solemniti the games, theatres, and shows, who assigned every one his place, but also l it; as appears from the prologue to the of Placet.

**DESIGNING**, the art of delineating on the appearance of natural objects, by li plane. To design, according to the rul thematics, makes the object of perspect **PERSPECTIVE**.

**DESIRE**, *v. a. & n. s.*

**DESIR'ABLE**, *adj.*

**DESIR'ABLY**, *adv.*

**DESIR'ABLENESS**, *n. s.*

**DESIR'ER**,

**DESIR'OUS**, *adj.*

**DESIR'OUSLY**, *adv.*

*Fr. desir  
desear; Li  
rare, which  
thinks deri  
de sideribus  
having been  
objects of w*

admiration. To wish; to long for; int for; demand. As a noun it generally



or earnest wish. That is desirable which I wish with earnestness; pleasant; delightful. It is full of desire.

He saide to hem with *desier* I haue *desirid* to speak with you before that I suffre.

Wiclif. *Luk.* 22.

desirous of his dainties; for they are deceitful

Prov. xxiii. 3.

possible is, sin thou hast his presence, art a knight, a worthy and an able, by some cas, sin Fortune is changeable, maiest to thy *desir* sometime atteine.

Chaucer. *Cant. Tales.*

A doleful case *desires* a doleful song, without vain art or curious compliments.

Spenser.

Ame piety which maketh them that are in *desirous* to please and resemble God by justice, in every way men of action with zeal to do

Hooker.

counterfeit the bewitchment of some popular and give it bountifully to the *desirers*.

Shakespeare.

I intreat you home with me to dinner, humbly do *desire* your grace of pardon; away this night.

Id.

are drowsy and *desirous* to sleep before the fit hour, and yawn and stretch.

Bacon.

Adam the while, sitting *desirous* her return, had wove choicest flowers a garland.

Milton.

Jove beheld it with a *desiring* look.

Dryden.

mine's the vast extent of human mind; wants above, and leaves poor hope behind.

Id.

is the uneasiness a man finds in himself upon the loss of anything, whose present enjoyment is the idea of delight with it.

Loche.

then let drop some expressions about an agate ring; I immediately took the hint, and bought the ring unwilling to omit any thing that might be *desirable* in her eyes.

Addison.

The *desire* of knowledge, like other affections of our nature, will be very apt to lead us on, if it be not well regulated.

Mason.

can raise the mind by accommodating the things to our *desires*, and not, like history, subjecting the mind to things.

Byron.

DESE, PORT, a harbour on the eastern coast of America, so called by Sir Thomas Cavendish, in 1586. On the south side of its mouth is a remarkably steep rock, which is an ancient sea-mark. The harbour was found, by the name of Byron, to be narrow for nearly four miles with a tide running at the rate of eight inches an hour. There were also various rocks and shoals; but they were all above water. 64° 25' W., lat. 47° 7' S.

DESIST, v. n. } Fr. *desister*; Span. *desistir*; Ital. *sister*; and Lat. *desistere* (from *de* (from), and *sisto*, *sto*; Gr. *stano*, to stand off, or cease from any thing; Desistance is cessation.

*Desist*, thou art discerned, and toil'st in vain; nor me in vain molest.

Milton.

Men usually give freeliest where they have not given before: and make it both the motive and excuse of their *desistance* from giving any more, that they have given already.

Boyle.

There are many who will not quit a project, though they find it pernicious or absurd; but will readily *desist* from it, when they are convinced it is impracticable.

Addison.

DESISTIVE, *adj.* Lat. *desistivus*. Ending; concludent; final.

Inceptive and *desistive* propositions are of this sort: the fogs vanish as the sun rises; but the fogs have not yet begun to vanish, therefore the sun is not yet risen.

Watts.

DESK, *n. s.* Dut. *disch*, a table; Teut. *tisch*. An inclining table for the use of writers or readers, made commonly with a box or repository connected with it.

Tell her in the *desk*,

That's covered o'er with Turkish tapestry,

There is a purse of ducats.

Shakespeare.

He is drawn leaning on a *desk*, with his bible before him.

Walton's Angler.

I have been obliged to leave unfinished in my *desk* the heads of two essays.

Pope.

Sweet sleep enjoys the curate in his *desk*,

The tedious rector drawing o'er his head;

And sweet the clerk below.

Cowper.

DESMOULINS (B. C.), one of the demagogues of the French revolution, was born at Guise, in Picardy, in 1762, and is said to have been a descendant of the celebrated Charles Desmoulin. Educated with Robespierre, for the bar, he became a counsellor of parliament, and commenced his career, as an advocate, by pleading against his father, on a charge for his board. From the commencement of the revolution he was connected with Robespierre, and became the editor of a journal, in which he styled himself attorney-general of the Lantern. He was the great director of the factious mob of Paris, but at one time was esteemed by La Fayette. In a denunciation against him to the Constituent Assembly, in 1790, for his virulent abuse of the king, Desmoulins was warmly defended by all the jacobins. After the unhappy flight of Louis XVI. to Varennes, he was one of the instigators of the meeting of the Champ de Mars; and was conspicuous in the insurrection of the 20th of June, 1792, as well as in that of the 10th of August. He now became secretary to Danton, the minister of justice, and was chosen a deputy from Paris to the convention, in which, of course, he voted for the death of the king. Robespierre, however, was jealous of his connexion with Danton; he was arrested March 31st, 1794, and on the 5th of April suffered by the guillotine. Beside a great number of political pamphlets, Desmoulins published *Les Révolutions de France et de Brabant*; *Le Vieux Cordelier*; *Histoires des Brissotins*; *Satires*; and *Opuscules de Camille Desmoulins*.

DES'OLATE, *v. a. & adj.*

DES'OLATELY, *adv.*

DESOLA'TION, *n. s.*

DES'OLATER.

Fr. *desoler*; Sp.

*dessolar*; Italian

and Lat. *desolare*,

from *de* and *solus*.

To depopulate; make desert; solitary; uninhabited. Desolation is the act or consummation of ruin or destruction; desolater, he who accom-



plishes it. *Wiclif* makes a curious use of the verb for being removed from.

And britheren, we *desolat* fro ghous for a tyme bi mouth and in beholdyng but not in herte, han highed more plenteuousli to se ghoure face with greet desier.

*Wiclif. 1 Tessal. ii.*

How is Babylon become a *desolation* among the nations!

*Jer. l. 23.*

The lion would not leave her *desolate*,  
But with her went along, as a strong gard  
Of her chaste person. *Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

What with your praises of the country, what with your discourse of the lamentable *desolation* thereof made by those Scots, you have filled me with a great compassion.

*Spenser's State of Ireland.*

Let us seek some *desolate* shade, and there  
Weep our sad bosoms empty. *Shakespeare.*

Without her follows to myself and thee,  
Herself, the laud, and many a Christian soul,  
Death, *desolation*, ruin, and decay. *Id.*

The island of Atlantis was not swallowed by an earthquake, but was *desolated* by a particular deluge.

*Bacon.*

Thick around

Thunders the sport of those, who with the gun,  
And dog impatient bounding at the shot,  
Worse than the season *desolate* the fields.

*Thomson.*

It is remarkable, that they never see any way to their projected good but by the road of some evil. Their imagination is not fatigued with the contemplation of human suffering, through the wild waste of centuries, added to centuries of miseries and *desolation*.

*Burke.*

He calls for famine, and the meagre fiend  
Blows mildew from between his shrivelled lips,  
And taints the golden ear. He springs his mines,  
And *desolates* a nation at a blast. *Cowper.*

The *desolater desolate*!

The victor overthrown!

The arbiter of others' fate

A suppliant for his own!

*Byron.*

DESPARD (Edward Marcus), was a native of Queen's county, in Ireland, where his family maintained considerable respectability. When but nineteen, he entered into the army as an ensign, and soon became distinguished for his skill as an engineer. About the close of the American war, he served in the West Indies, where his talents appeared particularly conspicuous in an expedition on the Spanish Main. He was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-colonel for his achievements on this occasion, and, in 1784, was appointed English superintendant in the Bay of Honduras; but his conduct proving offensive to the settlers, they complained to the government at home; in consequence of which he was suspended. He arrived in England in 1790, and made application to government for an investigation of his conduct, but his claims were rejected; upon which he became a violent democrat, and, in consequence of his inflammatory conduct, was apprehended, during the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act, and sent to Cold Bath-fields prison; and finally to Tothill-fields bridewell. He was afterwards liberated on his own recognisance. Soured, apparently, by his disastrous fate, he now endeavoured to seduce and corrupt some of the lowest of the soldiery; and, having collected some few of similar senti-

ments, held secret meetings with them at disreputable places, to which no persons were admitted out of a treasonable oath. Various plans were agitated in this club for the murder of the king and other desperate undertakings; but, the conspirators having discovered the plot, the colonel, and several others, were apprehended and brought to trial by a special commission on February 5th, 1803. Despard and nine were found guilty, on the clearest proof, and executed on Monday, the 21st.

DESPAIR, *v. n. & n. s.* *Fr. des*

DESPAIR'ER, *n. s.* *Span. and*

DESPAIR'FUL, *adj.* *desesperar;*

DESPAIR'INGLY, *adv.* *desperare;*

(privative) and *spero* to hope; Heb. *בטל* to be hopeless; to despond, taking *of*, in usage, before the object. Despair is hopeless confirmed despondency; and sometimes the cause of such a state of mind.

We are troubled on every side, yet not distressed; we are perplexed, but not in *despair*. *2 Cor.*

Other cries among the Irish savor of the barbarism; as the lamentations of their burlesque *despairful* outcries.

Strangely visited people,

All swollen and ulcerous, pitiful to the eye,  
The mere *despair* of surgery, he cures;  
Hanging a golden stamp about their necks  
Put on with holy prayers. *Shakespeare.*

We commend the wit of the Chinese, who make gold, but are mad upon making of

He speaks severely and *despairingly* of our

That sweet but sour *despairful* care.

Equal their flame, unequal was their end  
One loved with hope, one languished with

He cheers the fearful, and commends  
And makes *despairers* hope for good success

*Despair* is the thought of the unattainable good, which works differently in men's minds, sometimes producing uneasiness or pain, sometimes indifference.

Are not all or most evangelical virtues in danger of extremes? As there is, God is often a defect on the one side, so there may be a defect on the other: may not hope in God, or, row, be perverted into presumption or despair?

Enlivening Hope, and fond Desire,  
Resign the heart to Spleen and Care;  
Scarce frighted Love maintains her fire,  
And rapture saddens to *despair*.

*Johnson. Warton.*

DESPATCH, *v. a. & n. s.* *Fr. des*

DESPATCH'FUL, *adj.* *Span. des*

To send off or away in haste; hence to transact business quickly, and to assassinate. The substantive is used not only for promptness of business, but intelligence, or news, to be sent with despatch; and in the official or public intelligence or paper, *despatchful* is, sent in haste. The *despatch* has become of late almost universal.

And the company shall stone them with their swords, and *despatch* them with their swords. *Esai.*

What are the brothers parted?

—They have *despatched* with Pompey;



Edmund, I think, is gone,  
his misery to *despatch*  
his life.

*Shakespeare.*

curious speeches are as fit for *despatch* as  
suttle, with a long train, is for a race.

*Bacon.*

ing, with *despatchful* looks in haste  
, on hospitable thoughts intent. *Milton.*

re of so quick *despatch*, that the joy of the  
mpared to a fire of thorns.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

edore Coleby, a sober man, I *despatched*  
to Utrecht, to bring the moxa, and learn  
ethod of using it. *Temple.*

ch me quickly, I may death forgive;  
ow tender else, and wish to live.

*Dryden.*

r is one action *despatched*, which, by such  
tion as the will, we are set upon, but an-  
iness is ready to set us on work. *Locke.*

s *despatchful* bid some swain to lead,  
d lullock from the grassy mead. *Pope.*

eer, could you her inward motions watch,  
delay, she wishes for *despatch*;  
a woman's meaning would you look,  
d her backward. *Granville.*

ERATE, *adj. & n. s.* } Lat. *desperata*;  
ATELY, *adv.* } *tus.* See DES-  
ATENESS, *n. s.* } PAIR. Hope-  
ATION. } less; abandon-  
ow; without care of consequences;  
le: hence rash; mad; and expressing  
degree of any thing bad.

not the part of a *desperate* physician to  
end dead, rather than to apply the best  
of his skill for his recovery?

*Spenser's State of Ireland.*

is exile she hath despised me most;  
my company, and rail'd at me,  
a *desperate* of obtaining her. *Shakespeare.*  
its may be well called *desperate* ones; for  
owes them. *Id.*

on not only in terrors and amazement of  
but also boldly, hopefully, confidently, in  
of sin, is called a *desperateness* also; and  
d thus, the more *desperate*. *Hammond.*

we are guilty of any past sin, and have  
of remission, whatever our future care be,  
on of success chills all our industry, and  
cause we have sinned. *Id.*

in resisted turns to *desperateness*.

*Bishop Hall. Contemplations.*

amiss, ere ye're giv'n o'er,  
a *desperate* med'cine more;  
your case can be no worse,  
utest is the wisest course! *Hudibras.*

of Asia, the sick, when their case comes  
*desperate*, are carried out and laid on the  
they are dead, and left there. *Locke.*

*desperately* in love with him, and took  
Sicily in pursuit of him. *Addison.*

g all mere *desperate* sots and fools,  
apart from Aristotle's rules. *Pope.*

of *desperate* steps, the darkest day,  
-morrow will have passed away.

*Couper.*

t find my hero; he is mixed  
heroic crowd that now pursue  
res, or battle with the *desperate*.  
we here?

*Byron.*

DESPICABLE, *adj.* } See DESPISE. CON-  
DESPICABLENESS, *n. s.* } temptible; mean  
DESPICABLY, *adv.* } low.

Our case were miserable, if that wherewith we most  
endeavour to please God were in his sight so vile and  
*despicable* as men's disdainful speech would make it.

*Hooker.*

All the earth he gave thee to possess and rule,  
No *despicable* gift. *Milton.*

Not less even in this *despicable* hero,  
Than when my name shook Africk with affright,  
And froze your hearts beneath your torrid zone.

*Dryden.*

Here wanton Naples crowns the happy shore,  
Nor vainly rich, nor *despicably* poor;  
The town in soft solemnities delights,  
And gentle poets to her arms invites. *Addison.*

We consider the great disproportion between the in-  
finity of the reward and the *despicableness* of our  
service. *Decay of Piety.*

There is, indeed, no employment, however *despic-  
able*, from which a man may not promise himself more  
than competence, when he sees thousands and myriads  
raised to dignity, by no other merit than that of con-  
tributing to supply their neighbours with the means  
of sucking smoke through a tube of clay, &c.

*Adventurer.*

DESPISE, *v. a.* } Span. *despreciar*, from  
DESPIS'ABLE, *adj.* } Lat. *despicere*, from *de*,  
DESPIS'ER, *n. s.* } down and *specio*; Gr.  
*σπερτω*; Heb. *אָפַר*, to look or see. To look  
upon with contempt, to scorn; abhor: *despisa-  
ble* is contemptible.

God chees the feble thingis and *despicable* thingis  
of the world to confounde the stronge thingis.

*Wiclif. 1 Cor. 1*

Behold ye *despisers*, and wonder, and perish.

*Isaiuh.*

However yet they me *despise* and spight,  
I feed on sweet contentment of my thought.

*Spenser. The Tears of the Muses.*

Let not your ears *despise* my tongue for ever,  
Which shall possess them with the heaviest sound  
That ever yet they heard. *Shakespeare.*

As the wicked have no peace with God, so the godly  
have no peace with men; for if they prosper not they  
are *despised*; if they prosper they are envied.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

All cold, but in her breast, I will *despise*;  
And dare all heat but that in Celia's eyes,

*Roscommon.*

I am obliged to you for taking notice of a poor old  
distressed courtier, commonly the most *despicable* thing  
in the world. *Arbuthnot to Pope.*

Admire, exult—*despise*—laugh, weep,—for here  
There is such matter of all feeling:—Man!  
Thou pendulum betwixt a smile and tear,  
Ages and realms are crowded in this span. *Byron.*

DESPITE, *v. a. & n. s.* } Fr. *dépit*; Dutch  
DESPITE'FUL, *adj.* } *spijt*; Ital. *despitto*,  
DESPITE'FULLY, *adv.* } from Lat. *despectus*,  
DESPITE'FULNESS, *n. s.* } *de* and *specio*, *spec-*  
DESPITE'EOUS, *adj.* } *tus*. See DESPISE.  
DESPITE'EOUSLY, *adv.* } To vex, to do a

malicious act to: malice; malignity; and hence  
defiance. *Despiteful* is malicious, mischievous,  
splenetic. *Despitefulness*, synonymous with *des-  
pite*; and *despiteous*, *despiteously*, with *despite-*



tul, despitely. Wiclif uses despite for dishonor.

When a pottere of cley hath not power to make of the same gobet oo vessel into onour, a nothir into *dispyt*? Wiclif. *Romayne* 9.

Pray for them that *despitely* use you and persecute you. *Matthew* v. 44.

But out the child he hent

*Despitously*, and gan a chere to make,  
As though he would have slain it or he went.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

Full many mischiefs follow cruell wrath;  
— Bitter *despight*, with rancour's rusty knife;  
And fretting griefe the enemy of life.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

The knight of the red-cross, when him he spied,  
Spurring so hot with rage *despiteous*,  
Can fairly couch his speare. *Id.*

The mortal steel *despiteously* entailed  
Deep in their flesh, quite through the iron walls,  
That a large purple stream adown their giambeux falls.

*Spenser.*

The life thou gavest me first, was lost and done;  
Till with thy warlike sword *despite* of fate,  
To my determined time thou gavest new date.

*Shakespeare.*

Turning *despiteous* daughter out of door. *Id.*

Saturn, with his wife Rhea, fled by night; setting  
the town on fire, to *despite* Bacchus. *Raleigh.*

Preserve us from the hands of our *despiteful* and  
deadly enemies. *King Charles.*

His punishment, eternal misery,  
It would be all his solace and revenge,  
As a *despite* done against the Most High,  
Thence once to gain companion of his woe. *Milton.*  
Know I will serve the fair in thy *despite*. *Dryden.*

With men these considerations are usually the  
causes of *despite*, disdain, or aversion from others;  
but with God they pass for reasons of our greater tenderness towards others. *Sprat.*

Say, would the tender creature, in *despite*  
Of heat by day, and chilling dews by night,  
Its life maintain? *Blackmore.*

Venice! thy lot

Is shameful to the nations,—most of all,  
Albion! to thee: the Ocean queen should not  
Abandon Ocean's children; in the fall  
Of Venice think of thine, *despite* thy watery wall.

*Byron.*

DESPOIL', *v. a.* } De and spoil. Fr. *de-*  
DESPOILATION, *n. s.* } *pouiller*, Ital. *despogliare*;  
Lat. *despoliare*. See SPOL. To rob; strip; de-  
vest; deprive; taking of. Despoliation is the act  
of stripping, or plundering.

A groom gan *despoil*  
Of puissant arms, and laid in easy bed. *Spenser.*

You are nobly born,

*Despoiled* of your honour in your life. *Shakespeare.*

He waits, with hellish rancour imminent,  
To intercept thy way, or send thee back  
*Despoiled* of innocence, of faith, of bliss. *Milton.*

He, pale as death, *despoiled* of his array,  
Into the queen's apartment takes his way. *Dryden.*

Even now thy aid,

Eugene, with regiments unequal prest,  
Awaits: this day of all his honours gained

*Despoils* him, if thy succour opportune  
Defends not the sad hour. *Philips.*

These formed stones, *despoiled* of their shells, and  
exposed upon the surface of the ground, in time  
moulder away. *Woodward.*

DESPOND', *v. a.* } Old F  
DESPO'NDING, *adj.* } Lat. *des-*  
DESPOND'ENCY, *n. s.* } despair;  
to become hopeless or desperate.

It is every man's duty to labour in his  
not to *despond* for any miscarriages or d  
that were not in his own power to prev

Physick is their bane:

The learned leeches in despair depa  
And shake their heads, *desponding* of

Others depress their own minds, a  
first difficulty; and conclude, that ma  
gress in knowledge, farther than serves  
business, is above their capacities.

It is well known, both from ancient  
experience, that the very boldest atheist  
debauches and company, when they chi  
prised with solitude or sickness, are t  
cious, timorous, and *despondent* wretches

Aim at perfection in every thing, th  
things it is unattainable; however, th  
it, and persevere, will come much ne  
those whose laziness and *despondency* m  
it up as unattainable.

DESPO'NSATE, *v. a.* } Lat. *d*  
DESPO'NSATION, *n. s.* } betroth;  
to unite by reciprocal promises  
the act of betrothing.

DESPOT, *n. s.* } Fr.  
DESPOT'IC, *adj.* } Gr. *des-*  
DESPOT'ICAL, *adj.* } fear at  
DESPOT'ICALNESS, *n. s.* } make.)  
DESPOTISM, } lute p

rant: despotic is, absolute in power  
despotism, despoticalness, the power

God's universal law

Gave to the man *despotic* power  
Over his female in due awe,  
Nor from that right to part an h  
Smile she or lowre.

In all its directions of the interior fa  
conveyed its suggestions with clearness,  
them with power: it had the passions i  
jection; though its command over the  
suasive and political, yet it had the for  
and *despotic*.

We see in a neighbouring governme  
sequences of having a *despotic* prince.

Can *despots* compass aught that hails  
Or call with truth one span of earth t  
Save that wherein at last they crumble.

*Byron. Childs Harold*

DESPOT originally signified the  
herus, a master. Nicephorus ha  
his son, Stauracius, to be crown  
out of respect, would only take  
ΔΕΧΟΘΗC, leaving to his fat  
ΒΑCΙΑΕΥC. The following emp  
preferred ΔΕΧΟΘΗC to ΒΑCΙΑΕ  
lary Constantine XII., Michael D  
nus Diogenes, Nicephorus Bo  
Comneni, and some others. In im  
princes, the princesses likewise assu  
of ΔΕΧΟΘΗC. It was the emp  
Angelus that created the dignity of  
made it the first after that of emp



status, above those of Sebastocrator and Cæsar. The despots were usually the emperor's sons or sons-in-law, and their colleagues, or co-partners, of the empire, as well as their presumptive heirs. Those who were sons of the emperors had more privileges and authority than those who were only sons-in-law. Codin, p. 38, describes the habit and ornaments of the despot. See the notes of Father Goar on that author. Under the successors of Constantine the Great, the title Despot of Sparta was given to the emperor's son or brother, who had the city of Sparta or Lacedæmon by way of appendage.

**DESSQUAMATION**, *n. s.* Lat. from *squama*. The act of scaling fowl bones. A surgical term.

**DESSAU**, or **DESSAU**, a strong town of Germany, in Upper Saxony, the capital of the principality of Anhalt. It was first fortified by prince Leopold in 1341, and has one Lutheran and two Calvinist churches, besides a Catholic and Jewish chapel. Inhabitants about 10,000, of which the Jews form one-tenth. Dessau, the surrounding district, contains 53,500 inhabitants; its chief products are corn and flax: it has also considerable pastures. The people manufacture cloths, hats, and stockings. It is seated on the Mulda, a branch of the Elbe, twenty-eight miles south-east of Magdeburg, thirty-seven north of Leipsic, forty-eight south-west of Potsdam, and sixty north-west of Dresden. One of the most remarkable objects here is a dyke at the side of the Elbe, nearly five miles long, from ten to eleven feet high, and sixty feet thick at the base. Long.  $12^{\circ} 17' 1''$  E., lat.  $51^{\circ} 30' 6''$  N.

**DESSALINES** (John James), brother of the hero Toussaint l'Ouverture, of St. Domingo, was born in slavery, and first emerged with him to notice in the active part they both took in the commotions excited in St. Domingo in 1791. Dessalines particularly distinguished himself by his defence of Crete le Perrot against the French general, Leclerc. When Toussaint was obliged to make peace with the French, Dessalines was included in the treaty, though he by no means approved it; and what followed, but too well confirmed his suspicions of the French. Toussaint was treacherously seized, and carried to France, where he died. Dessalines was now unanimously elected commander-in-chief of the forces, which rose upon Rochambeau, who had succeeded Leclerc, and who treated the black inhabitants of St. Domingo with no less cruelty than his predecessor. He, at once, attacked Rochambeau with the main body of his army, near Cape François, the capital of the island, and defeated him with great slaughter, compelling him to retreat into the town, and finally to surrender to the English. Dessalines now exerted himself to provide for the future security, and concerted a variety of measures for the internal regulation, of the island. He first caused a proclamation of independence to be issued on the 29th of November, 1803, in which the colony was solemnly declared to be for ever separated from France. His next step was to abolish the name of St. Domingo, and substitute in its place the original appellation of Hayti. He was subsequently chosen governor of Hayti during his

life, with authority to appoint his successor; and on the 8th of October, 1804, proclaimed emperor. This dignity, the acceptance of which forms the only conspicuous act of folly in his course, he only enjoyed about two years. In October, 1806, Christophe, the second emperor, headed a successful conspiracy against him, and murdered him, by surprise, in his palace.

**DESSAULT** (Peter Joseph), an eminent French surgeon, born at Magny Vernois, near Macon, in 1744. He received the early part of his education among the Jesuits, with a view to the priesthood, which profession he afterwards declined, and became a student in the military hospital of Besort. When about twenty years of age, he removed to Paris, where the greater part of his time was spent at the anatomical theatres and hospitals; and, in the winter of 1766 he commenced teacher of anatomy. His fame soon spreading, he was in a short time attended by 300 pupils; and, in 1776, was admitted a member of the corporation of surgeons. In 1782 he was appointed surgeon-major to the hospital of Charity. At this time Dessault was considered as one of the first surgeons in Paris; and having succeeded to the next vacancy at the Hotel Dieu, he was entrusted with almost the whole surgical department of that hospital, after the death of Moreau. A clinical school of surgery, on a liberal and extensive plan, was here instituted by him, which attracted a concourse of students, not only from all corners of France, but from foreign countries, and his lectures were frequently attended by 600 students; so that it may be said, the greater part of the surgeons in the French army derived the knowledge of their profession from his school. In 1791 he commenced his *Journal de Chirurgie*, a work of considerable reputation. In the midst, however, of his useful and important labors, the prevailing parties of this turbulent period took offence at him as standing neutral; and in 1792, after being twice examined, he was seized, while delivering a lecture, and confined in the Luxembourg prison, where he remained three days; but his usefulness restored him to his former situation. Upon the establishment of the school of health, he was made clinical professor for external maladies; and he was particularly instrumental in the conversion of the Eveché into an hospital for surgical operations. So deeply, however, was he affected by the horrid scenes which were exhibited in May, 1795, that he was seized with a fever, accompanied with delirium, and died on the 1st of June, aged fifty-one.

**DESSERT**, *n. s.* Fr. *desserte*. The last course at an entertainment; the fruit or sweetmeats set on the table after the meat.

To give thee all thy due, thou hast the art  
To make a supper with a *fine dessert*. *Dryden.*

At your *dessert* bright pewter comes too late,  
When your first course was well served up in plate. *King.*

And here, assembled cross-legged round their trays,  
Small social parties just begun to dine;  
Above them their *dessert* grew on its vine,  
The orange and pomegranate nodding o'er,  
Dropped in their laps, scarce plucked, their mellow store. *Byron.*



DESTINE, *v. a.*DESTINATE, *v. a.*DESTINATION, *n. s.*

DESTINY,

Out of this prison helpe that we may 'scape,

And if so be our *destine* be shape

By eterne word to dien in prisoun

Of our lignage have som compassion.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*But who can turn the stream of *destiny*,

Or break the chain of strong necessity,

Which fast is tied to Jove's eternal seat?

*Faerie Queene.*

Thou art neither like thy sire or dam;

But, like a foul mis-shapen stigmatick,

Marked by the *destinies* to be avoided. *Shakspeare.*

The *destinies* of old put poverty upon the celestial  
herald as a punishment; and ever since those Ge-  
mini, or twin-born brats, Poetry and Poverty, have  
been inseparable companions.

*Burton.*

Wherefore cease we then?

Say they who counsel war: we are decreed,

Reserved and *destined* to eternal woe;Whatever doing, what can we suffer more? *Milton.*

They'll find i' th' physiognomies

O' th' planets, all men's *destinies*;

Like him that took the doctor's bill,

And swallowed it instead o' th' pill. *Hudibras.*

There is a great variety of apprehensions and fan-  
cies of men, in the *destination* and application of  
things to several ends and uses.

*Hale.*

All altars flame; before each altar lies,

Drenched in his gore, the *destined* sacrifice. *Dryden.*

Birds are *destinated* to fly among the branches of  
trees and bushes.

*Roy on the Creation.*

The infernal judge's dreadful power

From the dark urn shall throw thy *destined* hour.*Prior.*May heaven around this *destined* hean,

The choicest of its curses shed.

*Id.*

Some against hostile drones the hive defend,

Others with sweets the waxen cells distend;

Each in the toil his *destined* office bears,And in the little bulk a mighty soul appears. *Gay.*DESTITUTE, *adj.* } *Fr. destitué*; *Span.*

DESTITUTE, *n. s.* } *destituydo*; *Ital. desti-*  
*tuto*, from *Lat. destituo*, (*de* and *statuo*), to for-  
sake. Forsaken; abandoned; taking of; friend-  
less, low.

He will regard the prayer of the *destitute*, and not  
despise their prayer.

*Psaln cii. 17.*

That *destitution* in food and cloathing is such an  
impediment, as, till it be removed, suffereth not the  
mind of man to admit any other care.

*Hooker.*

The order of paying the debts of contract or resti-  
tution is set down by the civil laws of a kingdom; in  
*destitution* or want of such rules, we are to observe the  
necessity of the creditor, the time of the delay, and  
the special obligations of friendship.

*Taylor.*Take the *destined* wayTo find the regions *destitute* of day.*Dryden.*

Nothing can be a greater instance of the love that  
mankind has for liberty, than such a savage mountain  
covered with people, and the Campania of Rome,  
which lies in the same country, *destitute* of inhabi-  
tants.

*Addison.*DESTROY, *v. a.* } *Fr. detruire*; *Span.*

DESTROYER, *n. s.* } *destruire*; *Ital. distrug-*  
*gere*; *Lat. destruere*, *de* privative, and *struo*, *Gr.*

*σρρω*, to build. To overturn an edifice  
to ruin; lay waste; put an end to; kill.

Neither grutche ghe as *somme* of hem gr  
and thei perisscheden of a *distriere*. *Wiclif. 1*

The Lord will *destroy* this city. *Gen.*'Tis safer to be that which we *destroy*.

Than by destruction dwell in doubtful joy.

*Sh.*

Triumph, to be styled great conquerors,  
Patrons of mankind, gods, and sons of gods  
*Destroyers* rightlier called, and slayers of

The wise Providence has placed a certain  
between some animals and many insects,  
they delight in their destruction, though  
them not as food; as the peacock *destroys* as  
adders; the weazel, mice and rats; spide  
and some sorts of flies *destroy* spiders.

Do we not see that slothful, intemperate,  
continent persons *destroy* their bodies with  
their reputations with disgrace, and their  
with want?

Yet, guiltless too, this bright *destroyer* live  
At random wounds, nor knows the wound sh

Armies, though always the supporters an  
absolute power, for the time being, are  
*destroyers* of it, too; by frequently changing  
in which they think proper to lodge it. *Ch.*

When Nero perished by the justest doom

Which ever the *destroyer* yet *destroyed*,

Amidst the roar of liberated Rome,

Of nations freed, and the world overjoy

Some hands unseen strewed flowers upon

DESTRUCTION, *n. s.*DESTRUC'TIBLE, *adj.*

DESTRUCTI'VITY,

DESTRUCT'IVE, *adj.*DESTRUCT'IVEEY, *adv.*DESTRUCT'IVENESS, *n. s.*

DESTRUC'TOR.

*Lat. de-*from *destr-*

DESTRUY.

act or con-

tion of des-

hence, kill

der. *Des-*

is, liable to be destroyed; destructive is  
the quality of destroying; wasteful; ten-  
ruin, or causing it. The adverb and u-  
lowing, express a similar sense. *Dest*  
used by Boyle for destroyer.

For the armurist of our knyghthood ben not  
but myghti bie God to the *destruction* of sin

*Wiclif. 2*Broad is the way that leadeth to *destruction*'Tis safer to be that which we *destroy*,

Than by destruction dwell in doubtful joy.

*Sh.*

What a favour is it to men, to be reser-  
v common *destruction*, to be sacrificed to the  
and Redeemer.

*Bp. Hall. Contem*

Helmont wittily calls the fire the *destructor*  
artificial death of things.

In ports and roads remote,

*Destructive* fires among whole fleets we see

Excess of cold, as well as heat, pains us;  
it is equally *destructive* to that temper which is  
sary to the preservation of life.

He will put an end to so absurd a practice  
makes our most refined diversions *destructive*  
politeness.

What remains but to breathe out Moses  
O that men were not so *destructively* foolish!

*Decay of*



professors exceeds the destructiveness of the assaults, as intestine treachery is less foreign violence. *Id.*

It be accurately told, though we are instructed it is. *Johnson.*

If he was phantasy, and could be classed which live and suffer—let that pass—es away into destruction's mass.

*Byron.*

**TION**, *n. s.* Lat. *desudatio*. A inordinate sweating, from what cause

**UDE**, *n. s.* Fr. *desuetude*; Latin, in *desuesco*, *desuetus*; *de* privative be accustomed. Cessation of cus-

they to be prejudiced, rescinded, abro-ary laws, and *desuetude*, by change of ions. *Bp. Taylor.*

tion of numerous armies of barbarous countries were quickly fallen off, with *desuetude*, from their former civility. *Hale.*

**OR**, in antiquity, a vaulter or leaper, one horse by the bridle, and riding ped from the back of the one to the practice required great dexterity, ned before the use of either saddles. The custom was practised in the among the Numidians, who always them two horses for that purpose, m as they tired: the Sarmatæ also masters of this exercise.

**ORY**, *adj.* } Latin *desultorius*.  
} Vaulting or leaping to  
above. Unsettled; without method  
r action; wavering.

a *desultory* thought to atone for a lewd : nor for any thing but the superfluous habit upon a vicious one, to qual conversion. *L'Estrange.*

least tride cross his way, and his *desul-* presently takes the scent, leaves the un-half-mangled notion, and skips away in new game, *Norris.*  
*desultory* thoughts in their native order, as ay mind, without being reduced to rules, ed according to art.

*Felton on the Classics.*

**E**, *v. a.* Lat. *desumo*. To take from to borrow.

s doth suppose, as pre-existent to it, the matter out of which it is *desumed*, the ence of the sun, and the due preparation. *Hale.*

e left us relations suitable to those of lmy, whence they *desumed* their narra- *Brown.*

**I**, *v. a.* } Fr. *detacher*, from *dis* Lat.  
} **MENT**. } and *ATTACH*, which see. To seengage; hence to select and send out military: a detachment is applied to sent out.

hile the Squire was on his way, 's late orders to obey; him for a strong detachment s, constables, and watchmen.

*Hudibras.*

If ten men are in war with forty, and the latter *de-* tach only an equal number to the engagement, what benefit do they receive from their superiority? *Addison.*

The several parts of it are *detached* one from the other, and yet join again, one cannot tell how. *Pope.*

Besides materials, which are brute and blind, Did not this work require a knowing mind, Who for the task should fit *detachments* chuse From all the atoms? *Blackmore.*

**DETACHMENTS** are sometimes formed of entire squadrons and battalions; but more generally of a number of men picked out from several regiments or companies equally, to be employed as the general may see proper; whether on an attack, or to scour the country. A detachment of 2000 or 3000 men is a command for a brigadier general; 800 for a colonel; 400 or 500 for a lieutenant-colonel. A captain never marches on a detachment with less than fifty men, a lieutenant, an ensign, and two sergeants. A lieutenant is allowed thirty, and a serjeant; and a sea-jeant ten or twelve men.

**DETAIL**, *v. a. & n. s.* Fr. *detailler*. From *de* and *TELL*, which see. To relate in particulars, or with minuteness.

They will perceive the mistakes of these philosophers, and be able to answer their arguments, without my being obliged to *detail* them. *Cheyne.*

I was unable to treat this part of my subject more in *detail*, without becoming dry and tedious. *Pope.*

His train of reasoning is ingenious and whimsical; but I am not at leisure to give you a *detail*.

*Franklin.*

**DETAINEE**, *v. a.* } Fr. *detiner*; Span. *dete-*  
} **DETAINEE**, *n. s.* } ner, from Lat. *detinere*, *de*  
} and *teneo*; Gr. *tauvo*, to stretch. To hold or keep back; to restrain; to keep in custody. See **DETINUE**.

Let us *detain* thee until we shall have made ready a kid. *Judges*, xiii. 13.

These doings sting him

So venomously, that burning shame *detains* him From his Cordelia. *Shakespeare.*

*Detain* not the wages of the hireling; for every degree of detention of it, beyond the time, is injustice and uncharitableness. *Taylor.*

Judge of the obligation that lies upon all sorts of injurious persons; the sacrilegious, the *detainers* of tithes, and cheaters of men's inheritances. *Id.*

Had Orpheus sung it in the nether sphere, So much the hymn had pleased the tyrant's ear, The wife had been *detained* to keep her husband there. *Dryden.*

**DETECT**, *v. a.* } Lat. *detectus*, from *dete-*  
} **DETECT**, *n. s.* } gere, *de* privative, and *tego*  
} **DETECT**, *n. s.* } to hide. To discover a crime, or scheme; to discover generally.

There's no true lover in the forest; else sighing every minute, and groaning every hour, would *detect* the lazy foot of time as well as a clock. *Shakespeare.*

Should I come to her with any *detection* in my hand, I could drive her then from the ward of her family. *Id.*

Though should I hold my peace, yet thou Wouldst easily *detect* what I conceal. *Milton.*

*Detection* of the incoherence of loose discourses was wholly owing to the syllogistical form. *Locke.*



The utmost infinite ramifications and inosculation of all the several sorts of vessels may easily be detected by glasses. *Ray.*

Not only the sea, but rivers and rains also, are instrumental to the detection of amber, and other fossils, by washing away the earth and dirt that concealed them. *Woodward.*

**DETENTION**, *n. s.* From **DETAIN**, which see. The act of keeping back, or withholding; restraint; custody.

How goes the world, that I am thus encountered  
With clamorous claims of debt, of broken bonds,  
And the detention of long-since due debts,  
Against my honour? *Shakespeare.*

This worketh by detention of the spirits, and constitution of the tangible parts. *Bacon.*

**DETENTS**, in a clock are those stops which, by being lifted up or let fall down, lock and unlock the clock in striking. See **CLOCK**.

**DETENT-WHEEL**, or **HOOP-WHEEL**, in a clock, a wheel which has a hoop almost round it, wherein there is a vacancy, at which the clock locks.

**DETER**, *v. a.* } Lat. *deterreo*, from *de*  
**DETERMENT**, *n. s.* } and *terreo*, to frighten;  
Gr. *τρεω*, to tremble. To discourage by terror;  
to affright from.

I never yet the tragick strain assayed,  
*Deterred* by the inimitable maid. *Waller.*

These are not all thy *determents* that opposed my obeying you. *Boyle.*

Many and potent enemies tempt and *deter* us from our duty; yet our case is not hard, so long as we have a greater strength on our side. *Tillotson.*

Beauty or unbecomingness are of more force to draw or *deter* imitation, than any discourses which can be made to them. *Locke.*

The ladies may not be *deterred* from corresponding with me by this method. *Addison.*

Death is not sufficient to *deter* men who make it their glory to despise it; but if every man who fought a duel were to stand in the pillory, it would quickly lessen the number of these imaginary men of honor. *Id.*

Get a habit of doing right, whatever pain it costs you; let no difficulties *deter* you in the way of virtue; and account every thing else despicable, in comparison of this. *Johnson.*

I do not give you to posterity as a pattern to imitate, but as an example to *deter*. *Junius.*

**DETERGE**, *v. n.* } Fr. *deterger*; Lat. *de-*  
**DETERGENT**, *adj.* } *tergere*, *de* and *tergo*.  
To cleanse, applied particularly to the cleansing of sores. Detergent, having the quality of cleansing.

The food ought to be nourishing and *detergent*. *Arbuthnot.*

Sea salt preserves bodies through which it passeth, from corruption; and it *detergeth* the vessels, and keeps the fluids from putrefaction. *Id.*

Consider the part and habit of body, and add or diminish your staples as you design to *deterge* or incarnate. *Wiseman.*

**DETERIORATION**, *n. s.* From Lat. *deterior*. The act of making, or state of growing worse.

When the deterioration of a commodity, as an officer, arises from the fault of the keeper answerable for the same. *Dr. A.*

**DETERMINE**, *v. a. & v. n.* } Fr.  
**DETERMINATE**, *v. a. & adj.* } *miner*  
**DETERMINATELY**, *adv.* } *deter*  
**DETERMINATION**, *n. s.* } Ital. *det*  
**DETERMINATIVE**, *n. s. & adj.* } *deter*  
**DETERMINATOR**. } from

*terminus*; Gr. *τεμα*, a bound. To make a bound; hence to conclude; settle; generally; and to choose or influence. As a neuter verb, to conclude; settle and decide and resolve. Determine and mine seem synonymous as verbs active, former is obsolete.

And maad of oon al the kynde of men to on all the face of the erthe, *determining* ordeyned and teermys of the dwellyng of he *Wiclif. Deb.*

Jonathan knew that it was *determined* of him to slay David. *1 Sam.*

In those errors they are so *determinately* that they pay unto falsity the whole sum of ever love is owing unto God's truth.

Now, noble peers, the cause why we are is to *determine* of the coronation. *Shakespeare.*

I' the progress of this bus

Ere a *determinate* resolution, he,

I mean the bishop, did require a respite

The fly-slow hours shall not *determine*

The dateless limit of thy dear exile.

They have acquainted me with their *deter* which is to go home, and trouble you no more. *Id. Merchant of Venice.*

The knowledge of men hitherto hath been *mined* by the view or sight; so that whatsoever is visible, either in respect of the fineness of itself, or the smallness of the parts, or of the motion, is little enquired.

They were apprehended, and, after conviction *determined* by their deaths. *Id.*

Eve! now expect great tidings, which Of us will soon *determine* or impose New laws to be observed.

The proper acts of the intellect are in deliberation, and *determination*, or decision.

*Hale's Origin of Ideas.*

Whether all plants have seeds, were undeterminable, if we could conclude concern tongue, ferns, and some others.

*Brown's Vulgar.*

Like men disused in a long peace, more mate to do, than skilful how to do.

Think thus with yourselves, that you have making of things true or false; but that the existence of things is already fixed and set that the principles of religion are already *determinately* true or false, before you think.

Revolutions of state, many times make new institutions and forms, and often do either setting up some tyranny at home, or in some conquest from abroad.

A man may suspend the act of his choice being *determined* for or against the thing till he has examined it.

Demonstrations in numbers, if they are evident and exact than in extension, yet



ral in their use, and *determinate* in their  
Id.

as the studious man's hunger and thirst  
uneasy, he, whose will was never deter-  
by pursuit of good cheer, is, by the uneasi-  
ing and thirst, presently *determined*  
drinking.  
Id.

e voluntarily waste much of our lives, that  
can by no means consist with a constant  
of will or desire to the greatest apparent  
Id.

ividual action, which is justly punished as  
e, cannot proceed from the special influence  
inactive power of a just cause.

*Bramhall against Hobbes.*

sure springing from a gratified passion, as  
e pleasure of sin does, must needs deter-  
that passion.  
South.

ity, in the nature of it, supposes that a  
or may not be so, for any thing that yet  
is certainly *determined*, on the other side.  
Id.

ction hangs on every word we speak,  
y thought, till the concluding stroke  
es all, and closes our design.  
Addison.

er have they climbed that hill, which thus  
their view at a distance, but a new pros-  
ped.  
Atterbury.

all the planets move about the sun in cir-  
there must be given to each, by a deter-  
alse, those present particular degrees of  
hich they now have, in proportion to their  
om the sun, and to the quantity of the solar  
Bentley.

thy judgment, affections, and inclinations,  
thy *determination* upon every particular;  
ays as suspicious of thyself as possible.  
Calamy.

ned the knowledge of governing to justice  
and to the speedy *determination* of civil  
al causes.  
Gullicer's Travels.

g dispute among the philosophers about a  
ay be *determined* in the affirmative; that  
fund in a critic's head.  
Swift.

rm added to make up the complex subject  
ecessarily or constantly belong to it, then  
minative, and limits the subject to a part  
of its extension; as, every pious man  
ppy.  
Watts.

this unexpected distinction can be rated  
happy incidents of life, I am not yet able  
Johnson. *Plan of Dictionary.*

RATION, *n. s.* Lat. *de* and *terra*; Fr.  
Discovery of any thing by removal of  
hat hides it; the act of unburying.

terns the raising of new mountains, deter-  
he devolution of earth down upon the val-  
le hills and higher grounds.  
Woodward.

VISION, *n. s.* } From Lat. *deter-*  
ive. *adj.* & *n. s.* } *go*. See DETERGE.  
cleansing a sore. Having the power

An application that cleanses wounds.

ured *deterision*, but the matter could not  
ed.  
Wiseman.

ently see simple ulcers afflicted with sharp  
hich corrode them, and render them pain-  
ulcers, if not timely relieved by *deterisives*  
Id.

DETEST, *v. a.*

DETEST'ABLE, *adj.*

DETEST'ABLY, *adv.*

DETESTA'TION, *n. s.*

DETEST'ER.

Fr. *detester*; Span. *detestar*; Lat. *detestare*, according to Minsheu, from *deum testari* (*odium illud est*), a form of declaring hatred to, and innocence of any crime. Detestatio was the swearing a thing to be hateful and odious. To hate; abominate: hateful; abhorred: a detester is one who hates or abhors.

He was deadly made,

And all that life preserved did *detest*.

*Faerie Queene.*

That *detestable* sight him much amazed,

To see the' unkindly imps of heaven accurst

Devoure their dam. *Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

I've lived in such dishonour, that the gods

*Detest* my baseness. *Shakspeare.*

Glory grows guilty of *detested* crimes,

When for fame's sake, for praise, an outward part,

We bend to that the working of the heart. *Id.*

He desired him to consider that both armies consisted of Christians, to whom nothing is more *detestable* than effusion of human blood. *Hayward.*

Then only did misfortune make her see what she had done, especially finding in us rather *detestation* than pity. *Sidney.*

There is that naturally in the heart of man which abhors sin as sin, and consequently would make him *detest* it both in himself and others too. *South.*

Who dares think one thing, and another tell,

My heart *detests* him as the gates of hell. *Pope.*

Our love of God will inspire us with a *detestation* for sin, as what is of all things most contrary to his divine nature. *Swift.*

It is the peculiar condition of falsehood, to be equally *detested* by the good and bad. *Johnson.*

The *detestable* maxim, Qui nescit dissimulare nescit regnare, will not be heard of in heaven. *Bp. Watson.*

DETHRONE, *v. a.* Fr. *detroner*; *de* and throne (Lat. *thronus*). To divest of regal dignity.

The queen became the object of public hatred, the *dethroned* king was regarded with pity. *Hume.*

DETINUE, *n. s.* Fr. *detenue*. A writ that lies against him, who, having goods or chattels delivered him to keep, refuses to deliver them again.

DETINUE lies for any thing certain and valuable, wherein one may have a property or right; as for a horse, cow, sheep, hens, dogs, jewels, plate, cloth, bags of money, sacks of corn, &c. It must be laid so certain, that the thing detained may be known and recovered: and therefore, for money out of a bag, or corn out of a sack, &c., it lies not; for the money or corn cannot in this case be known from other money or corn; so that the party must have an action on the case, &c. Yet *detinue* may be brought for a piece of gold of the price of 22s. though not for 22s. in money. In this action, the thing detained is generally to be recovered, and not damages; but if one cannot recover the thing itself, he shall recover damages for the thing, and also for the detainer.

DETONATE, *v. n.*

DETONA'TION, *n. s.*

DETONISE, *v. a.*

Lat. *detono*, from *de* emphatic, and *tonus*, a sound. To thunder or make a great noise. It is used for various explosions in chemistry. To *detonise* is to calcine with detonation.



A new coal is not to be cast on the nitre, till the *detonation* occasioned by the former be either quite or almost altogether ended; unless it chance that the puffing matter do blow the coal too soon out of the crucible. *Boyle.*

ineteen parts in twenty of *detonized* nitre is destroyed in eighteen days. *Arbutnot on Air.*

The nitrates yield oxygen gas mingled with nitrogen gas by the action of fire; they give out a white vapour of nitric acid when acted on by concentrated sulphuric acid; and, when mixed with combustible substances, produce, at a red heat, inflammation and *detonation*. *Parke's Chemical Catechism.*

**DETONATION**, in chemistry, signifies an explosion with noise made by the sudden inflammation of some combustible body: such as are the explosions of gunpowder, and fulminating powders. See **CHEMISTRY**.

**DETORT**, *v. a.* Lat. *detortus*, of *detorqueo*. To wrest from the original import, meaning, or design.

They have assumed what amounts to an infallibility in the private spirit, and have *detorted* texts of scripture to the sedition, disturbance, and destruction of the civil government. *Dryden.*

**DETOUR DES ANGLAIS**, or English Turn, a circular direction of the river Mississippi, in North America, so very considerable, that vessels cannot pass it with the same wind that conducted them to it, and must either wait for a favorable wind, or make fast to the bank, and haul close; there being sufficient depth of water for any vessel that can enter the river. The two forts and batteries at this place on both sides the river, are more than sufficient to stop the progress of any vessel whatever. Dr. Cox, of New-Jersey, ascended the Mississippi to this place, anno 1698, took possession, and called the country Carolina. It lies eighteen miles below New Orleans, and eighty-seven above the Balize.

**DETRACT** *v. a.* } Fr. *detracter*; Span. *detratar*; Lat. *detractio*, here, from *de* (downward) and *trahere*; *DETRACTIOUS*, *adj.* } Gr. *ὑπαρσσω*, to draw. *DETRACTORY*, } To take away or subtract; generally to take away, or derogate from, character. *Detractory*, and *detractious*, alike mean, dishonorable to character.

Lest perauenture stryngyis, enuyes, sturdnessis, dissencionis, and *detractiounis*, priuy spechis of discord ben among ghoul. *Wiclif. 1 Cor. 12.*

I am right glad to be thus satisfied, in that I yet was never able till now to choke the mouth of such *detractors* with the certain knowledge of their slanderous untruths. *Spenser on Ireland.*

I put myself to thy direction, and  
Unspeak mine own *detractio*; here abjure  
The taints and blames I laid upon myself,  
For strangers to my nature. *Shakespeare.*

Those were assistants in private, but not trusted to manage the affairs in public; for that would *detract* from the honour of the principal ambassador. *Bacon.*

You shall enquire of the unlawful taking of partridges, and pheasants, or fowl, the *detractio* of the eggs of wild-fowls, &c. *Id.*

By the largeness of the cornices they hinder both the light within, and likewise *detract* much from the view of the front without. *Wotton.*

Fame, that her high birth to raise  
Seemed erst so lavish and profuse,  
We may justly now accuse  
Of *detractio* from her praise.

The painters are most envious, if they w  
Good colours for preferment; virtuous ladi  
Love this way to be flattered, and accuse  
The workman of *detractio*, if he add not  
Some grace they cannot truly call their own  
*Ma*

This is not only derogatory unto the wisdom who hath proposed the world unto our knowledge and thereby the notion of himself; but also doth unto the intellect and sense of man. *I*

The multitude of partners does *detract* from each private share, nor does the public it lessen propriety in it.

No envy can *detract* from this: it will shine tory, and, like swans, grow whiter the longer dures. *I*

Away the fair *detractors* went,  
And gave by turns their censures vent

If any shall *detract* from a lady's character she be absent, the said *detractress* shall be ordered to the lowest place of the room. *A*

The *detractory* lye takes from a great man reputation that justly belongs to him. *Arb*

*Detraction*, in the native importance of the signifies the withdrawing or taking off from a and, as it is applied to the reputation, it denotes impairing or lessening a man in point of fame ing him less valued and esteemed by others, the final aim of *detractio*.

Hard is his fate on whom the public  
Is fixed for ever to *detract* or praise;  
Repose denies her requiem to his name,  
And folly loves the martyrdom of Fame.

**DETRANCHE**, in heraldry, a line wise, proceeding always from the dext but not from the very angle diagonally the shield.

**DETRIMENT**, *n. s.* } Fr. *detrimen*  
**DETRIMENTAL**, *adj.* } Portug. and *I*  
*trimento*; Lat. *detrimentum*, from *detero*, worn, because that which is worn is the injured. Injury; diminution; harm. *Detal* is, mischievous; causing injury.

Difficult it must be for one Christian church to which all had received and held fast of many ages, and that without any *detriment* religion.

I can repair  
That *detriment*, if such it be, to lose  
Self-lost.

He with the foe began to buckle,  
Vowing to be revenged for breach  
Of crowd and skin upon the wretch,  
Sole author of all *detriment*  
He and his fiddle underwent. *H*

Let a family burn but a candle a night less usual number, and they may take in the S without *detriment* to their private affairs. *A*

Obstinacy in prejudices, which are *detriment* our country, ought not to be mistaken for resolution and firmness of mind.

And the reason seems to be, because an opinion of the displeasure of their superiors, and *detrimental* consequences which may accrue from may be a check upon them, and engage them the just regards which they expect.



ITION, *n. s.* Lat. *detero*, *detritus*, and *tero*; Gr. *trōō*, to rub. The act of rubbing away.

DEVOIR RIVER, or Strait of St. Clair, or river which flows from lake St. Clair into Lake Erie, and forms part of the boundary between the United States and Upper Canada. It is about 100 miles long, and the great channel by which the waters of the lakes of Canada, Huron, and Michigan, are conveyed to the sea. On the east side cultivation has made great progress.

DEVON, a flourishing town of the United Kingdom, on the west side of the above river. The military works are very strong; but they were destroyed in 1812, by the British, under general

DEUCE, *v. a.* } Lat. *detrudo*; *de* and *trudō*, *n. s.* } *trudo*, to thrust; to push. The act of thrusting or forcing down.

Others are of opinion, that the souls of men who have committed miscarriages, be *detruded* into the bosoms of the earth.

DETRUSION, the detraction of the waters towards the side, or towards the pole must be much increased.

DEUCE, *v. a.* } Lat. *detrunco*; *de* and *trunco*, *n. s.* } *trunco*, to cut; to shorten by deprivation of. Sometimes happen by hasty *detrunco*, or by the tendency of a sentence may be.

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a statue of the deity, of black stone, is constructed of large blocks of cut stone, piled up, without mortar, to the height of sixty feet. It is at the upper part of the town, and surrounded by twenty-five villages, which belong to the Brahmans. This place suffered much by an earthquake in 1803.

DEVASTATION, *n. s.* Lat. *devasto*, *de* and *vastus*. Waste; havock; desolation; destruction.

By devastation the rough warrior gains,  
And farmers fatten most when famine reigns Garth.

That flood which overflowed Attica, in the days of Ogyges, and that which drowned Thessaly in Deucalion's time, made cruel havock and devastation among them.

If it excite a man to wicked attempts, make him willing to sacrifice the esteem of all wise and good men to the acclamations of a mob; to overleap the bounds of decency and truth, &c. it is then not only vanity but vice; a vice, which of all others hath made the greatest havock and devastation among men. Mason.

DEUCALION, king of Thessaly, is said to have been the son of Prometheus. A flood recorded to have happened in this time (about A. A. C. 1500), is supposed to have been only an inundation of the neighbouring country, occasioned by heavy rains, and an earthquake that stopped the course of the river Peneus. He governed his people, we are told, with great equity; but the rest of mankind, being extremely wicked, were destroyed by a flood, while Deucalion and Pyrrha his queen saved themselves by ascending mount Parnassus. When the waters decreased, they went and consulted the oracle of Themis, on the means by which the earth was to be repopulated, and were ordered to veil their heads and faces, to unloose their girdles, and throw behind their backs the bones of their great mother. At this advice Pyrrha was seized with horror; but Deucalion explained the mystery, by observing, that their great mother must mean the earth, and her bones the stones; when taking them up, those Deucalion threw over his head became men, and those thrown by Pyrrha women. M. Bryant and others have supposed, that Deucalion was the same with the patriarch Noah; and that his flood in Thessaly, and those of Ogyges in Attica, and Prometheus in Egypt, were the same with that of Noah recorded in Scripture. See DELUGE.

DEUCE, Goth. *dus*; Lat. *dusius*; Arm. *teus*, once applied to good as well as evil spirits. See DEMON.

'Twas the prettiest prologue, as he wrote it;  
Well, the deuce take me if I ha'n't forgot it.

DEUCE, *n. s.* Fr. *deux*. Two: a word used in games.

You are a gentleman and a gamester; then, I am sure, you know how much the cross sum of deuce amounts to.

DEVELOP, *v. a.* Fr. *developper*; Lat. *develo*. To disengage from something that enfolds or conceals; to disentangle.

Take him to develop, if you can,  
And hew the block off, and get out the man.

DEUCE, *n. s.* Fr. *deux*. Two: a word used in games.



In his eye

And nostril, beautiful disdain, and might,  
And majesty, flash their full lightnings by,  
Developing in that one glance the Deity. *Byron.*

DEVENTER, the capital of a district in the province of Overijssel, Netherlands, situated in a fertile country, on the right bank of the river Yssel, is not a town of great size, but is strong, being surrounded by a wall, well flanked with towers, and defended with broad and deep ditches. The cathedral is a fine structure. There are besides three parish churches, and several convents; and an athenæum, or provincial academy. The manufacture of this place is linen, and the trade is in butter, cheese, and cattle. There is a beautiful promenade on the Yssel. Population 10,100. It is eight miles N. N. W. of Zutphen, and forty-six east of Amsterdam.

DEVEREUX (Robert), earl of Essex. See ESSEX.

DEVE'ST, *v. a.* Fr. *devestir*; Lat. *de* and *vestis*. See DIVEST. To strip; to deprive of clothes.

What are those breaches of the law of nature and nations, which do forfeit and *devest* all right and title in a nation to government? *Bacon.*

Friends all but now,

In quarter and in terms, like bride and groom  
Devesting them for bed. *Shakespeare.*

Come on, thou little inmate of this breast,  
Which for thy sake from passions I *devest*. *Prior.*

DEVE'X, *adj.* } Lat. *deverus*. Bending  
DEVE'XITY, *n. s.* } down; declivous; incur-  
vated downwards; declivity.

DE'VIATE, *v. n.* } Lat. *de viâ decedere*.  
DEVI'ATION, *n. s.* } To wander from the  
DE'VIOUS, *adj.* } right or common way;  
so go astray.

In this minute *devious* subject, I have been necessitated to explain myself in more words than may seem needful. *Holder.*

A story should, to please, at least seem true,  
Be apropos, well told, concise, and new:  
And whencesoe'er it *deviates* from these rules,  
The wise will sleep, and leave applause to fools.

*Stillingfleet.*

The rest to some faint meaning make pretence,  
But Shadwell never *deviates* into sense. *Dryden.*

Some lower muse, perhaps, who lightly treads  
The *devious* paths where wanton fancy leads. *Rowe.*

What makes all physical and moral ill?  
There Nature *deviates*, and here wanders Will. *Pope.*  
These bodies constantly move round in the same  
tracks, without making the least *deviation*. *Cheyne.*

One *devious* step at first setting out, frequently leads  
a person into a wilderness of doubt and error.

*Clarissa.*

Worthy persons, if inadvertently drawn into a *deviation*, will endeavour instantly to recover their lost ground, that they may not bring error into habit. *Id.*

Every muse,

And every blooming pleasure, wait without  
To bless the wildly *devious* morning walk. *Thomson.*

To what gulfs

A single *deviation* from the track  
Of human duties leads even those who claim  
The homage of mankind as their born due,  
And find it, till they forfeit it themselves! *Byron.*

DEVICE', *n. s.* See DEVISE.

DEV'IL, } Goth. *diöfl*; Sa  
DEV'ILISH, *adj.* } Teut. *teuffel*; It  
DEV'ILISHLY, *adv.* } Belg. *duvell*; Fr.

Span. *diablo*, from Lat. *diabolus*; Gr. *διαβόλω*, from *δια*, through and *βάλλω*, to strike through as with a dart; and with slander. The great spiritual enemy, called in Scripture 'an accuser; of reproach, expressing extreme wickedness, or supposed: a ridiculous epithet, adjective and adverb seem plain.

Clothe thou with the armure of God, that stande aghens aspiyngis of the *devel*. *Wiclif. E.*

Have not I chosen you twelve, and one a *devil*? *Bible. Joh.*

This wisdom descendeth not from above earthly, sensual, *devilish*. *Id. James.*

For grief thereof and *devilish* despight,  
From his infernal furnace forth he threw

Huge flames, that dimmed all the heaven  
Enrolled in dusky smoke and brimstone bill

The *devil* was ill and the *devil* a monk was  
The *devil* was well the *devil* a monk was he *Old*

See thyself, *devil*;

Proper deformity seems not in the face  
So horrid as in woman. *Sh.*

A *devilish* knave! besides, the knave is young, and blyth; all those requisites are his delight.

Worldly wealth is the *devil's* bait; and his minds feed upon riches, recede, in general, happiness, in proportion as their stores in the moon when she is fullest of light is far the sun.

Be frustrate all ye stratagems of Hell,  
And *devilish* machinations come to nought

Those trumpeters threatened them with alarms of damnation, if they did not venture tune, and all, in that which wickedly and those impostors called the cause of God.

The things, we know, are neither rich nor  
But wonder how the *devil* they got there!

With all these tokens of a knave complete  
If thou art honest, thou 'rt a *devilish* cheat

DEVIL, an evil angel, one of those celestial cast down from heaven for aspiring to with God. The Ethiopians paint the devil Satan and Belial are equivalent to this the Old Testament: nor do we meet with any heathen authors, in the sense it among Christians, that is, as a creature from God, although their theology was with evil genii and demons. See DÆMONIAC. Some of the aboriginal Americans have a notion of two collateral pendent beings, one of whom is good, the other evil; which last they imagine has the intendance of the earth, for which reason chiefly worship him; and hence they have said to worship the devil. The Chaldeans, Persians, in like manner, believed in both principle and an evil one; which last imagined was an enemy to mankind. Isaiah, according to some commentators, when speaking



the king of Babylon, alludes to that evil, calling him Lucifer, son of the

The Arabians call Lucifer, Eblis; the writers suppose to be a diminutive of the word Diabolus.

IN A BUSH, in botany. See NIGELLA.

SE', *v. a.* } Fr. *deviser*; Span. and  
ER, *n. s.* } Portug. *devisar*, according  
to Skinner, from Lat. *devis-*  
look about. To contrive; consider: a  
the scheme or plan contrived: hence  
rich or drawing on a shield; a token.

I frame evil against you, and *devise*: a de-  
er you. Jer. xiii. 11.

er merry fit she freshly 'gan to rear,  
did of joy and jollity *devise*,  
elf to cherish and her guest to cheer.

*Faerie Queene.*

at the nurse in her fool hardy wit  
red a bold *devise*, and thus bespake. *Id.*

ag the exchange of laws in practice with  
vice, which they say are better for the state  
arch, if they might take place; the farther  
ne them, the greater cause we find to con-  
though we continue the same we are, the  
ot great. *Hooker.*

but how you'll use him when he comes, and  
y *devise* to bring him thither. *Shakespeare.*  
entle; never schooled, and yet learned; full  
*devise*, of all sorts enchantingly beloved. *Id.*

This is our *devise*,

Falstaff at that oak shall meet with us. *Id.*  
divided from truth in themselves, they are  
et removed by advenient deception; for true  
I say they are daily mocked into error by de-  
Broune.

change we shields and their *devices* bear;  
el supply the want of force in war. *Dryden.*  
authors of useful inventions, the *devisers* of  
the laws, as were the philosophers of ancient  
een honoured as the fathers and prophets of  
city. *Grew.*

vern's harp, *devise* of her command,  
urrent of her mirth, shall there be seen. *Prior.*

ended is as a politick *devise* to lessen their  
and keep them low in the world. *Atterbury.*

sons of art, one curious piece *devise*,  
whose constructure motion shall arise. *Blackmore.*

tavern with a gaudy sign,  
ne bush is better than the wine,  
'cheat you once—will that *devise*,  
at as imported,\* cheat you twice? *Garrick.*

x, in heraldry, painting, and sculpture,  
m used to represent a certain family,  
action, or quality; with a suitable motto,  
in a figurative sense. The essence of a  
onsists in metaphorical similitude be-  
e things representing and represented:  
ung nobleman, of great courage and  
, is said to have borne his *devise*, in a  
at the court of France, a rocket mounted  
t, with this motto in Italian, 'poco duri  
'inalzi'; importing, that he preferred a  
t, provided he might thereby attain to  
eminence. The Italians have reduced  
ng of *devices* into an art.

DEVISE', *v. a.* & *n. s.* } Old Fr. *devise*, a  
DEVISEE', *n. s.* } will. To give by

will; the act of giving or bequeathing by will:  
devisee, he to whom something is bequeathed by  
will. Devisour, he who bequeaths it.

The alienation is made by *devise* in a last will only,  
and the third part of these profits is there demandable. *Loche.*

This word *devisee* is properly attributed, in our com-  
mon law, to him that bequeaths his goods by his last  
will or testament in writing; and the reason is, be-  
cause those that now appertain only to the *devisour*,  
by this act are distributed into many parts. *Cowell.*

DEVITABLE, *adj.* } Lat. *devitabilis*. Pos-  
DEVITATION, *n. s.* } sible to be avoided;  
avoidable: the act of escaping or avoiding.

DEVIZES, a town of Wiltshire, six miles north  
from Lavington, and eighty-nine west from London.  
It contains two churches and a chapel, besides a  
place of worship for dissenters, and returns two  
members to parliament. Here was formerly a  
castle, supposed to be one of the strongest in  
England; but it is now nearly destroyed. Two  
markets are held weekly, one on Monday, prin-  
cipally for butcher's meat; the other on Thursday  
for corn, wool, cattle, &c., considered one of the  
best in England. Considerable manufactures  
are carried on, particularly of serges, kersey-  
meres, and broad-cloth. In the market place  
is erected a stone with an inscription, as a me-  
morial of divine vengeance inflicted on a woman  
who called God to witness a falsehood concern-  
ing some money. The corporation consists of a  
mayor, recorder, ten magistrates, and twenty-  
four common-council-men. The number of bur-  
gesses is unlimited, and they have a right to vote  
for representatives in parliament as soon as they  
are made free. Its name is to be derived from  
the Latin *divisæ*, divided, from its having been  
anciently divided between the king and the  
bishop of Salisbury; and it is supposed to have  
been the Punctuobice of Ravennus. The Ro-  
mans enclosed it with a vallum and ditch, in  
which there is now a road almost round the town.  
Brass figures of household gods, coins, bricks,  
and urns, evidently Roman, have been dug up  
here.

DEVOID', *adj.* Fr. *vuide*. Empty; vacant;  
void.

When I awoke and found her place *devoid*,  
And nought but pressed grass where she had lyen,  
I sorrowed all so much as eass I joyed. *Faerie Queene.*

That the soul and angels are *devoid* of quantity and  
dimension, and that they have nothing to do with  
proper locality, is generally opined. *Glunville.*

DEVOIR', *n. s.* Fr. *devoir*; Lat. *debere*.  
To owe service.

DEVOLVE' *v. a.* & *n. s.* } Lat. *devolvere*; *de-*  
DEVOLUTION, *n. s.* } and *volvo*, to roll.

To roll down or upon; hence, to give in succes-  
sion. Devolution is the art of so removing or  
giving, or the removal so effected.

DEVON, a river of Scotland, in the counties  
of Perth and Clackmannan, which rises in the  
Ochil hills, and after running ten miles directly  
east, makes a turn to the west at a place hence  
called the Crook of Devon; then passes through



the vale of Glendovan to the Rumbling Bridge and Caldron Linn, where it forms a scenery, wild, beautiful, and romantic.

DEVONPORT, a sea-port, market, and borough town, in the county of Devon, England, returning two members to parliament under the Reform Bill of 1832. It is in the parish of Stoke Dancarel, on the Hamoaze, a creek in the estuary of the Tamar, and received its present name by command of George IV., in 1824. Its foundation may be attributed to the docks constructed here originally by William III., and enlarged in the reign of George III. The royal dock yard occupies an area of seventy-one acres and thirty-six poles, and includes one wet and three dry or graving docks, formed in so many excavations of a slaty stratum, and faced with Portland stone. In the dock yard is a chapel, opened in 1817, a magazine, gun-wharf, covering five acres of ground, a surgery and permanent medical establishment, besides officers' apartments, store houses, and other necessary buildings. The town is governed by commissioners, elected by those of the inhabitants who contribute eight pounds annually to the poor's rate, and for the election of members to parliament a returning officer is appointed by the sheriff of the county. Courts leet and baron are held by the constable of the manor, and petty sessions by the county magistrates. The commercial interests have been promoted by the erection of an exchange in Ker Street, and general traffic is conducted in a market place. The trade and manufacture peculiar to this place are block, sail, rope making, and such others as are connected with nautical equipment. The town is strongly fortified. The fort and battery on Mount Wise, command the harbour entrance and the sound, and here also is the house of the port admiral. There is one ferry at Crimble Passage, one to Mount Edgecombe, and a flying bridge preserves an easy communication with Saltash, in Cornwall. Devonport is 218 miles southward of London, and contains a population of 44,454 souls.

DEVONSHIRE is a maritime county, one of the most valuable in England; and is bounded on the north and north-west by the Bristol Channel; on the west by Cornwall, the river Tamar, and a small rivulet called Marsland Water; on the south and south-east it is skirted by the British Channel; on the east and north-east it borders on the counties of Dorset and Somerset, the dividing limits being artificial. In point of extent this county is second only to Yorkshire, and the fourth in population. Its greatest length, which is from north to south, is about seventy-three miles; and its greatest breadth, from east to west, sixty-five miles. It contains about 1,600,000 acres, or upwards of 2,493 square miles. This county is divided into thirty-three hundreds, 349 parishes, 117 vicarages, 1733 villages, one city, and thirty-seven market towns. It is in the diocese of Exeter, and the western circuit of the province of Canterbury.

It was incorporated by the Romans with Cornwall, under the general appellation of *Danmonium*; its original name being *Dyvnaint*, signifying deeps or hollows. During the Heptarchy

it belonged to the West Saxons, and was then called *Devonscyre*. It was included in the first Roman district, or *Britannia Prima*.

The climate of Devonshire differs materially in the northern and southern districts. It is, however, in general mild and genial. The northern district, considered in its most extensive sense, as comprehending the whole district between Dartmoor and the British Channel, but more generally speaking, embracing only the parishes round Biddeford, Barnstaple, South Molton, and the north coasts, is by no means comparable to the temperature which characterises the southern parts of the county; yet even here, and along the sea coasts, from the northern extremity of the district to the most southern, snow seldom lies longer than a few hours, except indeed on the summits of some of the high hills. In the southern parts the progress of vegetation is but little impeded during winter, and the ground almost constantly wears an aspect of verdure and beauty. The climate of Devonshire has been frequently recommended by the faculty as preferable for delicate invalids, even to Lisbon or the South of France. The face of the country is exceedingly varied and uneven. The highest parts, but particularly in Dartmoor and its vicinity, swell into mountains; the altitudes of the principal eminences being from 1500 to 1800 feet. 'On approaching this tract from the south and south-east, the eye is bewildered by an extensive waste, exhibiting gigantic and large surfaces covered with masses of scattered granite, and immense rocks, which seem to have been precipitated from the steep declivities of the valleys. These huge and craggy fragments are spread confusedly over the ground, and have been compared to the ponderous masses ejected by volcanoes, to the enormous ruins of formidable castles, and to the wrecks of mountains torn piecemeal by the raging elements.' Taking the place of high water in the Bristol Channel as a base, it appears that the highest hill, which is Dunkery Beacon, on part of Exmoor Forest is 1890 feet; the next, Castle Head-down, in Hay Bray parish, 1500 feet. The lowest, which is Hilsborough, overhanging the town of Ilfracombe to the east, is about 300 feet. Exmoor has recently been disforested by act of parliament.

The principal rivers of Devonshire are the Exe, the Torridge, the Teign, the Taw, the Otter, the Dart, the Plym, the Otter, the Axe, and the Tamar: though this last belongs more properly to Cornwall. It forms at its mouth the harbour of Hamoaze, or Plymouth Sound. All these rivers abound in fine salmon. Sufficient attention does not appear to have been paid to the inland navigation of this extensive county, though it contains one of the most ancient specimens of canal navigation in the kingdom: this is the Tavyden Haven at Exeter, which was formed in the year 1544. It is properly a canal, and conveys shipping from the tideway above Topsham to the quay at Exeter, which is effected by an embanked navigation, with a large lock placed near the middle of the line. The Crediton and Exeter Canal is also a fine work; as is the Tavistock Canal, undertaken in the year 1803, under the superintendence of Mr. John Taylor. The Tamar Canal skirts the western edge of this county.



principal mineral waters in the county are Bampton, Cleeve, Lomerton, Lifton and Ta-  
 kock.

The soils of this county divide themselves into  
 kinds, the first of which is found to occupy  
 smallest space. Risdon, in his Survey of  
 von, says that 'on the east side of the shire  
 mould standeth most upon white chalk, which  
 sassing good for sheep and corn.' The second  
 he red land, surrounding Exeter, and extend-  
 considerably east and west of it; this is  
 med good pasture land. The third is the  
 at soil, of which Dartmoor furnishes the prin-  
 al example. Of this soil Risdon speaks  
 ewhat disparagingly, saying that it is richer  
 its bowels than in the face thereof, yielding  
 and turf.' The fourth, which pervades by far  
 a greater part of the county, though varied in  
 appearances by casual admixtures, is what  
 lately obtained the name of dun-land. It is  
 nished probably by the decomposition of  
 schistus rock, on which it lies, and is found in  
 almost every state, from the most fertile to the  
 most sterile. The writer of most excellent and  
 accurate 'Remarks on the present State of the  
 County of Devon, introductory to the new edi-  
 tion of Risdon's Survey,' published in 1811,  
 observes that 'the soil most prevalent is remark-  
 able in two circumstances; its rapid spontaneous  
 production of grass when under good manage-  
 ment, and its total want of calcareous principle.'

The cattle of Devonshire are in the highest  
 request in all parts of the kingdom; and dis-  
 tinguished by fineness of bone and skin: the  
 sheep are small and subject to the rot. This  
 county has also long been famed for its cyder,  
 which is the beverage of the lower classes. Two  
 hundred years ago, many copyholders might  
 pay their lords' rent with their cyder only. The  
 above writer adds, that 'this is even now pro-  
 bably in some parts and in some seasons the  
 case, though the orchards are not either so large  
 and productive, or so numerous as they used to  
 be.' Much butter is made in the grass lands  
 and that without the churn. This writer has  
 given a truly interesting and scientific outline of  
 the mineralogy of Devon, which, as he very  
 justly observes, is a feature of distinguished im-  
 portance in this county, whether we regard the  
 value of the mineral productions, or the pheno-  
 mena which it presents to the scientific enquirer.  
 The general character of this mineralogy is that  
 of an elevated tract of granite, running from  
 north to south across the district, and passing  
 into or under a superstratum of primitive schistus  
 on its western side, and of alluvial sand-stone  
 and chalk on the eastern limits. A vein of culm  
 was found some years ago near Chittlehampton,  
 varying from about four inches to one foot in  
 thickness, and dipping about one foot in three to  
 the southward. It was wrought for a short time,  
 but the expense being considerable, it was  
 abandoned. In Bovey Heathfield, which seems  
 to have been formerly covered by the tide, that  
 remarkable substance called Bovey coal, is found.  
 It runs nine miles to the southward, keeping to  
 the west of large beds of potters' clay. The  
 uppermost strata are within a foot of the surface,  
 and from eighteen inches to four feet thick: the

deepest stratum is sixteen feet thick. At the  
 bottom is a bed of clay and sand. This coal  
 retains the vegetable structure, and has the ap-  
 pearance of charred wood, impregnated with  
 bitumen. It is divided into two kinds, the stone  
 coal and the wood coal; the last has more of the  
 peculiar properties. When this coal is burning,  
 a thick heavy smoke, of a fetid and disagreeable  
 nature, arises from it. The small coal, thrown  
 into a heap, and exposed to the weather, will  
 take fire of itself. Its specific gravity is from  
 1.4 to 1.558, and its proportion of pure carbon  
 from 54 to 75 per cent.

The chief mineral productions are tin, which  
 the granite hills of Dartmoor have produced  
 probably for many ages, as traces of seam works  
 and mines are to be seen in every part of this  
 immense waste. Stone, which is justly esteemed  
 as the best in existence for the purpose of build-  
 ing where durability is to be regarded. The  
 same kind of granite rock, which produces tin,  
 has also produced some lodes of copper. This  
 county also produces lead and silver; also iron,  
 zinc, antimony, manganese, wolfram, arsenic,  
 and cobalt. 150 miles of this extensive county  
 lies on the sea-coast, and contains many excellent  
 bays, harbours, and sea-ports, of which the prin-  
 cipal, and one of the best in the world, is that  
 of Devonport (late Plymouth Dock). See PLY-  
 MOUTH. The coasts, as well as the rivers, abound  
 with fish, and particularly the southern coast.  
 Torbay is famous for its fine soles and turbot.  
 Plymouth for John dorey; Topsham, Starcross,  
 and Lympstone for oysters: and the rare fish,  
 opah and torpedo, are sometimes caught on the  
 coasts. Its pleasant situation, and the cheap-  
 ness of all the necessaries of life, have induced  
 a great number of the nobility and gentry to  
 adorn it with seats.

This county sends twenty-two members to the  
 Imperial Parliament under the provisions of the  
 Reform Bill of 1832, viz. four for the county; two  
 for the city of Exeter; two for Totness; two for  
 Plymouth; two for Barnstaple; two for Honi-  
 ton; two for Tavistock; one for Ashburton;  
 one for Dartmouth; two for Tiverton, and two  
 for Devonport.

Of the 'Worthies of Devon,' collected down  
 to the commencement of the eighteenth century,  
 in a folio volume, by the Rev. John Prince, we  
 can only mention the following:—Sir John For-  
 tescue Aland, an able judge; Bishop Barring-  
 ton; Archbishop Baldwin, who accompanied  
 Richard I. to the Holy Land, and died there in  
 1191; Henry de Bathe, a learned judge, who  
 died 1261; Lady Mary Chudleigh; John  
 Churchill, the immortal duke of Marlborough;  
 The Rev. archdeacon Conant, on whom his  
 friend Dr. John Prideaux used thus admirably  
 to pun, 'Conanti nihil est difficile;' William  
 Courtney, archbishop of Canterbury, who con-  
 demned Wicliffe and his followers; Mrs. Han-  
 nah Cowley, an ingenious dramatic writer;  
 John Davis, the navigator who discovered the  
 well-known straights in North America, which  
 bear his name; Sir Francis Drake; John Dun-  
 ning, lord Ashburton; Sir John Fortescue;  
 Monk, duke of Albemarle; Sir Walter Raleigh;  
 Sir Joshua Reynolds, &c. &c.



The principal manufactures of the county are serges, kerseys, shalloons, broad-cloth, and blond lace, in which, and in corn, cattle, fish, and its mineral productions, the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade. Barnstaple potteries have increased of late years; they consist of dairy and kitchen utensils. There is a considerable ship-building trade at Barnstaple. The woollen cloth manufactures at Tiverton, Great Torrington, and the wool-combing of Chumleigh were formerly extensive, but have now decayed or vanished. There is, however, a considerable trade in the gloving business at the former place. The iron, cordage works, &c., for the Royal Dockyard at Plymouth, have long been extensive sources of manufacture. Serges are manufactured at Totness, Moreton, Hempstead, Chafford, and other places; and the long ells of Devonshire have been long known. Silk and porcelain have been deemed the principal manufactures of the county; but the productions from the minerals of the county are perhaps equal to any, excepting indeed the woollen manufactory. There is also a considerable quantity of yarn manufactured in the county, as well as of laces.

DEVONSHIRE (Georgiana, duchess of), was the eldest daughter of John earl Spencer, and born June 9th, 1757. She married, in 1774, William duke of Devonshire, and was long the object of attraction to the fashionable world, and the patroness of taste in the fine arts. She became well acquainted with the history and polity of nations, but the belles lettres principally attracted her regard. She left an elegant poem on the passage of Mount St. Gothard, which Dellile translated into French. She died at Devonshire House, Piccadilly, March 30th, 1806.

DEVORATION, *n. s.* See DEVOUR.

DEVOTE, *v. a. & adj.*

DEVOTEE, *n. s.*

DEVOTEDNESS, *n. s.*

DEVOTION, *n. s.*

DEVOTIONAL, *adj.*

DEVOTIONALIST, *n. s.*

*Lat. devotus, devotus; to vow. To dedicate to divine or superior service; hence to appropriate in any particular manner: to resign. Hence, also, to doom, to execrate. A devotee, Dr. Johnson defines as one erroneously or superstitiously religious; but it is also used for one warm in religion generally. Devotion is the act, habit, or state, of being devoted or given up to; devotional pertaining to devotion; devotionalist, synonymous with devotee.*

With *devotion* we ban avowid, that we schulen not taste any thing til we sleen poul.

Wiclif. *Dedis*, 23.

No *devoted* thing that a man shall *devote* unto the Lord, of all that he hath, both of man and beast, and of the field of his possession, shall be sold or redeemed.

Lev. xxvi. 21.

They tied were to stedfast chastity,  
And continence of life, that all forgon,  
They mote the better tend to their *devotion*.

Spenser. *Faerie Queene*.

Religious minds are inflamed with the love of public *devotion*.

Hooker.

What black magician conjures up this fiend,  
To stop *devoted* charitable Joeds?

Shakespeare.

Be opposite all planets of good luck  
To my proceeding, if, with pure heart  
Immaculate *devotion*, holy thoughts,  
I tender not thy besauteous princely da

Nor are the soberest of them so apt for  
tional compliance and juncture of hearts,  
sire to bear in holy offices, to be performed

Kin

In vain doth man the name of just  
If his *devotions* he to God neglect.

To destruction sacred, and *devote*

He with his whole posterity must d

Grateful to acknowledge whence his go  
Descends, thither with heart, and voice,  
Directed in *devotion*, to adore  
And worship God supreme, who made h  
Of all his works.

Whatever may fall from my pen to her  
age, relates to her but as she was, or may  
an obstacle to your *devotedness* to seraphick

He had a particular reverence to the pe  
king, and the more extraordinary *devotion*  
the prince, as he had had the honour to be t  
his education

Goddess of maids, and conscious of our  
So keep me from the vengeance of thy dart  
Which Niobe's *devoted* issue felt,  
When, hissing through the skies, the feath  
were dealt.

The owning of our obligation unto virt  
styled natural religion; that is to say, a  
unto God, so as to act according to his wil

Your *devotion* has its opportunity: we  
always, but chiefly at certain times.

The favourable opinion and good we  
comes oftentimes at a very easy rate, by a  
looks, with some *devotional* postures and g

Let her, like me, of every joy forgo  
*Devote* the hour when such a wretch was  
Like me to deserts and to darkness run.  
From the full choir when loud hosann  
And swell the pomp of dreadful sacrific  
Amid that scene, if some relenting eye  
Glance on the stone where our cold reli  
*Devotion's* self shall steal a thought from  
One human tear shall drop, and be forgo

Ah why, Penelope, this causeless  
To render sleep's soft blessings insinc  
Alike *devote* to sorrow's dire extreme,  
The day reflection and the midnight

Pilgrimages are often either enjoined by  
or undergone by *devotees*.

Aliens were *devoted* to their rapine and  
*Devot*

*Devotion* may be considered either as an  
public or private prayers at set times an  
or as a temper of the mind, a state and di  
the heart, which is rightly affected with su

Low on Christ's

With such a cause as yours, my lord, it  
cient that you have the court at your *devot*  
you can find means to corrupt or intimidat

He sue for mercy! He dismay  
By wild words of a timid maid!  
He, wronged by Venice, vows to s  
Her sons *devoted* to the grave.



mere ideal, unintelligible, notion, fit only for red monk, or the superstitious devotee.

*Porteus.*

ION, among the ancient Romans, a kind of ceremony, whereby they consecrated themselves to the service of some person. The Romans thought that the life of one might be ended by the death of another; whence votations became frequent for the lives of others. Devotion to any particular person was unknown among the Romans till the reign of Augustus. The day after the title of Augustus had been conferred upon Octavianus, a tribune of the people, published a law, that he would devote himself to him, and obey him at the expense of his life, as was commanded. This example of devotion was immediately followed by all the rest; so that it became an established custom for all to salute the emperor, without degrading themselves by being devoted to him. Before the Roman practice was much more noble and pious, viz. that of devoting themselves to the service of their country. See *DECIUS*.

DEVOUR, *v. a.* } Lat. *devoro*; of *GR.*  
*TRIER*, *n. s.* } *βοφα*, the food of beasts.  
 DEVOURER, *n. s.* } To eat up ravenously,  
 as a lion or wild animal; to destroy: hence  
 the metaphorical use of devouring, to devour  
 one or to enjoy with eagerness. Devoration  
 Johnson, is 'the act of devouring,' but  
 we see no instance of its occurrence.

He took the book of the angel's hand and de-  
 voured it, and it was in his mouth as sweets as honey,  
 and he had devoured it, and his mouth was bitter.

*Wielif. Apoc. 10.*

Devoureth before them, and behind them a  
 man.

*Joel, ii. 3.*

For willing dames enough: there cannot be  
 culture in you, to devour so many  
 of us; to greatness dedicate themselves,  
 and be so inclined.

*Shakspeare*

He looks the pent up lion o'er the wretch  
 who trembles under his devouring paws.

*Id.*

There is but a wilderness of tigers;  
 you must prey, and Rome affords no prey  
 to you and mine: how happy art thou, then,  
 that thou art to be banished!

*Id.*

He stalks behind thee, and each flying hour  
 is a loose remnant of thy life devour.

*Dryden.*

His pleasure as grows fresher upon enjoyment;  
 though continually fed upon, yet is never devoured.

*South.*

Notwithstanding that Socrates lived in the time of  
 the great pestilence at Athens, he never caught  
 the infection.

*Addison.*

When those leviathans are withdrawn, the lesser  
 supply their place: fraud succeeds to vio-

*Decay of Piety.*

While amazed his hurrying hordes retire  
 he fell havoc of devouring fire.  
 the first art! with piny rods to raise  
 attrition the domestic blaze.

*Darwin.*

DEVOT, *adj.* } Lat. *devotus*. See *DE-*  
*UTLY, adv.* } VOTION. Pious; religious;  
 devoted to holy duties.

His lights were more clear than our mid-day,  
 but devotest than most use to pray. *Donne.*

Her grace rose, and with modest paces  
 Came to the altar, where she knecled; and saint-like  
 Cast her fair eyes to heaven, and prayed devoutly.

*Shakspeare.*

One of the wise men having a while attentively  
 and devoutly viewed and contemplated this pillar and  
 cross, fell down upon his face.

*Bacon.*

Anon dry ground appears, and from his ark  
 The ancient sire descends with all his train;  
 Then with uplifted hands, and eyes devout,  
 Grateful to heaven.

*Milton.*

For this, with soul devout, he thanked the god;  
 And, of success secure, returned to his abode.

*Dryden.*

Think, O my soul, devoutly think,  
 How, with affrighted eyes,  
 Thou saw'st the wide extended deep  
 In all its horrors rise!

*Addison.*

We must be constant and devout in the worship of  
 our God, and ready in all acts of benevolence to  
 our neighbour.

*Rogers.*

To second causes we seem to trust, without ex-  
 pressing, as devoutly as we ought to do, our depen-  
 dence on the first.

*Atterbury.*

DEUTEROCANONICAL, from *δευτερος*, se-  
 cond, and *κανονικος*, canonical, in the school of  
 theology, an appellation given to certain books of  
 holy scripture, which were added to the canon  
 after the rest; either because they were not  
 written till after the compilation of the canon,  
 or by reason of some dispute about them. The  
 Jews acknowledge several books in their canon,  
 which were later than the rest. They say, that  
 under Ezra a great assembly of their doctors,  
 which they call by way of eminence the great  
 synagogue, made the collection of the sacred  
 books which we now have in the Hebrew Old  
 Testament, including those which were not  
 written before the Babylonish captivity, viz.  
 Ezra, Nehemiah, Esther, Ezekiel, Daniel, Hag-  
 gai, Zechariah, and Malachi; and the Romish  
 church has since added others to the canon, that  
 were not, and could not be, in the canon of the Jews,  
 being written long after. Such are several of the  
 apocryphal books, as the Maccabees, Ecclesiast-  
 icus, Wisdom, &c. Others were added stil-  
 later. The deuterocanonical books in the modern  
 canon are, the epistle to the Hebrews; those  
 of James and Jude; the second of St. Peter,  
 the second and third of St. John; and the Re-  
 velation.

DEUTEROGAMY, *n. s.* *Δευτερος* and *γαμος*  
 A second marriage;

DEUTERONOMY, *n. s.* *Δευτερος νομος*. The  
 second book of the law; the fifth book of  
 Moses.

DEUTERONOMY was the last of the five books  
 written by Moses, and contains, as its name im-  
 ports, the repetition of the law. It was written  
 in the fortieth year after the delivery from Egypt,  
 Moses being then in the 120th year of his age.  
 In the Hebrew it contains eleven parables,  
 though there are only ten in the editions of the  
 rabbins at Venice, twenty chapters, and 955  
 verses. In the Greek, Latin, and other versions,  
 it contains thirty-four chapters. The last is not  
 by Moses. Some suppose it was written by  
 Joshua immediately after Moses's death; which  
 is the most probable opinion. Others say it was



added by Ezra. See PENTATEUCH. This book opens with an interesting address to the Israelites, in which Moses briefly recapitulates the many instances in which they had experienced the divine favor since their departure from Horeb. He describes the success and victories which had marked their progress; and the incredulous murmurs and ingratitude, by which the people had incensed God; so that of the multitude which were brought out of Egypt, few now remained. He proceeds to rehearse the various commandments, statutes, and judgments which had been delivered to them by God, that they might become 'a wise and understanding people;' and while he intersperses with those laws, frequent instances of their past misconduct, he unfolds the glorious attributes of God, and reiterates many persuasive motives. He enjoins them, on their first entrance into Canaan, to give a public display of their reverence for God's law, by erecting stones on which all its words and precepts might be inscribed. He renews the covenant with the people, including all that previously passed at Horeb; and ratifies those assurances of spiritual blessings, long since imparted to Abraham and his descendants. He then, in consistency with the promises and sanctions of both covenants, sets forth, for their instruction, life and good, and death and evil, temporal and eternal recompense, present and future punishment.

DEUTEROPOTMI, in Grecian antiquity, a designation given to such of the Athenians as had been thought dead, and, after the celebration of the funeral rites, unexpectedly recovered.

DEUTEROSCOPY, *n.s.* Δευτεροσκοπία. The second intention; the meaning beyond the literal sense: not in use.

Not attaining the *deuteroscopy*, or second intention of the words, they are fain to omit their consequences, coherences, figures, or tropologies.

*Broune's Vulgar Errors.*

DEUX PONTS, a ci-devant duchy and principality of Germany, in the circle of the Upper Rhine. It was composed of the ancient county of the same name, and the county of Veldentz, and bounded by the provinces of Alsace and Lorraine on the south and south-west, by the electorate of Treves on the north, and the Lower Palatinate on the east; but much intersected by the possessions of different princes. In the year 1385 it was annexed to the Palatinate. The descendants of the princes palatine having obtained the throne of Sweden, and given three princes to that kingdom, Charles X. XI. and XII., it remained under the dominion of Sweden during that period; but this line becoming extinct, it descended to the house of Birkenfield, in the possession of which it continued till its late subjection to the power of France. The duchy was overrun by the French in 1793, and finally attached to that kingdom in 1797, when it was included in the department of the Sarre and Moselle. It is mountainous, and abounds in mines of copper, mercury, iron, and coals; as well as in vineyards, pastures, and corn-fields, which sufficiently supply the people. The principality, when under the German empire, paid for the Roman month 240 florins, and to the im-

perial chamber 172 rix-dollars, and the kruiters. The revenues were estimated at 3 florins. It returned in 1814 to the possession of Austria, and has since been exchanging other districts with Bavaria. It is now a the Bavarian province of the Rhine, and about 60,000 inhabitants.

DEUX PONTS, or Zweibrücken, as the Germans call it, a town of Germany, now in France, and included in the department of Sarre and Moselle, of which it is the capital, till December, 1797, of the duchy. It was the seat of justice for the principality, and has churches for Roman Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists. It is seated in the Erlbach, forty-six miles west of Mannheim south-west of Mentz, and forty-nine north-west of Strasburgh. Long. 7° 26' E. 49° 16' N.

DEUX PONTS, LES, a town of the Basso Rhine, the capital of the foregoing district, situated on the right bank of the Little Rhine, and has a castle, formerly the ducal residence. The chief objects of interest are a beautiful in the town church, the new Lutheran academy, and the orphan-house. In Stanislaus Leczynsky, king of Poland, his residence here, and built the palace of Sleswick, about half a mile from the town. The town is distinguished for its valuable editions of the Greek and Latin classics. Population 10,000. It is forty-six miles west of Mannheim, and eight east of Mentz.

DEW, *n.s.*

DEWBERRY, *n.s.*

DEWBESPENT, *part.*

DEWBURNING, *adj.*

DEWDROP, *n.s.*

DEWLAP,

DEWLAPT, *adj.*

DEWORM, *n.s.*

DEWY, *adj.*

flesh of the throat of oxen that laps the dew. The meaning of the other compounds is obvious. Dew is often used figuratively for bounty or love, as in the instance from Shakspeare.

At last the golden orient gate  
Of greatest heaven gan to open fayre,  
And Phoebus fresh, as brydegroome to his bride,  
Came dauncing forth, shaking his dewie haire.  
*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

A trickling stream of balm most sovereign  
And dainty dear, which on the ground still  
And overflowed all the fertile plain,  
As it had dewed been with timely rain.

He, now to prove his late renewed might,  
High brandishing his bright dew-burning blade,  
Upon his crested scalp so sore did smite,  
That to the skull a yawning wound it made.

With him pour we in our country's purge  
Each drop of us.  
— Or so much as it needs  
To dew the sovereign flower, and drown the weeds.  
*Shakspeare.*

Never yet one hour in bed  
Did I enjoy the golden dew of sleep,  
But with his timorous dreams was still awake.



in with apricocks and dewberries,  
 the grapes, green figs, and mulberries.

*Id.*

It go seek some dewdrops here,  
 hanging a pearl in every cowslip's ear. *Id.*  
 sometimes lurk I in a gossip's bowl,  
 in likeness of a roasted crab;  
 when she drinks against her lips I bob,  
 she withered dewlap pour the ale. *Id.*

And believe that there were mountaineers  
 on bulls, whose throats had hanging at 'em  
 ash?

*Id.*

Chimney bears a bounteous mind, indeed;  
 fruitful as the land that feeds us;  
 every where. *Id.*

Rain are but the returns of moist vapours  
 Bacon.

An host  
 like as the stars of night,  
 in morning, dewdrops, which the sun  
 on every leaf, and every flower. *Milton.*

From the earth a dewy mist  
 and watered all the ground, and each  
 the field. *Id.*

discerning Adam with such joy  
 as had, like grief, been dewed in tears,  
 vent of words, which these he breathed.

*Id.*

ning late, by then the chewing flocks  
 their supper on the savoury herb  
 as dewbesprent, and were in fold,  
 down to watch upon a bank  
 anopied, and interweave  
 ting honey-suckle. *Id.*

, as they stand here among the more de-  
 must be understood to mean raspberries,  
 most of the bramble kind. *Hammer.*

out, the dew-worm, which some call the  
 of the branding, are the chief. *Walton.*  
 Solomon above the rest appears  
 garments, dewed with gushing tears.

*Dryden.*

Where two adverse winds,  
 and from dewy vapours in mid sky,  
 with horrid shock, the ruffled brine  
 army. *Philips.*

In Gallic blood again  
 is reeking sword, and strows the ground  
 bloodless ranks. *Id.*

swales of fat about his shoulder slung,  
 his neck the double dewlap hung.

*Addison.*

lapt bull now chases along the plain,  
 ming love ferments in every vein. *Gay.*  
 meet as dewdrops on the flowery lawns,  
 sky opens, and the morning dawns.

*Tichell.*

ding streams the thirsty plants renew,  
 their fibres with reviving dew. *Pope.*

are the morn, with tepid rays,  
 folds the flower of various hue,  
 spreads no more the genial blaze,  
 or gentle eve distils the dew.

*Johnson. Ode to Winter.*

spring is come; the violet's gone,  
 the-born child of the early sun;  
 she is but a winter's flower,  
 on the hills cannot blast her bower,  
 she lifts up her dewy eye of blue  
 youngest sky of the self-same hue.

*Byron.*

Dew is defined by Dr. Hutton 'a thin light insensible mist, or rain, ascending with a slow motion, and falling while the sun is below the horizon.' He adds, 'that it appears to differ from rain, as less from more' Its origin and matter are doubtless from the vapors and exhalations that rise from the earth and water. See EXHALATION.

As it appears only during clear nights, when the heavens seem to glow with constellations, the ancients finely imagined it to be actually shed from the stars, and therefore to partake of a pure and celestial essence. 'Hence,' says Mr. Leslie, 'the vulgar notion that dew falls, which has prevailed through all ages, and continues to tincture every language.' Plutarch asserts it to be most abundant in the time of full moon. The lunar beams themselves were supposed to contribute some influence, being of a cold nature, and therefore possessed of a humifying quality. The moon, it was imagined, performed merely the office of an imperfect mirror, reflecting the softened lustre of the sun without any portion of his heat.' Certain abstergent qualities were at the same period ascribed to dew. Ammianus Marcellinus says that the health of mountaineers is principally owing to their constant exposure to bracing dews.

It was long disputed whether the dew is formed from the vapors ascending from the earth during the night time, or from the descent of such as have been already raised through the day. M. Huet shows that dew does not fall but rises. Some of the most remarkable experiments in support of this hypothesis are those of Mr. Du Fay of the (Royal) Academy of Sciences at Paris. He supposed, that if the dew ascended, it must wet a body placed low down sooner than one placed on a higher situation; and if a number of bodies were placed in this manner the lowermost would be wetted first, and the rest in like manner, gradually up to the top. To determine this, he placed two ladders against one another, meeting at their tops, spreading wide asunder at the bottom, and so tall as to reach thirty-two feet high. To the several steps of these he fastened large squares of glass like the panes of windows, placing them in such a manner that they should not overshadow one another. On the trial it appeared exactly as Mr. Du Fay had apprehended. The lower surface of the first piece of glass was first wetted, then the upper, then the lower surface of the pane next above it; and so on, till all the pieces were wetted to the top. Hence it appeared plain to him, that the dews consisted of the vapors ascending from the earth during the night; which, being condensed by the coldness of the atmosphere, are prevented from being dissipated as in the day-time by the sun's heat. He afterwards tried a similar experiment with pieces of cloth instead of panes of glass, and the result was quite conformable to his expectations. He weighed all the pieces of cloth next morning, to know what quantity of water each had imbibed, and found those that had been placed lowermost considerably heavier than such as had been placed at the top; though he owns that this experiment did not succeed so perfectly as the former. M. Muschenbroeck, who embraced the contrary opinion, thought he had



invalidated all Mr. Du Fay's proofs, by repeating his experiments with the same success, on a plane covered with sheet lead. But to this M. Du Fay replied, that there was no occasion for supposing the vapor to rise through the lead, nor from that very spot; but that, as it arose from the adjoining open ground, the continual fluctuation of the air could not but spread it abroad, and carry it thither in its ascent. This experiment of M. Muschenbroeck's was not considered sufficient to overthrow those of M. Du Fay. Yet one thing seemed to favor the hypothesis of its descent, i. e. that in cloudy weather there is little or no dew to be observed. And Muschenbroeck, continuing his experiments, made the interesting discovery that dew forms in very different proportions on different bodies, for that it will scarcely adhere to a polished metal surface, while it abounds on glass or porcelain. The color of the substance appeared also, he found, to alter the effects. A piece of red leather acquired, by exposure through the night, twice as much dew as another black or blue piece of the same size. He was afterwards, however, led to attribute this latter circumstance to the coloring matter of the morocco leather used.

M. Du Fay also continued his experiments: and the result was, that on neither side of this controversy was there a sufficient preponderance of proof to decide the question; but the old doctrine of Aristotle on the subject was revived, viz. that dew separates, under certain circumstances, from the air, and becomes attracted to particular bodies; or that the moisture, in which it directly originates, is suspended in the atmosphere by a perfectly chemical process, similar to that by which salts are dissolved in water, heat in both cases being found to increase the solvent power.

Professor Leslie's attention was first drawn to the subject as early as the year 1798. By means of his hygrometer he then established the curious fact, that the moisture of air is deposited on glass before it actually reaches the point of saturation. He thus explains, in his valuable *Treatise on the Relations of Air to Heat and Moisture*, the general result of his investigations at this and a subsequent period:—'In fine calm weather, after the rays of the declining sun have ceased to warm the surface of the ground, the descent of the higher mass of air gradually chills the undermost stratum, and disposes it to dampness, till their continued intermixture produces a fog, or low cloud. Such fogs are, towards the evening, often observed gathering in narrow vales, or along the course of sluggish rivers, and generally hovering within a few inches of the surface. But in all situations, these watery deposits, either to a greater or a less degree, occur in the same disposition of the atmosphere. The minute suspended globules, attaching themselves to the projecting points of the herbage, form dew in mild weather, or shoot into hoar-frost when cold predominates. They collect most readily on glass, but seem to be repelled by a bright surface of metal.' In clear and calm weather, the air is always drier near the surface during the day than at a certain height above the ground, but it becomes damper on the approach of evening, while, at some elevation, it retains a moderate degree of dryness through the whole of the night. If the sky be

clouded, less alteration is betrayed in the air, both during the progress of the day; at different distances from the ground wind prevail, the lower strata of the atmosphere thus agitated and intermingled, will be to a still nearer equality of condition.' (and 192). See METEOROLOGY.

Some interesting experiments were made in France, in regard to the tendency M. Du Fay had observed in different bodies, to imbibition in different proportions. It had long been known that dew is deposited on glass, when its neighbourhood remain dry; M. P. Montaubon however discovered some curious facts relative to this deposition. Thin plates of metal are fixed on pieces of glass, it sometimes happens that they are covered with dew as the glass itself; frequently they remain dry; and in this case they are also surrounded by a dry zone. If the other side of the glass is exposed to the air, the part which is opposite to the metal remains perfectly dry. If the metal be again covered with glass, it will lose its effect in preventing the deposition of dew.

These experiments may be conveniently confirmed on the glass of a window, when it is attaching itself to either of its surfaces. Prévost remarks that it often happens that dew is deposited externally, even when the air is warmer than without. A plate of metal fixed externally on the window receives a larger quantity of moisture than the glass, while the space between the glass and the metal remains dry: as humidity is deposited from without, the part of the glass opposite the internal plate is also more moist, while the external plate remains dry: at these circumstances may happen at once the same result. A small plate fixed externally opposite to the middle of the internal plate protects this part of the plate from receiving dew; and a smaller piece of glass, fixed externally, produces again a contrary effect: moisture on the internal one: and these changes may be continued for a number of days, until the whole thickness becomes less than half an inch. Gilt paper, with its surface exposed, acts as a metal; but if the paper only is exposed it has no effect. A plate of metal, on which moisture has been deposited, is fixed at a small distance from the glass, the moisture is transferred to the face of the glass immediately under it, affecting the metal: if this plate is very near the surface remote from the glass, the metal remains; but if on the side next the glass is destroyed. The oxidation of metals renders them also unfit for the experiment. When the parts are partly filled with mercury, or even when they are exposed to the dew, it is deposited on the parts which are above the surface of the mercury. But in all cases when the humidity is to be deposited, the results are confused. In order to ascertain these facts to some general laws, M. P. serves, that when the metal is placed on the warmer side of the glass, the humidity is deposited more copiously either on its either surface of the glass in its neighbourhood; but that, when it is on the colder side, it receives humidity, nor permits its deposition.



that a coat of glass, or varnish, destroys y of the metal, but that an additional etal restores it.

most was at first disposed to attribute nomena to the effects of electricity, but it possible to explain them all by the heat only; for this purpose he assumes, glass attracts humidity the more power- s temperature is lower; secondly, that tract it but very little; thirdly, that ts this attraction, notwithstanding the ion of other bodies; and, fourthly, that ve to glass, placed in their neighbour- power of being heated by warm air, cooled by cold air, with greater rap- nce, that the temperature of the glass s more nearly to that of the air on the site to the metal, and attracts the humi- dingly, more or less, either to its own r to that of the metal. We should, ave expected a contrary effect; that would rather have tended to communi- a glass the temperature of the air on its ; but, granting that the assumptions of st serve to generalise the facts with their temporary utility is as great as if fundamentally probable.

ells, however, has traced up the pheno- dew to their legitimate sources. 'Very observes, with Aristotle, 'is deposited, a calm and clear nights, or when the e high. It is never seen on nights both ed windy; and if, in the course of the e weather, from being serene, should be- k and stormy, dew, which had been , will disappear. In calm weather, if e partially covered with clouds, more appear than if it were entirely un-

robably begins in the country to appear ss, in places shaded from the sun, ear and calm weather, soon after the e atmosphere has declined, and conti- e deposited through the whole night, little after sun-rise. Its quantity will in some measure, on the proportion of in the atmosphere, and is, conse- greater after rain than after a long tract eather; and in Europe, with southerly y winds, than with those which blow north and the east. The direction of determines this relation of the winds to r in Egypt, dew is scarcely ever ob- cept while the northerly or Etesian winds

Hence, also, dew is generally more in spring and autumn, than in summer. s always very copious on those clear hich are followed by misty mornings, ow the air to be loaded with moisture. ear morning, following a cloudy night, s a plentiful deposition of the retained When warmth of atmosphere is com- ith clearness, as is the case in southern though seldom in our country, the dew much more copious, because the air aims more moisture. Dew continues to a great copiousness, as the night advan- the increased refrigeration of the ground. according to Aristotle, is a species of

rain, formed in the lower atmosphere, in conse- quence of its moisture being condensed, by the cold of the night, into minute drops. Opinions of this kind, says Dr. Wells, are still entertained by many persons, among whom is the very inge- nious professor, Leslie. (*Relations of Heat and Moisture*, pp. 37 and 132). A fact, however, first taken notice of by Gerstin, who published his *Treatise on Dew* in 1773, proves them to be erroneous; for he found that bodies a little elevated in the air, often become moist with dew, while similar bodies, lying on the ground, re- main dry, though necessarily, from their position, as liable to be wetted, by whatever falls from the heavens, as the former. The above notion is perfectly refuted by what will presently appear relative to metallic surfaces exposed to the air in a horizontal position, which remain dry, while every thing around them is covered with dew.

After a long period of drought, when the air was very still and the sky serene, Dr. Wells ex- posed to the sky, twenty-eight minutes before sun-set, previously weighed parcels of wool and swandown, upon a smooth, unpainted, and perfectly dry fir-table, five feet long, three broad, and nearly three in height, which had been placed, an hour before, in the sunshine, in a large level grass-field. The wool, twelve mi- nutes after sun-set, was found to be  $14^{\circ}$  colder than the air, and to have acquired no weight. The swandown, the quantity of which was much greater than that of the wool, was, at the same time,  $13^{\circ}$  colder than the air, and was also without any additional weight. In twenty mi- nutes more, the swandown was  $14^{\circ} 30'$  colder than the neighbouring air, and was still without any increase of its weight. At the same time the grass was  $15^{\circ}$  colder than the air four feet above the ground.

Dr. Wells, by a copious induction of facts, derived from observation and experiment, esta- blishes the proposition, that bodies become colder than the neighbouring air before they are dewed. The cold, therefore, which Dr. Wilson and Mr. Six conjectured to be the effect of dew, now appears to be its cause. But what makes the terrestrial surface colder than the atmosphere? The radiation or projection of heat into free space. Now the researches of professor Leslie and count Rumford have demonstrated, that dif- ferent bodies project heat with very different de- grees of force.

In the operation of this principle, therefore, conjoined with the power of a concave mirror of cloud, or any other awning, to reflect, or throw down again those caloric emanations which would be dissipated in a clear sky, we shall find a solution of the most mysterious phenomena of dew. Two circumstances must here be con- sidered:—

I. The exposure of the particular surface to be dewed, to the free aspect of the sky.

II. The peculiar radiating power of the sur- face. 1. Whatever diminishes the view of the sky, as seen from the exposed body, obstructs the depression of its temperature, and occasions the quantity of dew formed upon it, to be less than would have occurred, if the exposure to the sky had been complete.



Dr. Wells bent a sheet of pasteboard into the shape of a pent-house, making the angle of flexure  $90^\circ$ , and leaving both ends open. This was placed one evening, with its ridge uppermost, upon a grass-plate, in the direction of the wind, as well as this could be ascertained. He then laid ten grains of white, and moderately fine wool, not artificially dried, on the middle part of that spot of the grass which was sheltered by the roof, and the same quantity on another part of the grass-plate, fully exposed to the sky. In the morning, the sheltered wool was found to have increased in weight only two grains, but that which had been exposed to the sky, sixteen grains. He varied the experiment on the same night, by placing, upright, on the grass-plate, a hollow cylinder of baked clay, one foot diameter, and two feet and a-half high. On the grass round the outer edge of the cylinder, were laid ten grains of wool, which, in this situation, as there was not the least wind, would have received as much rain, as a like quantity of wool fully exposed to the sky. But the quantity of moisture acquired by the wool partially screened by the cylinder from the aspect of the sky, was only about two grains, while that acquired by the same quantity, fully exposed, was sixteen grains. Repose of a body seems necessary to its acquiring its utmost coolness, and a full deposit of dew. Gravel-walks and pavements project heat, and acquire dew, less readily than a grassy surface. Hence, wool placed on the former, has its temperature less depressed than on the latter, and, therefore, is less bedewed. Nor does the wool here attract moisture by capillary action on the grass, for the same effect happens if it be placed in a saucer. Nor is it by hydrometric attraction; for, in a cloudy night, wool placed on an elevated board acquired scarcely any increase of weight.

If wool be insulated a few feet from the ground, on a bad conductor of heat, as a board, it will become still colder than when in contact with the earth, and acquire fully more dew than on the grass. At the windward end of the board it is less bedewed than at the sheltered end, because, in the former case, its temperature is nearer to that of the atmosphere. Rough and porous surfaces, as shavings of wood, take more dew than smooth and solid wood; and raw silk and fine cotton are more powerful in this respect than even wool. Glass projects heat rapidly, and is as rapidly coated with dew. But bright metals attract dew much less powerfully than other bodies. If we coat a piece of glass, partially, with bright tin-foil, or silver leaf, the uncovered portion of the glass quickly becomes cold by radiation, on exposure to a clear nocturnal sky, and acquires moisture; which, beginning on those parts most remote from the metal, gradually approaches it. Thus, also, if we coat outwardly a portion of a window-pane with tin-foil, in a clear night, then moisture will be deposited inside, on every part except opposite to the metal. But if the metal be inside, then the glass under and beyond it will be sooner, or most copiously bedewed. In the first case,

the tin-foil prevents the glass under it from dissipating its heat, and, therefore, it can have no dew; in the second case, the tin-foil prevents the glass, which it coats, from receiving the caloric influence of the apartment, and it is sooner refrigerated by external radiation than the rest of the pane. Gold, silver, copper, tin, bad radiators of heat and excellent conductors, acquire dew with greater facility than platina, which is a more imperfect conductor; or than lead, zinc, and steel, which are better radiators. Hence, dew which has been upon a metal will often disappear, when other substances in the neighbourhood remain upon a metal, purposely moistened, will remain dry, while neighbouring bodies are acquiring moisture. This repulsion of dew is communicated by metals to bodies in contact with them. Wool laid on metal acquires less dew than wool laid on the contiguous grass.

If the night becomes cloudy, after having been very clear, though there be no change in the aspect to calmness, a considerable alteration in the temperature of the grass always happens. Upon one such night, the grass, after having been  $12^\circ$  colder than the air, became only  $2^\circ$  colder than the atmospheric temperature being the same as on the previous observations. On a second night, the grass came  $9^\circ$  warmer in the space of an hour and a-half. On a third night, in less than five minutes, the temperature of the grass rose  $1^\circ$  while that of the neighbouring air increased  $3\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ . During a fourth night, the temperature of the grass, at half past nine o'clock, was  $3^\circ$  warmer than twenty minutes afterwards, it was found to be  $39^\circ$ , the sky in the mean time having become cloudy. At the end of twenty minutes the sky being clear, the temperature of the grass rose again  $32^\circ$ . A thermometer lying on a grassy surface will sometimes rise several degrees, when the sun comes to occupy the zenith of a clear sky.

When, during a clear and still night, thermometers, placed in different situations, are examined at the same time, those which are situated where most dew was formed, were found to be the lowest. On dewy nights the temperature of the earth, half an inch or more beneath the surface, is always found to be warmer than the grass upon it, or the air about it. The differences on five such nights were from  $12^\circ$  to  $16^\circ$ .

In making experiments with thermometers, it is necessary to coat their bulbs with silver leaf, otherwise the glassy surface indicates a lower temperature than that of the air, or the surface it touches. Swandown seems to be a greater cold, on exposure to the aspect of a clear sky, than any thing else. When grass is laid down, the low atmospheric temperature, swandown is commonly  $15^\circ$ . Fresh unbroken snow is more productive of cold. Snow is  $4^\circ$  or  $5^\circ$  higher than swandown laid upon a clear night.

The following tabular view of observations by Dr. Wells, is peculiarly instructive:—



	6h. 45'	7h.	7h. 20'	7h. 40'	8h. 45'
at of the air four feet above the grass,	60½°	60½°	59°	58°	54°
— wool on a raised board,	53½	54½	51½	48½	44½
— swandown on the same,	54½	53	51	47½	42½
— surface of the raised board,	58	57	55½	—	—
— grass-plat,	53	51	49½	49	42

perature always falls in clear nights; position of dew, depending on the air, may occur or not. Now, if the effect of dew, the cold connected with it to be always proportional to the fluid; but this is contradicted by the cold of the body on which it is deposited. The same degree of cold in the precipitation may be attended with much, with little, or no dew, according to the existing state of the air in regard to moisture; all circumstances are found really to take place in the actual precipitation of dew, indeed, in some cases.

A few degrees of difference of temperature between the grass and the atmosphere are sufficient to determine the formation of dew, and it is in a proper state. But a difference of 30°, or more, sometimes exists, by reason of heat from the earth to the air, and hence, the air near the refrigerator must be colder than that somewhat above. Agreeably to Mr. Six's observations, at the height of 220 feet, is often, on clear nights, 10° warmer than what it is at the surface of the ground. And had not the air imparted some of its heat to the grass, the latter would have been probably 40° colder than the air.

Low bodies, or prominent points, are covered with hoar-frost and dew than the surface of the earth, because they cause the equilibrium of their temperature difficult to be restored. As aerial currents are necessary to the cooling effect of radiation, we can understand why the hurtful effects of heavy fogs, and dews, occur chiefly in low and confined places, and less frequently in open and elevated places. In like manner, the leaves of trees are dry throughout the night, while the grass is covered with dew.

Experiments can be made to ascertain in which clouds prevent or lessen the effect of a cold at night, upon the surface of the earth, greater than that of the atmosphere, but it may be concluded from the observations, that they produce this effect chiefly by radiating heat to the earth, in that which they intercept in its progress towards the heavens. The heat retained by the condensation of transparent into cloud must soon be dissipated; the effect of greatly lessening, or preventing, the appearance of a greater degree of cold than that of the air, will be by a cloudy sky during the whole of a night.

We thus explain, in a more satisfactory manner, than has usually been done, the sudden

warmth that is felt in winter, when a fleece of clouds supervenes in clear frosty weather. Chemists ascribed this sudden and powerful change to the disengagement of the latent heat of the condensed vapors; but Dr. Wells's thermometric observations on the sudden alternations of temperature by cloud and clearness, render that opinion untenable. We find the atmosphere itself, indeed, at moderate elevations, of pretty uniform temperature, while bodies at the surface of the ground suffer great variations in their temperature. This single fact is fatal to the hypothesis derived from the doctrines of latent heat.

'I had often,' says Dr. Wells, 'smiled, in the pride of half knowledge, at the means frequently employed by gardeners to protect tender plants from cold, as it appeared to me impossible that a thin mat, or any such flimsy substance, could prevent them from attaining the temperature of the atmosphere, by which alone I thought them liable to be injured. But when I had learned that bodies on the surface of the earth become, during a still and serene night, colder than the atmosphere, by radiating their heat to the heavens, I perceived immediately a just reason for the practice which I had before deemed useless. Being desirous, however, of acquiring some precise information on this subject, I fixed perpendicularly, in the earth of a grass-plat, four small sticks, and over their upper extremities, which were six inches above the grass, and formed the corners of a square whose sides were two feet long, I drew tightly a very thin cambric handkerchief. In this disposition of things, therefore, nothing existed to prevent the free passage of air from the exposed grass to that which was sheltered, except the four small sticks, and there was no substance to radiate downwards to the latter grass, except the cambric handkerchief.'

The sheltered grass, however, was found nearly of the same temperature as the air, while the unsheltered was 5° or more colder. One night the fully exposed grass was 11° colder than the air; but the sheltered grass was only 3° colder. Hence we see the power of a very slight awning to avert or lessen the injurious coldness of the ground. To have the full advantage of such protection from the chill aspect of the sky, the covering should not touch the subjacent bodies. Garden walls act partly on the same principle. Snow screens plants from this chilling radiation. In warm climates, the deposition of dewy moisture on animal substances hastens their putrefaction. As this is apt to happen only in clear nights, it was anciently supposed that bright moonshine favored animal corruption.

From this rapid emission of heat from the surface of the ground, we can now explain the formation of ice during the night in Bengal, while the temperature of the air is above 32°. The



nights most favorable for this effect, are those which are the calmest and most serene, and on which the air is so dry as to deposit little dew after midnight. Clouds and frequent changes of wind are certain preventives of congelation. 300 persons are employed in this operation at one place. The enclosures formed on the ground are four or five feet wide, and have walls only four inches high. In these enclosures, previously bedded with dry straw, broad, shallow, unglazed earthen pans are set, containing unboiled pump-water. Wind, which so greatly promotes evaporation, prevents the freezing altogether, and dew forms in a greater or less degree during the whole of the nights most productive of ice. If evaporation were concerned in the congelation, wetting the straw would promote it. But Mr. Williams, in the 83d vol. of the Philosophical Transactions, says, that it is necessary to the success of the process that the straw be dry. In proof of this he mentions, that when the straw becomes wet by accident it is renewed; and that when he purposely wetted it in some of the enclosures, the formation of ice there was always prevented. Moist straw both conducts heat and raises vapor from the ground, so as to obstruct the congelation. According to Mr. Leslie, water stands at the head of radiating substances.

DEWARCUNDAH, a sterile, or rather a desolated district of Hindostan, province of Golconda, extending along the south side of the river Godavery, and situated between the eighteenth and nineteenth degrees of northern latitude. The country contains the ruins of a number of forts and villages, which evince it to have been formerly well cultivated.

DEW-BORN, in country affairs, a distemper in cattle, being a swelling in the body, as much as the skin can hold, so that some beasts are in danger of bursting. It proceeds from greediness in feeding, when put into a rank pasture; but commonly when the grass is full of water. In this case the beast should be exercised, and made to purge well; but the proper cure is bleeding in the tail; then take a grated nutmeg, with an egg, and breaking the top of the shell, put out so much of the white as that you may have room to slip the nutmeg into the shell; mix them together, and then let shell and all be put down the beast's throat; that done, walk him up and down, and he will soon mend.

DE WITT (John), a celebrated Dutch statesman, born in 1625, at Dort. At the age of twenty-three, he published *Elementa Curvarum Linearum*; and, after taking his degrees, became, in 1650, pensionary of Dort, and distinguished himself very early in the management of public affairs. He opposed the war with the English as injurious to the States; and when the event justified his predictions, he was unanimously chosen pensionary of Holland. In this capacity he labored to procure a peace with Cromwell; in which peace a secret article was introduced for the exclusion of the House of Orange. In the war with England, after the Restoration, when it was thought expedient, on Opdam's defeat and death, that some of their own deputies should command the fleet, he was one of the three in commission, and wrote an accurate re-

lation of all that happened during the war; for which, at his return, he received solemn thanks of the States-General. He established the perpetual edict for the office of Stadtholder, which produced factions and tumults; on which the king begged dismissal from his post: granted, with thanks for his services. He opposed the invasion of the French, and the internecine war among the Hollanders, spread every where and confusion. Cornelius, the pet brother, was imprisoned, and condemned to exile; and a report being raised that he would be rescued, the mob armed, and surrounded the prison where the two brothers were confined. They dragged them out, barbarously murdered them, hung the bodies on the gallows, and cut them to pieces. Such was the end of John, a man whose life had been devoted to the service of his country, without any consideration of his own emolument. Besides the works mentioned, he wrote a book on the management of government, a translation of which, *The true Interest and Political Maxims of the Republic of Holland*, has been published in London.

DE WITT'S LAND, part of the north-east coast of New Holland, discovered by the navigator of that name, in 1628. It is supposed to comprehend about ten degrees of latitude and fifteen of longitude. Many low islands, were afterwards discovered along the coast, by the French.

DEXTER, *adj.*

DEX'TRAL, *adj.*

DEXTRA'LITY, *n. s.*

DEXTER'ITY, *n. s.*

DEX'TEROUS, *adj.*

DEX'TEROUSLY, *adv.*

The right, not the left; a term in heraldry, which is a synonymous general term. It signifies the state of being on the right hand, as dexterous is, clever; expert; because the right hand is generally more so than the left.

My mother's blood

Runs on the dexter cheek, and this sinistral bounds in my side's.

His wisdom, by often evading from danger, turned rather into a dexterity to deliver him from dangers, when they pressed him, than into a dexterity to prevent and remove them afar off.

In business dexterous, weighty in debate.

As for any tunics or skins, which should be taken from the liver for enabling the dextral parts, to conceive it diffuseth its virtue by mere heat, but by its veins and proper vessels.

Brounck's Vulgar

If there were a determinate prepotency in the right, and such as ariseth from a constant root, we might expect the same in other animals, but they are also differenced by dexterity.

They attempted to be knaves, but wanted dexterity.

But taen my study was to cog the dice, And dext'rounly to throw the lucky six.

They confine themselves, and are dexterous enough of the wares and products of the soil, which they content themselves.

For both their dexterous hands the sword wield.



ures, for instance, in which your Grace's been chiefly exerted, as they were adopted I, should have been conducted with more *dexterity*. *Junius*.

, in heraldry, an appellation given to belongs to the right side of a shield or ns: thus we say, bend dexter, dexter

he title of the sovereign of Algiers, protection of the grand signior. A der this title, was appointed by the he request of the Turkish soldiers, in ie term *dey*, in the Turkish language, n uncle by the mother's side. The the denomination is this: the Turkish onsider the grand seignior as their fa- state as their mother, by which they hed and maintained; and the *dey* as r of the state, and consequently the ll who are under his dominion. See

TES, *n. s.* Διαβαστης. A morbid ss of urine; a fatal colliquation by the ssages.

ase of that secretion may accompany the liquations; as in fluxes, hectic sweats and betes, and other consumptions.

*Derham's Physico-Theology.*

y of the *diabetes* and dropsy, produced by rmented or spirituous liquors, is explained e on the inverted motions of the lymphatic *Darwin*.

TES, from δια, through, and βανω, An immoderate flow of urine. A disease in the class neuroses, order spasmic. There are two species of this com- Diabetes insipidus, in which there is a adant discharge of limpid urine, of its lary taste; and diabetes mellitus, in e urine is very sweet, and contains a ntity of sugar.

OLICAL, *adj.* From Lat. *diabolus*. rick. See DEVIL. Devilish; of the qualities of the devil; impious;

This, in other beasts observed, t might beget of diabolick power, e within, beyond the sense of brute.

*Milton.*

etice of lying is a diabolical exercise, and se it are the devil's children. *Ray.*

e beautiful, and cannot, sure, be demons?

*L. True;*

vil's always ugly; and your beauty e diabolical. *Byron.*

HYLON, in pharmacy, an emollient plaster composed of mucilages or ices drawn from certain plants. See CT.

ODYIUM, *n. s.* Διακωδιον. The syrup es.

OSTICS, *n. s.* Διακυστικα. The doc- ounds.

RII, in antiquity, the name of a faction s. That city was divided into two par- : one desired an oligarchy, and would e a few persons employed in the govern- he others were for a democratical gov- t, wherein the whole people should

have a share. The first were called diacrii, and the latter pediaci; the latter inhabiting the lower, and the former the *ακρον*, or upper part of the city.—The laws of Solon imported, that Pisistratus should be chief of the diacrii; though the scholiast on Aristophanes's comedy of The Wasps, affirms that Pandion distributed the quarter of the diacrii among his sons, and put Lycus at their head.

DIADELPHIA, from δις twice, and αδελφος a brother, the seventeenth class in the sexual system, comprehending those plants which bear herma- phrodite flowers with two sets of united sta- mina; but this circumstance must not be abso- lutely depended on. They are the papilionacei of Tournefort, the irregulares tetrapetali of Rivinus, and the leguminosa of Ray. See BO- TANY.

DIADEM, *n. s.* Fr. *diadème*; Span. and DI'ADEMED, *adj.* Lat. *diadema*; Gr. διαδημα, from δια and δειω, to bind. The fillet, tiara, or crown of monarchs. See CROWN. Diademed is crowned.

And the ighen of him weren a flawme of fier, and in his heed manye *diademys*. *Wiclif. Apoc. xix.*

Thou shalt be a crown of glory in the hand of the Lord, and a royal *diadem* in the hand of thy God.

*Isaiah lxii. 3.*

The sacred *diadem* in pieces rent,  
And purple robe gored with many a wound.

*Spenser.*

Methought I sat in seat of majesty,  
In the cathedral church of Westminster,  
And in that chair where kings and queens are  
crowned,

Where Henry and Dame Margaret kneeled to me,  
And on my head did set the *diadem*. *Shakspeare.*

A crown,

Golden in show, is but a wreath of thorns;  
Brings dangers, troubles, cares, and sleepless nights,  
To him who wears the regal *diadem*. *Milton.*

A list the coblers' temples ties,  
To keep the hair out of their eyes;  
From whence 'tis plain the *diadem*,  
That princes wear, derives from them. *Swift.*

Not so, when *diademed* with rays divine,  
Touched with the flame that breaks from virtue's  
shrine,

Her priestless muse forbids the good to die,  
And opes the temple of eternity. *Pope.*

What is the exaltation of the meanest beggar from a dunghill to an earthly *diadem*, when compared with that of human nature from the grave to the throne of God.

*Bp. Horne, Psal. cxlii. 7.*

And she, proud Austria's mournful flower,

Thy still imperial bride;

If still she loves thee hoard that gem,

'Tis worth thy vanished *diadem*.

*Byron. Ode to Napoleon.*

DIADEM, in antiquity, a head-band or fillet, worn by kings as a badge of their royalty. It was made of silk, thread, or wool, and tied round the temples and forehead, the ends being tied behind, and let fall on the neck. It was usually white and plain, though sometimes embrodered with gold, and set with pearls and precious stones. In latter times it came to be twisted round crowns, laurels, &c., and even appears to have been worn on divers parts of the



body. The word is derived from the Greek, as mentioned in the preceding article.

**DIADEM**, in heraldry, is applied to circles or rims serving to inclose the crowns of sovereign princes, and to bear the globe and cross, or the fleurs-de-lis for their crest. The crowns of sovereigns are bound, some with a greater, and some with a less number of diadems. The bandage about the heads of Moors on shields is also called diadem, in blazoning.

**DI'ADROM**, *n. s.* *Διαδρομή*. The time in which any particular motion is performed.

A gry is one tenth of a line, a line one tenth of an inch, an inch one tenth of a philosophical foot, a philosophical foot one third of a pendulum; whose *diadroms*, in the latitude of forty-five degrees, are each equal to one second of time, or a sixtieth of a minute.

*Locke.*

**DIE'RESIS**, *n. s.* *Διαρρησις*. The separation or disjunction of syllables, as *aër*.

*Diæresis* is also a kind of metaplasm, or addition to a word, by dividing one syllable into two; as *salæ*, by a *diæresis*, is a word of three syllables, instead of one.

*Dr. A. Ross.*

**DIÆRESIS**, in medicine, is the consuming of the vessels of an animal body, when, from some corroding cause, certain passages are made which naturally ought not to have been, or certain natural passages are dilated beyond their ordinary dimensions, so that the humors which ought to have been contained in the vessels extravasate or run out.

**DIÆRESIS**, in surgery, an operation serving to divide and separate the part when the continuity is a hindrance to the cure.

**DIÆTETÆ**, in Grecian antiquity, a kind of judges, of which there were two sorts; viz. *Diætetæ cleroti*, public arbitrators, chosen by lot to determine all causes exceeding ten drachms, within their own tribe; and from their sentence an appeal lay to the superior courts. And *diætetæ diallecterii*, private arbitrators from whose sentence there lay no appeal. They always took an oath to administer justice without partiality.

**DIAGLYPHICA**, the art of cutting or engraving figures on metals, such as seals, intaglios, matrices of letters, &c., or coins for metals. See **ENGRAVING**.

**DIAGNO'STICK**, *n. s.* *Διαγνωστικόν*. A symptom by which a disease is distinguished. Used also figuratively.

One of our physicians proved disappointed of his prognosticks, or rather *diagnostics*.

*Harvey on Consumptions*

**DIAG'ONAL**, *adj. & n. s.* } Fr. *diagonal*,  
**DIAG'ONALLY**, *adv.* } from Gr. *διαγώνως*.

*μεγ, δια* and *γωνία*, an angle. A line from one angle of a square to another.

The monstrosity of the badger is ill-concomitant with some disadvantage; the shortness of the legs of one side, that might have been properly placed upon the *diagonal* mover.

*Brown's's Vulgar*

When a man has in his mind the idea of a square, viz. the side and *diagonal* of a square, and the *diagonal* is an inch long, he may have the line divided into a certain number of equal parts.

All sorts of stone composed of granules and rive in any direction, as well in a perpendicular as in a *diagonal*, as horizontally and parallel to the side of the strata.

If a region of air be gradually removed to the south, it would also blow *diagonally* to the north and east.

**DIAGONAL**, in geometry, a right line drawn across a quadrilateral figure, from one angle to another; by some called the diameter, others the diametral, of the figure.

*METRY.*

**DIAGORAS**, surnamed the Atheist, lived in the ninety-first Olympiad. He was not of Athens, but he taught there. He composed a poem which a certain poet stole from him. He sued the thief, who swore to give him his own, and obtained fame by it. This Diagoras to deny a Providence. The gods summoned him to give an account of his trine. He fled, and they set a price on his head, promising a reward to any who would kill him; but he took shipping, and was wrecked.

**DI'AGRAM**, *n. s.* *Διαγράμμα*. A diagram of geometrical figures; a mathematical

Many a fair precept in poetry is like a demonstration in the mathematics; very like the *diagram*, but failing in the mechanic of

Why do not these persons make a *diagram* of cogitative lines and angles, and demonstrate the properties of perception and appetite, as plants know the other properties of triangles and

**DIAGRY'DIATES**, *n. s.* From *Ιατρικόν* and *ρυδιον*. Strong purgatives made with *rydium*.

All cholerick humours ought to be evacuated by *diagrydiates*, mixed with tartar, or some acerb powder.



## DIALLING

n. s. } Lat. *diale*, belonging to the  
 LATE, } day. An instrument for mark-  
 NO, } ing the hour of the day. Dial-  
 ST. } ling is the art of making

of windowes and delightful bowres,  
 top a *diall* told the houres.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*  
 clemen, the time of life is short :  
 that shortness basely were too long,  
 fe did ride upon a *dial's* point  
 ng at the arrival of an hour.

*Shakespeare. Henry IV.*  
 necessary in the arts of *dialling* or naviga-  
 tion the true system or earth's motion.

*Berkeley.*  
 lls us that the two friends, being each of  
 sed of a magnetical needle, made a kind  
 , inscribing it with the four-and-twenty  
 in same manner as the hours of the day  
 upon the ordinary *dial-plate*.

*Addison's Spectator.*  
 dialists, by the geometrick considerations  
 ve found out rules to mark out the irregu-  
 f the shadow in all latitudes, and, on all  
*Moxon.*

ial is derived from the Latin *dies*, day,  
 indicates the hour of the day, the an-  
 called it *sciattherium*, from its effect  
 low.

LING may be defined the art of draw-  
 on the surface of any given body,  
 ane or curved. By the Greeks and  
 is art is called *gnomonica*, and *scia-*  
 ause it distinguishes the hours by the  
 the *gnomon*.

art is of great antiquity, for we read in  
 viii. 8, of the dial of Ahaz, who began  
 0 years before Alexander, and within  
 rs of the building of Rome.

ag the ancients Anaximenes the Mile-  
 hales, are said to have made dials; and  
 mentions one made by the ancient Chal-  
 in Berosus, on a reclining plane almost  
 the equator.

archus of Samos invented the hemi-  
 dial, and there were at the same time  
 trical ones, with a needle for a  
 The discus of Aristarchus was an  
 dial, with its rim raised up all  
 prevent the shadow from stretching

a late before the Romans became ac-  
 ith dials. The first sun-dial at Rome  
 by Papirius Cursor, about the year of  
 0; before which time, says Pliny, there  
 on of any reckoning of time but by the  
 ; and setting : it was set up at or near  
 of Quirinus, but was very inaccurate.  
 ty years after M. Valerius Messala,  
 al, brought out of Sicily another dial,  
 et up on a pillar near the rostrum; but  
 was not made for that latitude it did  
 be time truly. They made use of it for  
 L. VII.

ninety-nine years; till Martius Philippus set up  
 another more exact.

6. The first professed writer on dialling is Cla-  
 vius: who demonstrates both the theory and the  
 operations, after the manner of the ancient ma-  
 thematicians; but with so much intricacy, that  
 few perhaps ever read them all. Dechales and  
 Ozanam give much simpler demonstrations in  
 their Courses, and Wolfius in his Elements.  
 M. Picard has given a new method of making  
 large dials, by calculating the hour lines; and  
 M. De la Hire, in his *Dialling*, printed in 1683,  
 a geometrical method of drawing hour lines from  
 certain points determined by observation. Eber-  
 hardus Welperus, in 1625, published his *Dialling*,  
 in which he lays down a method of drawing the  
 primary dials on a very easy foundation. The  
 same foundation is described at length by Sebas-  
 tian Munster, in his *Rudimenta Mathematica*, pub-  
 lished in 1551.

7. Sturmius, in 1672, published a new edition  
 of Welperus's *Dialling*, with the addition of a  
 whole second part, about inclining and declining  
 dials, &c. In 1708 the same work, with Stur-  
 mius's additions, was republished, with the ad-  
 dition of a fourth part, containing Picard's and  
 De la Hire's methods of drawing large dials.  
 Paterson, Michael and Muller, have each written  
 on dialling in German; Coetsius, in his *Horolo-*  
*graphia Plana*, printed in 1689; Gauppenius  
 in his *Gnomonica Mechanica*; Bion in his *Use*  
*of Mathematical instruments*; the late ingenious  
 Mr. Ferguson in his *Select Lectures*; Mr. Emerson  
 in his *Dialling*; and Mr. W. Jones in his *Instru-*  
*mental Dialling*, &c.

## DEFINITIONS.

8. A dial is a surface, generally plane, upon  
 which lines are described in such a manner, that  
 the shadow of a wire, or of the upper edge of  
 another plane, erected perpendicularly on the  
 former, may show the time of the day.

9. The edge of the plane by which the time  
 of the day is found is called the *stile* of the dial,  
 which must be parallel to the earth's axis; and  
 the line on which the said plane is erected is  
 called the *substile*.

10. The angle included between the *substile*  
 and *stile* is called the *elevation*, or *height*, of the  
*stile*.

11. Dials, the planes of which are parallel to  
 the plane of the horizon, are called *horizontal*  
*dials*; and those which have their planes per-  
 pendicular to the plane of the horizon, are called  
*vertical*, or *erect*, dials.

12. Erect dials, the planes of which directly  
 front the north or south, are called *direct north*,  
 or *south*, dials: all other erect dials are called  
*decliners*, because their planes are turned away  
 from the north or south.

13. Dials, the planes of which are neither pa-  
 rallel nor perpendicular to the plane of the horizon,  
 are called *inclining* or *reclining* dials, according  
 as their planes make acute or obtuse angles



with the horizon; and, if their planes are also turned aside from facing the south or north, they are called declining inclining, or declining reclining, dials.

14. The intersection of the plane of the dial, with that of the meridian, passing through the stile, is called the meridian of the dial, or the hour line of XII.

15. Meridians, the planes of which pass through the stile, and make angles of  $15^\circ$ ,  $30^\circ$ ,  $45^\circ$ ,  $60^\circ$ ,  $75^\circ$ , and  $90^\circ$ , with the meridian of the place, which marks the hour line of XII, are called hour circles; and their intersections with the plane of the dial are called hour lines.

16. In all declining dials the substile makes an angle with the hour line of XII., and this angle is called the distance of the substile from the meridian.

17. The declining plane's difference of longitude is the angle formed at the intersection of the stile and plane of the dial, by two meridians; one of which passes through the hour line of XII, and the other through the substile.

#### PRINCIPLES OF DIALLING.

18. If the whole earth, *a P e p*, fig. 1, plate I. were transparent and hollow, like a sphere of glass, and had its equator divided into twenty-four equal parts by so many meridian semicircles, *a, b, c, d, e, f, g, &c.*, one of which is the geographical meridian of any given place, as London, (which is supposed to be at the point *a*); and if the hour of XII were marked at the equator, both upon that meridian and the opposite one, and all the rest of the hours in order on the rest of the meridians, those meridians would be the hour circles of London: then, if the sphere had an opaque axis, as *P E p*, terminating in the poles *P* and *p*, the shadow of the axis would fall upon every particular meridian and hour when the sun came to the plane of the opposite meridian, and would consequently show the time at London, and at all other places on the meridian of London.

19. If this sphere were cut through the middle by a solid plane, *A B C D*, in the rational horizon of London, one-half of the axis *E P* would be above the plane, and the other half below it; and, if straight lines were drawn from the centre of the plane to those points where its circumference is cut by the hour circles of the sphere, those lines would be the hour lines of a horizontal dial for London: for the shadow of the axis would fall upon each particular hour line of the dial when it fell upon the like hour circle of the sphere.

20. If the plane which cuts the sphere be upright, as *A F C G*, fig. 2. touching the given place (London) at *F*, and directly facing the meridian of London, it will then become the plane of an erect direct south dial; and if right lines be drawn, from its centre, *F*, to those points of its circumference where the hour circles of the sphere cut it, these will be the hour lines of a vertical or direct south dial for London, to which the hours are to be set, as in the figure, and the lower half, *E p*, of the axis will cast a shadow on the hour of the day in this dial, at the same time that it would fall upon the like hour

circle of the sphere if the dial plane were horizontal.

21. If the plane (still facing the meridian) be made to incline, or recline, any given number of degrees, the hour circles of the sphere will still cut the edge of the plane in those points to which the hour lines must be drawn straight from the centre; and the axis of the sphere will cast a shadow on these lines at the respective hours.

22. The same will be the case if the plane be made to decline by any given number of degrees from the meridian towards the east or west: provided the declination be less than  $90^\circ$ , or the reclination be less than the co-latitude of the place; and the axis of the sphere will be a gnomon, or stile, for the dial. But it cannot be a gnomon when the declination is quite  $90^\circ$ , nor when the reclination is equal to the co-latitude; because, in these two cases, the axis has no elevation above the plane of the dial. And thus it appears that the plane of every dial represents the plane of some great circle upon the earth; and the gnomon the earth's axis, whether it be a fine wire, as in the above figures, or the edge of a thin plate, as in the common horizontal dials.

23. The whole earth, as to its bulk, is but a point, if compared to its distance from the sun; and therefore, if a small sphere of glass be placed upon any part of the earth's surface, so that its axis be parallel to the axis of the earth, and the sphere have such lines upon it, and such planes within it, as above described, it will show the hours of the day as truly as if it were placed at the earth's centre, and the shell of the earth were transparent as glass.

24. But because it is impossible to have a hollow sphere of glass, perfectly true, blown round a solid plane; or, if it were, we could not get at the plane within the glass to set it in any given position; we make use of a wire sphere to explain the principles of dialling, by joining twenty-four semicircles together at the poles, and putting a thin flat plate of brass within it, as is shown in the preceding figures.

#### DIALLING BY THE TERRESTRIAL GLOBE

25. A common globe of twelve inches diameter has generally twenty-four meridian semicircles drawn upon it. If such a globe be elevated to the latitude of any given place, and turned about until one of these meridians cut the horizon at the north point, where the hour of XII is supposed to be marked, the rest of the meridians will cut the horizon at the respective distances of all the other hours from XII. And if these points of distance be marked on the horizon, and the globe be taken out of the horizon, and a dial board or plate be put into its place, even with the surface of the horizon; then if straight lines be drawn from the centre of the board, to those points of distance on the horizon which were cut by the semicircles; these lines will be the hour lines of a horizontal dial for that latitude, the edge of whose gnomon must be in the very same situation in which the axis of the globe was before it was taken out of the horizon: that is, the gnomon must make an angle with the plane of the dial,



# DIALLING.

Fig. 1.

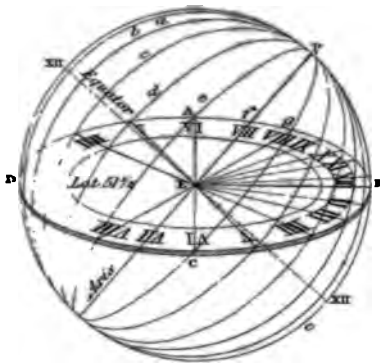


Fig. 2.

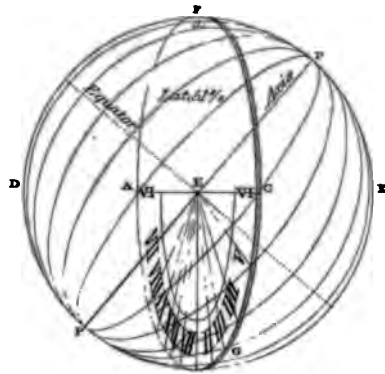


Fig. 3.

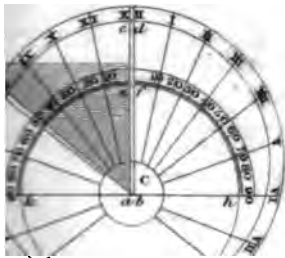


Fig. 4.

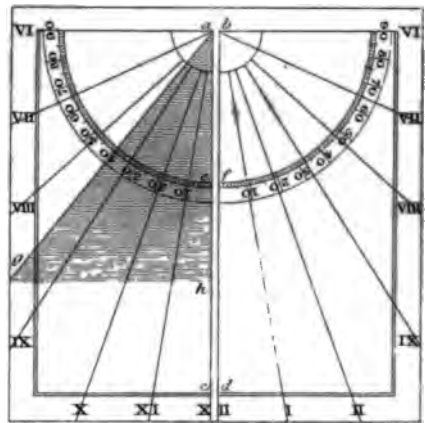


Fig. 5.

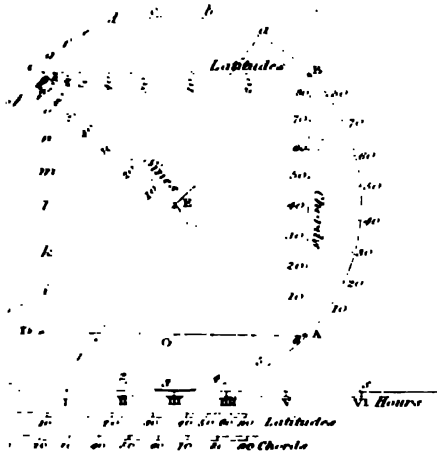
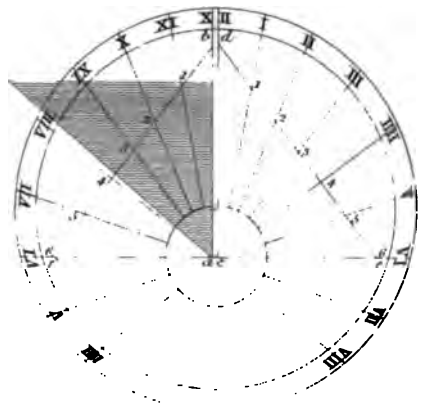


Fig. 6.



## DIALLING SCALE.

0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
XII	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X





al to the latitude of the place for which the is made

6. If the pole of the globe be elevated to the altitude of the given place, and any meridian brought to the north point of the horizon, the of the meridians will cut the horizon in the respective distances of all the hours from XII, for direct south dial, the gnomon of which must an angle with the plane of the dial equal to co-latitude of the place; and the hours on dial must be placed in a direction contrary hat in which they stand on the horizontal

7. But if the globe have more than twenty-meridian semicircles upon it, we must take following method for making horizontal and h dials:—Elevate the pole to the latitude of place, and turn the globe until any particular idian (suppose the first) comes to the north it of the horizon, and the opposite meridian cut the horizon in the south. Then set the r index to the uppermost XII on its circle, turn the globe westward until  $15^\circ$  of the ator pass under the brazen meridian, and the r index will be at I, for the sun moves  $15^\circ$  y hour), and the first meridian will cut the zon in the number of degrees from the north at that I is distant from XII. Turn on until er  $15^\circ$  of the equator pass under the bra-meridian, and the hour index will then be II, and the first meridian will cut the horizon the number of degrees that II is distant from I: and so, by making  $15^\circ$  of the equator pass der the brazen meridian for every hour, the at meridian of the globe will cut the horizon the distances of all the hours from XII to VI, which is just  $90^\circ$ ; and then the distances of XI, IX, VIII, VII, and VI, in the forenoon will e the same from XII, as the distance of I, II, I, IV, V, and VI, in the afternoon: and these ur lines continued through the centre, will give e opposite hour lines on the other half of the al.

28. To make a horizontal dial for the latitude London, which is  $51^\circ 30'$  north, elevate the th pole of the globe  $51^\circ 30'$  above the north out of the horizon; and then turn the globe, til the first meridian (which, on the British restial globe, is that of London), cuts the th point of the horizon, and set the hour in- to XII at noon. Then turning the globe ward until the index points successively I, II, III, IV, V, and VI, in the afternoon, or II  $15^\circ$ ,  $30^\circ$ ,  $45^\circ$ ,  $60^\circ$ ,  $75^\circ$ , and  $90^\circ$  of the ator pass under the brazen meridian, the first idian of the globe will cut the horizon in the owing numbers of degrees from the north eds the east, viz.  $11\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $24\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $38\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $53\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $71\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $90$ ; which are the respective distances of above hours from XII upon the plane of the on. To transfer these, and the rest of the s, to a horizontal plane, draw the parallel lines  $ac$ , and  $db$ , fig. 3, upon that plane, r from each other as is equal to the intended nness of the gnomon or stile of the dial, and space included between them will be the me- in or twelve o'clock line on the dial. Cross meridian at right angles with the six o'clock  $kh$ , and setting one foot of the compasses in

the intersection  $a$ , as a centre, describe the quadrant  $ke$  with any convenient radius or opening of the compasses; then setting one foot in the intersection  $b$ , as a centre, with the same radius describe the quadrant  $fh$ , and divide each quadrant into ninety equal parts or degrees, as in the figure.

29. As the hour lines are less distant from each other about noon than in any other part of the dial, it is best to have the centres of these quadrants at a little distance from the centre of the dial plane, on the side opposite to XII, in order to enlarge the hour distances thereabouts, under the same angles on the plane. Thus the centre of the plane is at C, but the centres of the quadrants are at  $a$  and  $b$ . Lay a ruler over the point  $b$ , and (keeping it there for the centre of all the afternoon hours in the quadrant  $fh$ ), draw the hour line of I through  $11^\circ 30'$  in the quadrant; the hour line of II through  $24^\circ 30'$ ; of III through  $38^\circ 5'$ ; IV through  $53^\circ 30'$ ; and V through  $71^\circ 4'$ : and, because the sun rises about four in the morning on the longest days, at London, continue the hour lines of IV and V in the afternoon through the centre  $b$  to the opposite side of the dial.

30. the other quadrant is now to be divided, but it is very obvious that the same minute process need not be gone through in doing so, as the divisions already laid down may be readily transferred to the quadrant  $ek$ ; as the labor of dividing both may be much shortened by working from a scale, having a line of chords upon it, as will be shown presently.

31. If a plate similar to this triangle be made as thick as the distance between the lines  $ac$  and  $bd$ , and set upright between them, touching at  $a$  and  $b$ , its hypotenuse  $ag$  will be parallel to the axis of the world, when the dial is truly set; and will cast a shadow on the hour of the day.

32. To make an erect direct south dial, fig. 4, elevate the pole to the co-latitude of the place, and proceed in all respects as above for the horizontal dial, and from VI in the morning to VI in the afternoon; only the hours must be reversed, as in the figure; and the hypotenuse  $ag$ , of the gnomon  $ag$   $h$ , must make an angle with the dial-plane equal to the co-latitude of the place. As the sun can shine no longer on this dial than from six in the morning until six in the evening, there is no occasion for having any more than twelve hours upon it.

33. To make a direct dial, declining from the south towards the east or west, elevate the pole to the latitude of the place, and screw the quadrant of altitude to the zenith. Then, if the dial decline towards the E. (which we shall suppose it does), count in the horizon the degrees of declination, from the E. point towards the N. and bring the lower end of the quadrant to that degree of declination at which the reckoning ends. Then bring any particular meridian of the globe (suppose the first) directly under the graduated edge of the upper part of the brazen meridian, and set the hour to XII at noon. Then, keeping the quadrant of altitude at the degree of declination in the horizon, turn the globe eastward on its axis, and observe the degrees cut by the



first meridian in the quadrant of altitude (counted from the zenith), as the hour circle comes to XI, X, IX, &c., in the forenoon, or as 15, 30, 45, &c. degrees of the equator pass under the brazen meridian at these hours respectively; and the degrees then cut in the quadrant by the first meridian, are the respective distances of the forenoon hours from XII on the plane of the dial.

34. Then, for the afternoon hours, turn the quadrant of altitude round the zenith until it comes to the degree in the horizon opposite to that where it was placed before; namely, as far from the W. point of the horizon towards the S. as it was set at first from the E. point towards the N.; and turn the globe westward on its axis, until the first meridian comes to the brazen meridian again, and the hour index to XII; then, continue to turn the globe westward, and as the index points to the afternoon hours, I, II, III, &c., or as 15°, 30°, 45°, &c., of the equator pass under the brazen meridian, the first meridian will cut the quadrant of altitude in the respective number of degrees from the zenith that each of these hours is from XII on the dial. And when the first meridian goes off the quadrant at the horizon in the forenoon, the hour index shows the time when the sun will come upon this dial, and when it goes off the quadrant in the afternoon, the index will point to the time when the sun goes off the dial. Having thus found all the hour distances from XII, lay them down upon the dial plane, either by dividing a semicircle into two quadrants of 90° each (beginning at the hour line of XII), or by the line of chords, as above directed.

35. In all declining dials, the line on which the stile or gnomon stands (commonly called the substile line) makes an angle with the twelve o'clock line, and falls among the forenoon hour lines, if the dial declines towards the E; and among the afternoon hour lines, when the dial declines towards the W. that is, to the left hand from the twelve o'clock line in the former case, and to the right hand from it in the latter.

36. To find the distance of the substile from the twelve o'clock line, if the dial declines from the S. towards the E. count the degrees of the declination in the horizon from the E. point toward the N. and bring the lower end of the quadrant of altitude to that degree of declination where the reckoning ends; then, turn the globe until the first meridian cuts the horizon in the like number of degrees, counted from the S. point toward the E. and the quadrant and the first meridian will then cross one another at right angles; and the number of degrees of the quadrant, which are intercepted between the meridian and the zenith, is equal to the distance of the substile line from the twelve o'clock line; and the number of degrees of the first meridian, which are intercepted between the quadrant and the N. pole, is equal to the elevation of the stile above the plane of the dial.

37. If the dial declines westward from the S., count that declination from the E. point of the horizon towards the S. and bring the quadrant of altitude to the degree in the horizon at which the reckoning ends; both for finding the forenoon hours, and distance of the substile from the meridian; and for the afternoon hours, bring the qua-

drant to the opposite degree in the horizon, namely, as far from the W. towards the N. and then proceed in all respects as above.

38. Thus when our declining dial is finished, we have four dials, viz. 1. A north dial declining eastward by the same number of degrees; 2. A north dial declining the same number west; 3. A south dial, declining east; and, 4. A south dial declining west; only placing the proper number of hours, and the stile or gnomon respectively, upon each plane. For, in the S. W. plane, the substilar line falls among the afternoon hours; and in the S. E. of the same declination, among the forenoon hours, at equal distances from XII. And so all the morning hours on the W. decliner, will be like the afternoon hours on the E. decliner; and the S. W. decliner, the N. E. decliner, by only extending the hour lines, stile and substile, quite through the centre: the axis of the stile (or edge that casts the shadow on the hour of the day), being in all dials whatever, parallel to the axis of the world, and consequently pointing towards the north pole of the heaven in north latitudes, and towards the south pole, in south latitudes.

#### METHOD OF CONSTRUCTING DIALLING LINES.

39. Describe, with any opening of the compasses, as EA, fig. 5, according to the intended length of the scale, the circle ADCB, and cut it at right angles by the diameters CE A and DB; divide the quadrant AB first into 9 equal parts, and then each part into 10; so shall the quadrant be divided into 90 equal parts or degrees. Draw the right line AFB for the chord of this quadrant; and, setting one foot of the compasses in the point A, extend the other to the several divisions of the quadrant, and transfer these divisions to the line AFB by the arcs 10, 20, 30, &c., and this will be a line of chords, divided into 90 unequal parts.

40. Divide the quadrant CD into 90 equal parts, and from each point of division draw right lines, as i, k, l, &c., to the line CE; all perpendicular to that line, and parallel to DE, which will divide EC into a line of sines; and although these are seldom put among the dialling lines on a scale, yet they assist in drawing the line of latitudes. For if a ruler be laid upon the point D, and over each division in the line of sines, it will divide the quadrant CB into 90 unequal parts, as BaBb, &c., shown by the right lines 12a, 20b, 30c, &c., drawn along the edge of the ruler. If the right line BC be drawn, subtending this quadrant and the nearest distances, Ba, Bb, Bc, &c., be taken in the compasses from B, and set upon this line in the same manner as directed for the line of chords, it will make a line of latitudes BC, equal in length to the line of chords AB, and an equal number of divisions, but very unequal as to their lengths.

41. Draw the right line DGA, subtending the quadrant DA; and parallel to it, draw the right line rs, touching the quadrant DB at the numeral figure 3. Divide this quadrant into six equal parts, as 1, 2, 3, &c., and through the points of division draw right lines from the centre E to the line rs, which will divide it at the points where the six hours are to be placed, as in the





Fig. 1.

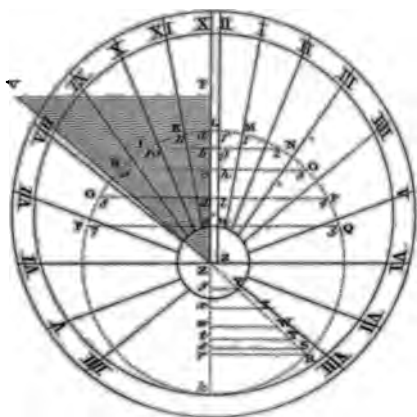


Fig. 3.

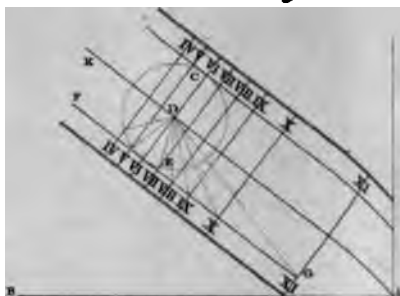


Fig. 5.

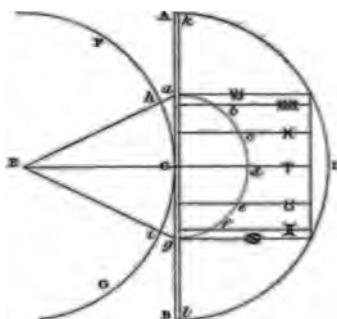


Fig. 4.

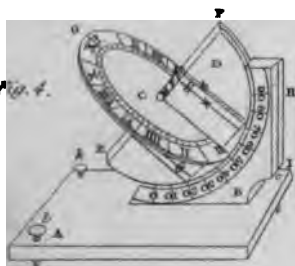


Fig. 2.

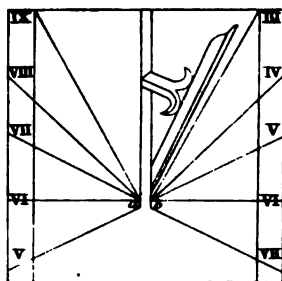


Fig. 8.

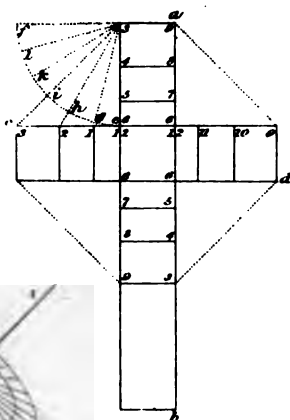


Fig. 7.

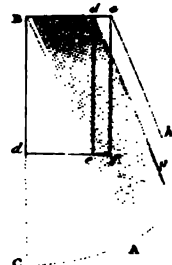


Fig. 6.

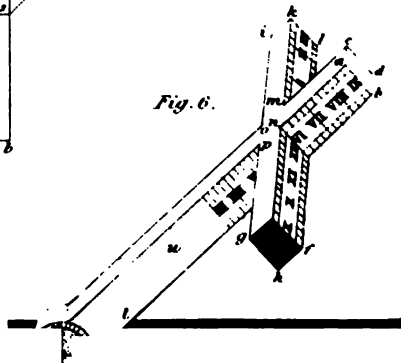
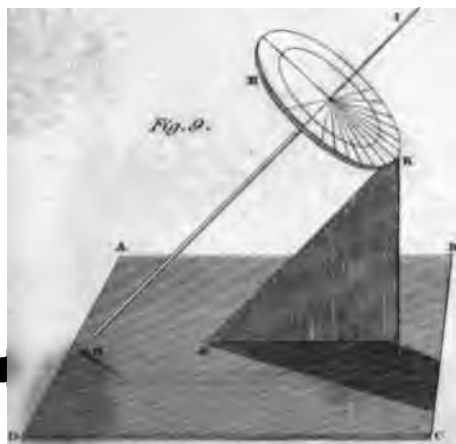


Fig. 9.



ry sixth part of the quadrant be  
o four equal parts, right lines  
e centre through these points of  
continued to the line  $r s$ , will divide  
a into quarters.

#### INSTRUCTING DIALS BY DIALLING LINES.

the easiest of all mechanical me-  
much the best, when the lines are  
and not only the half hours and  
be laid down by all of them, but  
ute by most, and every single mi-  
where the line of hours is a foot in  
g drawn the double meridian line  
on the plane intended for a hori-  
crossed it at right angles by the  
 $f e$ , as in fig. 3, take the latitude  
th the compasses, from the scale of  
set that extent from  $c$  to  $e$ , and  
the six o'clock line: then, taking  
hours between the points of the  
n the scale of hours, with that ex-  
ot on the point  $e$ , and let the other  
it will upon the meridian line  $c d$ ,  
be same from  $f$  to  $b$ , and draw the  
nd  $f b$ , each of them will be equal  
he whole scale of hours. Then,  
t of the compasses in the begin-  
le at XII, and extending the other  
n the scale, lay off these extents  
the afternoon hours, and from  $b$   
of the forenoon: this will divide  
nd  $b f$  in the same manner as the  
divided at 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6; on  
ters may also be laid down, if re-  
laying a ruler on the point  $c$ , draw  
ours in the afternoon, from that  
the dots at the numeral figures 1,  
the line  $d e$ ; and continue the lines  
through the centre  $c$ , to the other  
al, for the like hours of the morn-  
ing, lay the ruler on the point  $a$ ,  
last five hours in the forenoon  
ts, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, on the line  $f b$ ;  
hour lines of VII and VIII through  
the other side of the dial, for the  
the evening; and set the hours to  
e lines, as in the figure. Lastly,  
non the same way as directed above  
ntal dial, and the whole will be

e an erect south dial, take the co-  
r place from the scale of latitudes,  
ceed in all respects for the hour  
horizontal dial; only reversing the  
4, and making the angle of the  
qual to the co-latitude.

#### METHOD OF DRAWING THE HOUR LINES.

construct a horizontal dial, fig. 1,  
cribe with any opening of the com-  
the two semicircles  $L F k$  and  $L Q k$ ,  
res  $Z$  and  $z$ , where the six o'clock  
e double meridian line, and divide  
e into twelve equal parts, begin-  
ough strictly speaking, only the  
n  $L$  to the six o'clock line need be

divided); then connect the divisions which are  
equi-distant from  $L$ , by the parallel lines  $K M$ ,  
 $I N$ ,  $H O$ ,  $G P$ , and  $F Q$ . Draw  $V Z$  for the hy-  
pothenuse of the stile, making the angle  $V Z E$   
equal to the latitude of the place; and continue  
the line  $V Z$  to  $R$ . Draw the line  $R r$  parallel  
to the six o'clock line, and set off the distance  
 $a K$  from  $Z$  to  $Y$ , the distance  $b I$  from  $Z$  to  $X$ ,  
 $c H$  from  $Z$  to  $W$ ,  $d G$  from  $Z$  to  $T$ , and  $e F$  from  
 $Z$  to  $S$ . Then draw the lines  $S s$ ,  $T t$ ,  $W w$ ,  $X x$ ,  
and  $Y y$ , each parallel to  $R r$ . Set off the dis-  
tance  $y Y$ , from  $a$  to 11, and from  $f$  to 1; the  
distance  $x X$  from  $b$  to 10, and from  $g$  to 2;  $w W$   
from  $c$  to 9, and from  $h$  to 3;  $t T$  from  $d$  to 8,  
and from  $i$  to 4;  $s S$  from  $e$  to 7, and from  $n$  to 5.  
Then laying a ruler to the centre  $Z$ , draw the  
forenoon hour lines through the points 11, 10, 9,  
8, 7; and laying it to the centre  $z$ , draw the af-  
ternoon lines through the points 1, 2, 3, 4, 5;  
continuing the forenoon lines of VII and VIII  
through the centre  $Z$ , to the opposite side of the  
dial, for the like afternoon hours; and the after-  
noon lines IV and V through the centre  $z$ , to  
the opposite side for the like morning hours.  
Set the hours to these lines as in the figure, and  
then erect the stile or gnomon, and the dial will  
be finished.

45. II. To construct a south dial, draw the  
line  $V Z$ , making an angle with the meridian  $Z L$   
equal to the co-latitude of your place; and pro-  
ceed in all respects as in the above horizontal  
dial for the same latitude, reversing the hours as  
in fig. 4, and making the elevation of the gno-  
mon equal to the co-latitude.

46. III. To construct a north dial. See fig.  
2. If the hour lines IV and V, as also VII and  
VIII on the south dial, fig. 4, plate I. be con-  
tinued beyond the line  $V a VI$ , and the triangle  
 $a g h$  turned about the point  $a$ , till  $a h$  fall on  $a$   
XII produced, it is evident a north dial is thereby  
had. The hour line for VII in the morning on  
the south dial, when produced, forms the hour  
line for V in the morning on the north dial: and  
the hour line for V in the afternoon, on the  
south dial, forms the hour line for VII in the  
evening on the north dial. The manner of  
placing the characters for the other hours is  
therefore obvious.

47. IV. To construct an east dial. On the  
eastern side of the plane of the meridian, draw a  
line  $A B$ , fig. 3, parallel to the horizon, draw  
also a line  $A K$ , making with  $A B$  an angle  
 $K A B$  equal to the complement of the latitude  
of the place for which the dial is made. Take a  
point  $D$  in  $A K$ , and on that point for a centre  
describe a circle. Through  $D$  draw  $E C$  per-  
pendicular to  $A K$ , thus the circle will be divided  
into four quadrants; divide two of these quad-  
rants into six equal parts, as in the figure.  
Draw a straight line  $F E G$  perpendicular to  $E C$ ,  
the diameter of the circle, and from the centre  $D$   
through the several divisions, draw the right  
lines  $D IV$ ,  $D V$ ,  $D VI$ ,  $D VII$ ,  $D VIII$ ,  $D$   
 $IX$ ,  $D X$ ,  $D XI$ . Through  $IV$ ,  $V$ ,  $VI$ ,  $VII$ , &c.;  
draw lines  $IV$ ,  $IV$ ,  $V$ ,  $V$ , &c. parallel to  $E D C$ .  
Lastly, in  $D$  erect a stile equal to the radius  
 $D E$ , perpendicular to the plane; or on two  
little pieces perpendicularly fixed in  $E C$ , and  
equal to the same  $D E$ , fit an iron rod parallel to



EC, thus will each index at the several hours project a shadow to the respective hour lines IV IV, V V, VI VI, &c. The east dial, it is obvious, can only show the hours till twelve o'clock.

48. V. To construct a west dial. The construction is perfectly the same as that of an east dial, only that its situation is inverted, and the hours are written accordingly. A west dial, it is obvious, can only be illuminated after noon, and therefore, joined with an east dial, shows all the hours of the day.

#### OF UNIVERSAL DIALS.

49. I. The universal dial, invented by Pardie, fig. 4, consists of three principal parts; the first whereof is called the horizontal plane A, because in practice it must be parallel to the horizon. In this plane is fixed an upright pin, which enters into the edge of the second part BD, called the meridional plane; which is made of two pieces, the lowest whereof, B, is called the quadrant, because it contains a quarter of a circle, divided into  $90^\circ$ ; and it is only into this part, near B, that the pin enters. The other piece is a semicircle D adjusted to the quadrant, and turning in it by a groove, for raising and depressing the diameter EF of the semicircle, which diameter is called the axis of the instrument. The third piece is a circle, G, divided on both sides into twenty-four equal parts, which are the hours. This circle is put upon the meridional plane, so that the axis EF may be perpendicular to the circle, and the point C be the common centre of the circle, semicircle, and quadrant. The straight edge of the semicircle is chamfered on both sides to a sharp edge, which passes through the centre of the circle. On one side of the chamfered part, the first six months of the year are laid down, according to the sun's declination for their respective days, and on the other side the last six months. And against the days on which the sun enters the signs, there are straight lines drawn upon the semicircle, with the characters of the signs marked upon them. There is a black line drawn along the middle of the upright edge of the quadrant, over which hangs a thread H, with its plummet I, for levelling the instrument. From the 23d of September to the 20th of March, the upper surface of the circle must touch both the centre C of the semicircle, and the line of  $\gamma$  and  $\alpha$ ; and from the 20th of March to the 23d of September, the lower surface of the circle must touch that centre and line.

50. To find the time of day by this dial, set it on a level place in sun-shine, and adjust it by the levelling screws *k* and *l*, until the plumb-line hangs over the black line upon the edge of the quadrant, and parallel to the said edge; move the semicircle in the quadrant, until the line of  $\gamma$  and  $\alpha$  (where the circle touches) comes to the latitude of the place in the quadrant: then turn the whole meridional plane BD, with its circle G, upon the horizontal plane A, until the edge of the shadow of the circle falls on the day of the month in the semicircle; and then the meridional plane will be due north and south; the axis EF will be parallel to the axis

of the world, and will cast a shadow upon the true time of the day among the hours of the circle.

51. When the instrument is thus rectified, the quadrant and semicircle are in the plane of the meridian, and the circle is then in the plane of the equinoctial. Therefore as the sun is above the equinoctial in summer (in northern latitudes) and below it in winter, the axis of the semicircle will cast a shadow on the hour of the day on the upper surface of the circle, from the 20th of March till the 23d of September; and from the 23d of September to the 20th of March, the hour of the day will be determined by the shadow of the semicircle upon the lower surface of the circle. In the former case the shadow of the circle falls upon the day of the month, on the lower part of the diameter of the semicircle, and in the latter case on the upper part.

52. The method of laying down the months and signs upon the semicircle is as follows:—Draw the right line ACB, fig. 5, equal to the diameter of the semicircle ADB, and cross it in the middle at right angles with the line ECD equal in length to ADB; then EC will be the radius of the circle FCG, which is the same as that of the semicircle. Upon E, as a centre, describe the circle FCG, on which set off the arcs Ch and Ci, each equal to  $23\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ , and divide them accordingly into that number for the sun's declination. Then laying the edge of a ruler over the centre E, and also over the sun's declination for every fifth day of each month, mark the points on the diameter AB of the semicircle from *a* to *g*, which are cut by the ruler; and there place the days of the months accordingly, answering to the sun's declinations. Then setting one foot of the compasses in C, and extending the other to *a* or *g*, describe the semicircle *abcdefg*; which divide into six equal parts, and through the points of division draw right lines parallel to CD, for the beginning of the signs (of which one half are on one side of the semicircle, and the other half on the other), and set the characters of the signs to their proper lines, as in the figure.

53. II. The universal, or astronomical equinoctial ring-dial is an instrument that serves to find out the hour of the day in any latitude. It consists of two flat rings or circles, usually from four to twelve inches diameter, and of a moderate thickness; the outward ring represents the meridian of the place it is used at, contains two divisions of  $90^\circ$  each, opposite to one another, serving to let a sliding piece and ring (by which the dial is usually suspended) be placed on one side, from the equator to the N pole, and on the other side to the S., according to the latitude of the place. The inner ring represents the equator, and turns diametrically within the outer, by means of two pivots inserted in each end of the ring at the hours XII. Across the two circles is screwed to the meridian a thin pierced plate or bridge, with a cursor that slides along the middle of the bridge; the cursor has a small hole for the sun to shine through. The middle of this bridge is conceived as the axis of the world, and its extremities as the poles; on the one side are delineated



elve signs of the zodiac, and sometimes the degrees of the sun's declination; on the other side the days of the month about the year. On the other side of the dial the divisions of  $90^\circ$ , or a quadrant of latitude. It serves, by the placing of a pin in the hole, to take the sun's declination, from which the latitude of the place may be found.

In using this dial, place the line in the middle of the sliding piece, over the degree of latitude of the place. Suppose, for example, the latitude of London; put the line which crosses the dial over the cursor C to the day of the month of the year of the sign. Open the instrument so that the two rings be at right angles to each other, and it will be seen by the ring, that the axis of the dial is presented by the middle of the bridge may be made parallel to the axis of the earth, viz. the north-south line, and vice versa. Then turn the dial so that the bridge towards the sun, so that the line passing through the small hole in the middle of the concave surface of the inner ring, may fall exactly in a line drawn through the middle of the day in the said concave surface of the dial. The hour XII cannot be shown by this dial, because the outer ring, being then in the plane of the meridian, excludes the sun's rays from the inner; nor can this dial show the hour of the sun is in the equinoctial, because his rays then falling parallel to the plane of the inner ring, or equinoctial, are excluded by it.

III. Figs. 6, 7, and 8, a universal dial on a cross, as described by Mr. Ferguson. It is made on a joint C, for elevating it to any latitude on the quadrant Co  $90^\circ$ , as it stands the horizontal board A. The arms of the dial stand at right angles to the middle part; the top of it, from a to n, is of equal length with the other of the arms ne or mk. See fig. 6. The dial is rectified by setting the middle line of the dial to the latitude of the place on the quadrant, and A level, and the point N. northward; thus, the plane of the cross will be parallel to the plane of the equator. Then, at XII o'clock in the morning till VI, the upper part of the arm io will cast a shadow on the dial of the day on the side of the arm cm; from VI till IX, the lower edge i of the arm io will cast a shadow on the hours on the side of the arm og. From IX till XII at noon, the edge ab of the part an will cast a shadow on the hours on the arm nef; from XII till III in the afternoon the edge cd of the top part will cast a shadow on the hours on the arm klm; from III till evening, the edge gh will cast a shadow on the hours on the part pu; and from VI till the shadow of the edge ef will show the hour on the top part an. The breadth of each part, ef, &c., must be so great, as never to be shadowed fall quite without the part or arm where the hours are marked, when the sun is at his greatest declination from the equator.

To determine the breadth of the sides of the dial which contain the hours, so as to be in just proportion to their length; make an ABC, fig. 7, of  $23^\circ 30'$ , which is equal to the sun's greatest declination: and suppose the

length of each arm, from the side of the long middle part, and also the length of the top part above the arms, to be equal to Bd. Then as the edges of the shadow, from each of the arms, will be parallel to Be, making an angle of  $23^\circ 30'$  with the side Bd of the arm, when the sun's declination is  $23^\circ 30'$ ; it is plain, that if the length of the arm be Bd, the least breadth that it can have, to keep the edge Be of the shadow Begd from going off the side of the arm de before it comes to the end of it ed, must be equal to ed or dB. But to keep the shadow within the quarter divisions of the hours, when it comes near the end of the arm, the breadth of it should be still greater, so as to be almost doubled, on account of the distance between the tips of the arms.

57. The hours may be placed on the arms, by laying down the cross abcd, fig. 8, on a sheet of paper; and with a black lead pencil held close to it drawing its shape and size on the paper. Then take the length ae in the compasses, and with one foot in the corner a, describe with the other the quadrant ef. Divide this arc into six equal parts, and through the points of division draw right lines ag, ah, &c., continuing three of them to the arm ce, which are all that can fall upon it; and they will meet the arm in those points through which the lines that divide the hours from each other are to be drawn right across it. Divide each arm for the three hours contained in it, in the same manner; and set the hours to their proper places, on the sides of the arms, as they are marked in fig. 6. Each of the hour spaces should be divided into four equal parts, for the half hours and quarters, to the quadrant ef; and right lines should be drawn through these division-marks in the quadrant, to the arms of the cross, in order to determine the places thereon where the subdivision of the hours must be marked. This kind of universal dial is easily made, and has a pretty uncommon appearance in a garden.

58. IV. The universal mechanical dial, fig. 9, affords, by its equinoctial circle, an easy method of describing a dial on any kind of plane. For example: suppose a dial is required on a horizontal plane. If the plane be immovable, as ABCD, find a meridian line as GF; or, if moveable, assume the meridian at pleasure: then by means of the triangle EKF, whose base is applied on the meridian line, raise the equinoctial dial H till the index GI becomes parallel to the axis of the earth (which is so, if the angle KEF be equal to the elevation of the pole), and the XII o'clock line on the dial hang over the meridian line of the plane or the base of the triangle. If then, in the night, or in a dark place, a lighted candle be successively applied to the axis GI, so as the shadow of the index or style GI fall upon one hour line after another, the same shadow will mark out the several hour lines on the plane ABCD. Noting points, therefore, on the shadow, draw lines through them to G; then an index being fixed on G, according to the angle IGF, its shadow will point out the several hours by the light of the sun. If a dial were required on a vertical plane, having raised the equinoctial circle as directed, push



forward the index GI till the tip thereof, I, touch the plane. If the plane be inclined to the horizon, the elevation of the pole should be found on the same; and the angle of the triangle KEF should be made equal thereto.

59. V. Fig. 1, plate III., represents a universal dial, which shows the hour of the day by a terrestrial globe, and by the shadows of several gnomons, at the same time; together with all the places of the earth which are then enlightened by the sun; and those to which the sun is then rising, or on the meridian or setting. This dial is made of a thick square piece of wood, or hollow metal. The sides are cut into semicircular hollows, in which the hours are placed; the stile of each hollow coming out from the bottom thereof as far as the ends of the hollows project. The corners are cut out into angles, in the insides of which the hours are also marked; and the edge of the end of each side of the angle serves as a stile for casting a shadow on the hours marked on the other side. In the middle of the uppermost side, or plane, there is an equinoctial dial; in the centre of which an upright wire is fixed, for casting a shadow on the hours of that dial, and supporting a small terrestrial globe on the top.

60. The whole dial stands on a pillar, in the middle of a round horizontal board, in which there is a compass and magnetic needle, for placing the meridian stile towards the S. The pillar has a joint with a quadrant upon it, divided into  $90^\circ$ , for setting it to the latitude of any given place. The equator of the globe is divided into twenty-four equal parts, and the hours are laid down upon it at these parts. The time of the day may be known by these hours, when the sun shines upon the globe.

61. To rectify and use this dial, set it on a level table, or on the sole of a window, where the sun shines, placing the meridian stile due S. by means of the needle; which will be, when the needle points as far from the N. fleur-de-lis toward the W. as it declines westward at the place. Then bend the pillar in the joint, till the black line on the pillar comes to the latitude of the place in the quadrant. The machine being thus rectified, the plane of its dial part will be parallel to the equator, the wire or axis that supports the globe will be parallel to the earth's axis, and the N. pole of the globe will point toward the N. pole of the heavens.

62. The same hour will then be shown in several of the hollows, by the ends of the shadows of their respective stiles; the axis of the globe will cast a shadow on the same hour of the day, in the equinoctial dial, in the centre of which it is placed, from the 20th of March to the 23rd of September; and, if the meridian of the place on the globe be set even with the meridian stile, all that part of the globe that the sun shines upon will answer to those places of the real earth which are then enlightened by the sun. The places where the shade is just coming upon the globe, answer to all those places of the earth in which the sun is then setting; as the places where it is going off, and the light coming on, answer to all the places of the earth where the sun is then rising. And lastly, if the hour of VI

be marked on the equator in the meridian of the place (as it is marked on the meridian of London in the figure), the division of the light and shade on the globe will show the time of the day.

63. The northern stile of the dial is hid in the figure by the axis of the globe. The hours in the hollow to which that stile belongs, are also supposed to be hid by the oblique view of the figure: but they are the same as the hours in the front hollow. Those also in the right and left hand semicircular hollows are mostly hid from sight; and so also are all those on the sides next the eye of the four acute angles.

64. The construction of this dial is as follows: on a thick square piece of wood, or metal, draw the lines *ac* and *bd*, fig. 2, as far from each other as you intend for the thickness of the stile *abcd*; and in the same manner, draw the like thickness of the other three stiles, *efgh*, *ikls*, and *nopq*, all standing outright as from the centre. With any convenient opening for the compasses, as *aA*, so as to leave proper strength when *KI* is equal to *aA*, set one foot in *a*, as a centre, and with the other describe the quadrant arc *Ac*. Then, without altering the compasses, set one foot in *b* as a centre, and with the other describe the quadrant *dB*. All the other quadrants in the figure must be described in the same manner, and with the same opening of the compasses, on their centres *efik*, and *no*, and each quadrant divided into six equal parts, for as many hours, as in the figure; each of whose parts must be subdivided into four, for the half hours and quarters. At equal distances from each corner, draw the right lines *Ip* and *Kp*, *Lq* and *Mq*, *Nr* and *Or*, *Ps* and *Qs*: to form the four angular hollows *IpK*, *LqM*, *NrO*, and *PsQ*; making the distances between the tips of these hollows, as *IK*, *LM*, *NO*, and *PQ*, each equal to the radius of the quadrants: and leaving sufficient room within the angular points *ppr* and *s*, for the equinoctial in the middle.

65. To divide the inside of these angles for the hour spaces, take the following method:—Set one foot of the compasses in the point *I* as a centre, and open the other to *K*; and with that opening describe the arc *Kt*: then, without altering the compasses, set one foot in *K*, and with the other describe the arc *It*. Divide each of these arcs from *I* and *K* to their intersection at *t*, into four equal parts; and from their centres *I* and *K* through the points of division, draw the right lines *I3*, *I4*, *I5*, *I6*, *I7*: and *K2*, *K4*, *K6*, *K8*, *K11*; and they will meet the sides *Kp* and *Lq* of the angle *IpK* where the hours thereon must be placed. And these hour spaces in the arc must be subdivided into four equal parts, for the half hours and quarters. Do the like for the other three angles, and draw the dotted lines, and set the hours in the insides where these lines meet them, as in the figure; and the like dotted lines will be parallel to each other in all the quadrants and in all the angles. Mark points for all these hours on the upper side: and cut out the angular hollows, and the quadrantal centres quite through the places where their four gnomons must stand; and lay down the hours on their insides, and set in their gnomons, which must be as broad as the dial is thick, and if

Fig. 3.

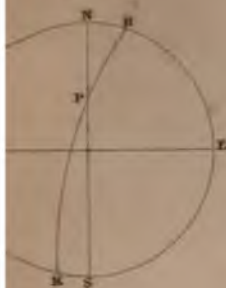


Fig. 1.

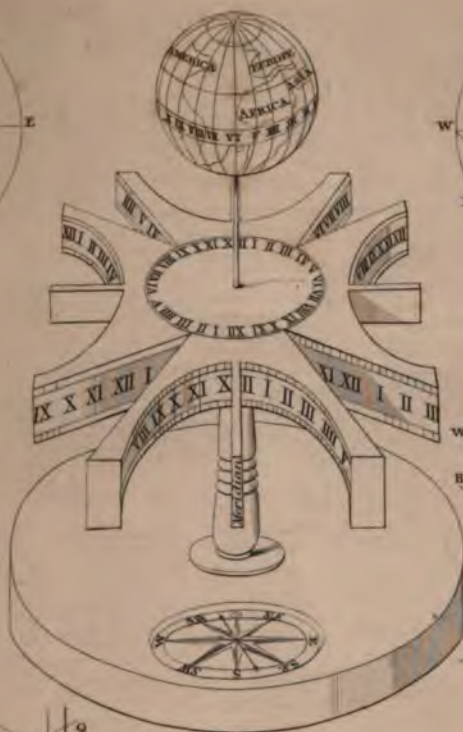


Fig. 5.



Fig. 6.



Fig. 4.

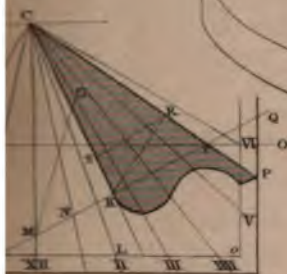


Fig. 7.



Fig. 2.







earth and thickness must be large enough to support the shadows of the gnomons from ever falling outside out of the sides of the hollows, even when the sun's declination is at the greatest. Lastly, draw the equinoctial dial in the middle, all the hours of which are equidistant from each other; and the dial will be finished.

66. As the sun goes round, the broad end of the shadow of the stile *acbd* will show the hours in the quadrant *Ac*, from the sun-rise till *E* in the morning; the shadow from the end *M* will show the hours on the side *Lg* from *V* to *E* in the morning; the shadow of the stile *gA* in the quadrant *Dg* in the long days, will show the hours from sun-rise till *VI* in the morning; and the shadow of the end *N* will show the morning hours, on the side *Or*, from *E* to *VII*. Just as the shadow of the northern stile *abtd* goes off the quadrant *Ac*, the shadow of the southern stile *iklm* begins to fall within the quadrant *Fl*, at *VI* in the morning; and shows the time, in that quadrant, from *VI* to *II*, at noon; and from noon till *VI* in the evening, in the quadrant *mE*. And the shadow of the end *O* shows the time from *XI* in the forenoon till *III* in the afternoon, on the side *rN*; the shadow of the end *P* shows the time from *I* in the morning till *I* o'clock in the afternoon on the side *Qs*.

67. At noon, when the shadow of the eastern stile *efgh* goes off the quadrant *hC*, in which it showed the time from *VI* in the morning till noon, as it did in the quadrant *gD*, from sun-set till *VI* in the morning, the shadow of the eastern stile *nopq* begins to enter the quadrant *p*; and shows the hours thereon from *XII* at noon till *VI* in the evening; and after that till sun-set, in the quadrant *qG*; and the end *Q* casts shadow on the side *Ps*, from *V* in the evening till *IX* at night, if the sun be not set before that time. The shadow of the end *I* shows the time from the side *Kp* from *III* till *VII* in the afternoon; and the shadow of the stile *abcd* shows the time from *VI* in the evening till the sun sets. The shadow of the upright central wire, that supports the globe at top, shows the time of the day, in the middle or equinoctial dial, all the summer half-year, when the sun is on the north side of the equator.

#### DIALLING BY SPHERICAL TRIGONOMETRY.

68. The construction of sun-dials on all planes, however, may be included in one general rule; sufficiently intelligible, if that of a horizontal dial for any given latitude be well understood. For there is no plane, however obliquely situated with respect to any given place, but what is parallel to the horizon of some other place; and, therefore, if we can find that other place, by a problem, on the terrestrial globe, or by a trigonometrical calculation, and construct a horizontal dial for it; that dial applied to the place where it is to serve will be a true dial for that place.—Thus, an erect direct south dial in  $51^{\circ} 30'$  N. lat. could be a horizontal dial on the same meridian, if southward of  $51^{\circ} 30'$  N. lat.: which falls in with  $38^{\circ} 30'$  S. lat. But if the upright plane declines from facing the south at the given

place, it would still be a horizontal plane  $90^{\circ}$  from that place, but for a different longitude, which would alter the reckoning of the hours accordingly.

69. To calculate the angles which the hour lines of a horizontal dial make with the meridian or twelve o'clock line, see fig. 3. Let *NESW* represent the horizon of any place, *PSN* the meridian, and *P* the N. pole of the sphere; let *KPH* be any hour circle, for example, the circle which makes with the meridian an angle of  $15^{\circ}$ , then the arch of the horizon intercepted between *N*, the north, and *PH* the hour circle, in the plane of which the sun is at *XI* or *I* o'clock, measures the angle contained by the substile of the dial, and the hour lines corresponding to these hours. In the spherical triangle *PNH*, right angled at *N*, there are given the side *PN*, which is the elevation of the pole above the horizon, and the angle *NPH* which is contained by the meridian and hour circle, to find *NH* the arch of the horizon opposite that angle. By spherical trigonometry, radius is to the sine of *PN* as the tangent of *NPH* to the tangent of *NH* the side required. Hence we have this practical rule. To find the angle which any hour line of a horizontal dial makes with the meridian, or which is the same, to find the angle which the hour lines on any dial make with the substile.—To the logarithmic sine of the latitude of the place for which the dial is made, add the logarithmic tangent of the sun's distance from the meridian, for the hour required, the sum, 1—10, is the logarithmic tangent of the angle required.

70. Example.—To find the angles which the hour lines of *XI* or *I* make with the meridian of a horizontal dial for the latitude of London, which is  $51^{\circ} 30'$ .

To logarithmic sine of $51^{\circ} 30'$	9.89354
Add logarithmic tangent of $15^{\circ}$	9.42805
Sum, rejecting 10, is	9.32159

which is the tangent of  $11^{\circ} 51'$  nearly. In like manner it will be found, that the hour lines of *X* and *II* make each with the meridian an angle of  $24^{\circ} 18'$ , &c. And by computing in this manner, with the sine of the latitude, and the tangents of  $30^{\circ}$ ,  $45^{\circ}$ ,  $60^{\circ}$ , and  $75^{\circ}$ , for the hours of *II*, *III*, *IV*, and *V* in the afternoon; or of *X*, *IX*, *VIII*, and *VII* in the forenoon; you will find their angular distances from *XII* to be  $24^{\circ} 18'$ ,  $38^{\circ} 3'$ ,  $53^{\circ} 35'$ , and  $71^{\circ} 6'$ ; which are all that there is occasion to reckon. And these distances may be set off from *XII* by a line of chords; or rather, by taking 1000 from a scale of equal parts, and setting that extent as a radius from *C* to *XII*, fig. 4, and then, taking 209 of the same parts, which are the natural tangents of  $11^{\circ} 50'$  and setting them from *XII* to *XI* and *I*, on the line *HO*, which is perpendicular to *CXII*: and so for the rest of the hour lines, which in the table of natural tangents, against the above distances, are 452, 782, 1355, and 2920, of such equal parts from *XII*, as the radius *CXII* contains 1000. And, lastly, set off 1257, the natural tangent of  $51^{\circ} 30'$ , for the angle of the



stile's height, which is equal to the latitude of the place.

#### DECLINING DIALS.

71. Let us suppose that an upright plane at London declines  $36^\circ$  westward from facing the south, and that it is required to find a place on the globe to the horizon of which the said plane is parallel; and also the difference of longitude between London and that place.

72. Let NESW be the horizon of London, fig. 5, whose zenith is Z, and P the N. Pole of the sphere; and let Zh be the position of a vertical plane at Z, declining westward from S (the south) by an angle of  $36^\circ$ ; on which plane an erect dial for London at Z is to be described. Make the semi-diameter ZD perpendicular to Zh, and it will cut the horizon in D,  $36^\circ$  west of the south S. Then a plane, in the tangent HD, touching the sphere in D, will be parallel to the plane Zh; and the axis of the sphere will be equally inclined to both these places. Let WQE be the equinoctial, whose elevation above the horizon of Z (London) is  $38^\circ 30'$ ; and PRD be the meridian of the place D, cutting the equinoctial in R. Then it is evident, that the arc RD is the latitude of the place D, where the plane Zh would be horizontal, and the arc RQ is the difference of longitude of the planes Zh and DH.

73. In the spherical triangle WDR, the arc WD is given, for it is the complement of the plane's declination from S the south; which complement is  $54^\circ$ , viz.  $90^\circ - 36^\circ$ : the angle at R, in which the meridian of the place D cuts the equator, is a right angle; and the angle RWD measures the elevation of the equinoctial above the horizon of Z, namely  $38^\circ 30'$ . Say, therefore, as radius is to the co-sine of the plane's declination from the south, so is the co-sine of the latitude of Z to the sine of RD the latitude of D: which is of a different denomination from the latitude of Z, because Z and D are on different sides of the equator.

As radius	10-00000
To co-sine $36^\circ 0'$ = RQ	9-90796
So co-sine $51^\circ 30'$ = QZ	9-79415

To sine  $30^\circ 14'$  = DR 9-70211 = the latitude of D, whose horizon is parallel to the vertical plane Zh at Z.

74. To find RQ the difference of longitude of the places D and Z; say, as radius is to the co-sine of RWD  $38^\circ 30'$ , the height of the equinoctial at Z, so is the co-tangent of DW  $36^\circ$  the plane's declination, to the co-tangent of RQ the difference of longitudes. Thus,

To the logarithmic sine of $51^\circ 30'$	9-89354
Add the logarithmic tangent of $54^\circ 0'$	10-13874

Their sum rejecting 10 . . . 10-03228

is the nearest tangent of  $47^\circ 8'$  = WR; which is the co-tangent of  $42^\circ 52'$  = RQ, the difference of longitude sought. Which difference, being reduced to time, is 2 h.  $51\frac{1}{2}$  m.

75. And thus having found the latitude and longitude of the place D, to whose horizon the

vertical plane at Z is parallel, we proceed to the construction of a horizontal dial for the place D, whose latitude is  $30^\circ 14'$  south; but anticipating the time at D by 2 h. 51 m., neglecting the half minute in practice, because D is so far westward in longitude from the meridian of London; and this will be a true vertical dial at London, declining westward  $36^\circ$ .

76. Assume any right line CSL, fig. 4, be the substile of the dial, and make the angle KCP equal to the latitude of the place, viz.  $30^\circ 14'$ , to the horizon of which the plane of the dial is parallel; then CRP will be the axis of the stile, or edge that casts the shadow on the hours of the day, in the dial. This done, draw the contingent line EQ, cutting the substile line at right angles in K; and from K make KB perpendicular to the axis CRP. Then KG = KR being made radius, that is, equal to the chord of  $60^\circ$ , or tangent of  $45^\circ$  on a good secus, take  $42^\circ 52'$  (the difference of longitude of the places Z and D) from the tangents, and having set it from K to M, draw CM for the hour line of XII. Take KN, equal to the tangent of an angle less by  $15^\circ$  than KM; that is, the tangent of  $27^\circ 52'$ ; and through the point N draw CN for the hour line of I. The tangent of  $17^\circ 38'$  (which is  $15^\circ$  less than  $27^\circ 52'$ ), set off the same way, will give a point between K and N, through which the hour line of II is to be drawn. The tangent of  $2^\circ 8'$ , the difference between  $45^\circ$  and  $50^\circ 42'$  placed on the other side of CL will determine the point through which the hour line of III is to be drawn; to which  $2^\circ 8'$ , if the tangent of  $15^\circ$  be added, it will make  $17^\circ 8'$ ; and this set off from K towards Q, on the line EQ, will give the point for the hour line of IV; and so of the rest. The forenoon hours line are drawn the same way, by the continual addition of the tangents  $15^\circ$ ,  $30^\circ$ ,  $45^\circ$ , &c., to  $42^\circ 52'$  = the tangent KM for the hours of XI, X, IX, &c., as far as necessary; that is, until there be five hours on each side of the substile. The sixth hour, accounted from that hour or part of the hour on which the substile falls, will be drawn in a line perpendicular to the substile, and drawn through the centre C.

77. In all erect dials, CM, the hour line of XII is perpendicular to the horizon of the place for which the dial is to serve; for that line is the intersection of a vertical plane with the plane of the meridian of the place, both which are perpendicular to the plane of the horizon; and any line HO, or ho, perpendicular to CM, will be a horizontal line on the plane of the dial, along which line the hours may be numbered; and CM being set perpendicular to the horizon, the dial will have its true position.

78. If the plane of the dial had declined by an equal angle towards the east, its description would have differed only in this, that the hour line of XII would have fallen on the other side of the substile CL, and the line HO would have a subcontrary position to what it has in this figure.

79. And these two dials, with the upper points of their stiles turned toward the N. Pole, will serve for other two planes parallel to them; the one declining from the N. towards



and the other from the N. toward the  
the same quantity of angle. The like  
of all dials in general, whatever be  
ination and obliquity of their planes to  
n.

the plane of the dial not only declines, inclines, or inclines. Suppose its declination from the south S be equal to D, fig. 6, on the horizon; and its rebe equal to the arc D d of the vertical; then it is plain, that if the quadrant Z d D on the globe cuts the point D on the horizon, and the declination is counted quadrant from D to d; the intersection of the great circle PR d, with the equinoctial will determine R d, the latitude of the horizon is parallel to the given at Z; and R Q will be the difference of the places at d and Z. Trigonometry:—Let a great circle pass through points W, d, E; and in the triangle right angled at D, the sides W D and d D are given; and thence the angle D W d is found; so is the hypotenuse W d. Again, since, or the sum, of D W d and D W R, is the angle of the equinoctial above the horizon is the angle d W R; and the hypotenuse triangle W R d was just now found; the sides R d and W R are found, the complement of R Q, the difference of sought. Thus, if the latitude of the place 30° N. the declination S D of the plane would be horizontal at d) be 36°, and the inclination be 15°, or equal to the arc D d; latitude of the place d, that is, the arc d D be 15° 9'; and R Q, the difference of longitude, 36° 2'. From these data, therefore the dial, fig. 7, be described, as in the example.

ere are several things requisite in the  
if dialling; the chief of which shall  
in the form of arithmetical rules, simple  
o those who have learned the elements  
metry. For in practical arts of this  
imetric should be used as far as it can  
scales never trusted to, except in the  
truction, where they are absolutely ne-  
laying down the calculated hour dis-  
the plane of the dial,

the latitude of the place, the sun's decli-  
d his hour distance from the meridian,  
en, to find, first, his altitude, second  
th. Let *d*, fig. 6, be the sun's place,  
eclination; and in the triangle *PZd*,  
am, or the difference of *dR*, and the  
PR, being given by the supposition,  
e complement of the latitude *PZ*, and  
e *PZ*, which measures the horary dis-  
d from the meridian; we shall (by  
igonometry) find the base *Zd*, which is  
distance from the zenith, or the comple-  
is altitude. And, as  $\text{sine } Zd : \text{sine } Pd$   
*PZ* : *dZP*, or of its supplement *DZS*,  
th distance from the south.

the practical rule may be as follows: for the sine of the sun's altitude, L and sine and co-sine of the latitude, D and sine and co-sine of the sun's declina-

tion, and H for the sine of the nerary distance from VI. Then the relation of H to A will have three varieties.

84. When the declination is towards the elevated pole, and the hour of the day is between XII and VI; it is  $A = LD + H$  and  $H = A - LD$ .

85. When the hour is after VI, it is  $A \equiv LD - Hld$ , and  $H \equiv \frac{LD - A}{ld}$

85.\* When the declination is toward the depressed pole, we have  $A = H \sin d - LD$ , and  $H = \frac{A + LD}{\sin d}$

86. These theorems will be found useful and expeditious enough for solving those problems, in geography and dialling, which depend on the relation of the sun's altitude to the hour of the day.

87. *Example I.* Suppose the latitude of the place to be  $51^{\circ} 30'$  north: the time five hours distant from XII, that is, an hour after VI in the morning, or before VII in the evening; and the sun's declination  $2^{\circ}$  north. Required the sun's altitude?

Then to log. L=log. sin.  $51^{\circ} 30' - 1.89354$   
add log. D=log. sin.  $20^{\circ} 0' - 1.53405$

Their sum  $-1.42759$  gives  
 $L.D = \text{logarithm of } 0.267664$ , in the natural sines.

And, to log. H=log. sin.  $15^{\circ} 0'$ -1.41300  
 add { log.  $l$ =log. sin.  $38^{\circ} 0'$ -1.79414  
       { log.  $d$ =log. sin.  $70^{\circ} 0'$ -1.97300

Their sum  $-1.18014$  gives  $Hld =$  logarithm of  $0.151408$ , in the natura. sines. And these two numbers ( $0.267664$  and  $0.151408$ ) make  $0.419072 = A$ ; which, in the table, is the nearest natural sine of  $25^{\circ} 47'$ , the sun's altitude sought.

88. In these calculations the radius is considered as unity, and not 10·00000, by which, instead of the index 9, we have -1, which only makes the work a little easier.

89. The same hour distance being assumed on the other side of VI, then  $LD - Hld$  is  $0^{\circ}116256$ , the sine of  $60^{\circ}40'30''$ ; which is the sun's altitude at V in the morning, or VII in the evening, when his N. declination is  $20^{\circ}$ . But when the declination is  $20^{\circ}$  S. (or towards the depressed pole) the difference  $Hld - LD$  becomes negative; and thereby shows, that an hour before VI in the morning, or past VI in the evening, the sun's centre is  $6^{\circ}40'30''$  below the horizon.

90. *Example II.* From the same data to find the sun's azimuth. If  $H$ ,  $L$ , and  $D$ , are given, then from  $H$  having found the altitude and its complement  $Zd$ : and the arc  $Pd$  (the distance from the pole) being given; say, As the co-sine of the altitude is to the sine of the distance from the pole, so is the sine of the hour distance from the meridian to the sine of the azimuth distance from the meridian. Let the latitude-be  $51^{\circ} 30'$  N., the declination  $15^{\circ} 9'$  S., and the time 2 h. 24 m. in the afternoon, when the sun begins to illuminate a vertical wall, and it is required to find the position of the wall. Then, by the fore-



going theorems, the complement of the altitude will be  $81^{\circ} 32' 30''$ , and  $Pd$  the distance from the pole being  $109^{\circ} 5'$ , and the horary distance from the meridian, or the angle  $dPZ$ ,  $36^{\circ}$ .

To log. sin.  $74^{\circ} 51'$        $-1.98464$   
Add log. sin.  $36^{\circ} 0'$        $-1.76922$

And from the sum       $-1.75386$   
Take the log. sin.  $81^{\circ} 32'$        $-1.99525$

Remains  $-1.75861 = \log. \sin.$

$35^{\circ}$ , the azimuth distance sought.

91. When the altitude is given, find from thence the hour, and proceed as above. This praxis is of singular use on many occasions; as, 1. In finding the declination of vertical planes more exactly than in the common way, especially if the transits of the sun's centre are observed by applying a ruler with sights, either plain or telescopic, to the wall or plane whose declination is required. 2. In drawing a meridian line, and finding the magnetic variation. 3. In finding the bearings of places in terrestrial surveys; the transits of the sun over any place, or his horizontal distance from it, being observed, together with the altitude and hour; and thence determining small differences of longitude. 4. In observing the variations at sea, &c.

#### OF FINDING THE DECLINATION, INCLINATION, AND RECLINATION OF PLANES.

92. The declination, inclination, and reclination of planes are frequently taken with a sufficient degree of accuracy by an instrument called the declinator or declinatory.

92.\* The construction of this instrument, as somewhat improved by Mr. Jones, is thus: On a mahogany board is inserted a semicircular arch of ivory or box-wood, divided into two quadrants of  $90^{\circ}$  each, beginning from the middle. On the centre of this arch turns a vertical quadrant, which is divided into  $90^{\circ}$ , beginning from the base; on which is a moveable index, with a small hole for the sun's rays to pass through, and form a bright spot on a certain mark. The lower extremity is pointed, to mark the linear direction of the quadrant when applied to any other plane; as this quadrant takes off occasionally, and a plumb-line hangs at the centre, for taking the inclinations and reclinations of planes. On the plane of the board is inserted a compass of points and degrees, with a magnetical needle turning on a pivot over it. See DECLINATORY.

93. The addition of the moveable quadrant and index considerably extend the utility of the declinator, by rendering it convenient for taking equal altitudes of the sun, the sun's altitude, and bearing, at the same time, &c. To apply this instrument in taking the declination of a wall or plane: Place the back part of it in a horizontal direction to the plane proposed, and observe what degree or point of the compass the N. part of the needle stands over from the north or the south, and it will be the declination of the plane from the north or south accordingly. In this case, allowance must be made for the variation of the needle (if any) at the place; and which,

if not previously known, will render this operation very inaccurate.

94. But the most exact way for taking the declination of a plane, or finding a meridian line, by this instrument, is, in the forenoon, about two or three hours before twelve o'clock, to observe two or three heights or altitudes of the sun; and at the same time the respective angular pole distances. Write these down; and in the afternoon watch for the same, or one of the same altitudes, and mark the angular distances or distance on the quadrant; the division or degree exactly between the two noted angular distances will be the true meridian, and the distance at which it may fall from the centre of the divisions, will be the declination of the plane. The reason for observing two or three altitudes and angles in the morning is, that in case there should be clouds in the afternoon, we may have the chance of one corresponding altitude.

#### OF THE RIGHT PLACING OF DIALS.

95. The plane on which the dial is to be being duly prepared, and every thing necessary for fixing it, you may find the hour with tolerable exactness by a large equinoctial ring-dial, and set your watch to it. And then the dial may be fixed by the watch at your leisure.

96. If you would be more exact, take the sun's altitude by a good quadrant, noting the precise time of observation by a clock or watch. Then compute the time for the altitude observed; and set the watch to agree with that time, according to the sun. Hadley's quadrant is very convenient for this purpose: for by it you may take the angle between the sun and his image reflected from a basin of water; the half of which angle, subtracting the refraction, is the altitude required.

97. This is best done in summer; and the nearer the sun is to the prime vertical, the east or west azimuth, when the observation is made, is much the better. Or, take two equal altitudes of the sun in the same day; one any time between seven and ten in the morning, the other between two and five in the afternoon; noting the moments of these two observations by a clock or watch; and if the watch shows the observations to be at equal distances from noon, it agrees exactly with the sun: if not, the watch must be corrected by half the difference of the forenoon and afternoon intervals; and then the dial may be set true by the watch.

98. For example, suppose you had taken the sun's altitude when it was twenty minutes past VIII in the morning by the watch; and found, by observing in the afternoon, that the sun had the same altitude ten minutes before IV; then it is plain, that the watch was five minutes too fast for the sun: for five minutes after XII is the middle time between VIII h. 20 m. in the morning, and III h. 50 m. in the afternoon; and, therefore, to make the watch agree with the sun, it must be set back five minutes.

99. In many cases, where the situation is suitable, it is very desirable to have a true meridian line for the regulation of clocks and watches; we shall, therefore, here insert Mr. Ferguson's method of constructing one.



round hole, about a quarter of an inch in a thin plate of metal; and fix the top of a south window, in such a way that it may recline from the zenith at an angle equal to the colatitude of your place, as you can guess: for then the plate will be sun directly at noon on the equinoctial; and the sun shine freely through the hole into the room; and hang a plumb-line to the hole, at least five or six feet from the wall, in such a place as that the sun's shadow, when it is noon by the clock; and having fixed the said place on the ceiling, take a line.

adjusted a sliding bar to a dovetail piece of wood about eighteen inches long, and fixed a hook into the middle of the bar, and the wood to the above-mentioned place, so that the bar being parallel to the side of the room in the window is; the groove and the bar being fixed to the floor: then hang the plumb-line from the hook in the bar, the weight or plummet reaching almost to the floor; and the line will be prepared for further and proper use.

one, find the true solar time by either of the above methods, and thereby regulate your clock, at the moment of the next noon by the clock; when the sun shines, move the sliding bar in the groove, until the shadow of the plummet is the image of the sun, made by his shadow, transmitted through the hole, on the floor, on a white screen placed on the north wall; the plummet at the end of the line being freely in a pail of water placed beneath the floor.—But because this may not be exact for the first time, on account that the plummet will not settle immediately, even in water, it may be farther corrected on the following day by the above method, with the sun and shadow so brought to a very great exactness. The image transmitted through the hole will be a faint image of the sun, even on a white screen; unless the room be so darkened that no light may be allowed to enter but what comes

through the small hole in the plate. And always, for some time before the observation is made, the plummet ought to be immersed in a jar of water, where it may hang freely; by which means the line will soon become steady, which otherwise would be apt to continue swinging.

#### OF THE DOUBLE HORIZONTAL, THE BABYLONIAN AND ITALIAN DIALS.

100. Sometimes a stereographic projection of the hour circles, and the parallels of the sun's declination, is added to the gnomonic projection, on the same horizontal plane; the upright side of the gnomon being sloped into an edge, standing perpendicularly over the centre of the projection: so that the dial, being in its due position, the shadow of that perpendicular edge is a vertical circle passing through the sun, in the stereographic projection. The months being duly marked on this dial, the sun's declination, and the length of the day at any time, are had by inspection; as also his altitude, by means of a scale of tangents. But its chief property is, that it may be placed true, whenever the sun shines, without the help of any other instrument.

101. The Babylonian and Italian dials reckon the hours, not from the meridian as with us, but from the sun's rising and setting. Thus, in Italy, an hour before sun-set is reckoned the twenty-third hour; two hours before sun-set the twenty-second hour; and so of the rest. And the shadow that marks them on the hour-lines, is that of the point of a stile. This occasions a perpetual variation between their dials and clocks, which they must correct from time to time, before it arises to any sensible quantity, by setting their clocks so much faster or slower. And in Italy, they begin their day, and regulate their clocks, not from sun-set, but from about mid-twilight, when the Ave Maria is said; which corrects the difference that would otherwise exist between the clock and the dial. The improvements which have been made in all sorts of instruments and machines for measuring time, have rendered these dials of little account.

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DIALLING in a mine, called also plumbing, is the using of a compass, which the miners call dial, and a long line to know which way the load or vein of ore inclines, or where to shift an air-shaft, or bring an adit to a desired place.

DIALLING LINES, or DIALLING SCALES. See DIALLING, Index.

DIALLING SECTOR is a sector having upon it, besides other lines, the dialling lines, the construction of which is shown under DIALLING. It is evident that some advantage will be obtained in the practice of dialling by having the line placed on a sector. See SECTOR.

DIALLING SPHERE, is an instrument made of brass, with several semicircles sliding over one another, on a moving horizon, to demonstrate the nature of the doctrine of spherical triangles, and to give a true idea of the drawing of dials on all manner of planes.

DIALLING TRIGON, an instrument invented by Mr. Benjamin Martin, consisting of two graduated scales and a plane, used by some in the practice of dialling.

DIALECT, *n. s.* Fr. *dialecte*; Span. *dialecto*; Ital. *dialetto*; Lat. *dialectus*; Gr. *διαλεκτος*, from *δια* and *λεγω*, to speak. Language; style; the mode of expression peculiar to a certain district.

When themselves do practise that whereof they write, they change their *dialect*; and those words they shun, as if there were in them some secret sting.

Hooker.

In her youth

There is a prone and speechless *dialect*,  
Such as moves men.

Shakespeare. Measure for Measure.

If the conferring of a kindness did not bind the person upon whom it was conferred to the returns of gratitude, why, in the universal *dialect* of the world, are kindnesses still called obligations?

South.

The Tuscan language is greatly admired for its elegance, and the meanest inhabitants of Italy speak a *dialect* which the rest of Italy are proud to imitate.

DIALECT is an appellation given to the language of a province, in so far as it differs from that of the whole kingdom. The term is particularly used in speaking of the ancient languages, whereof there were four dialects, each of which was a perfect language in its kind, and held its place in certain countries. In Great Britain, besides the two dialects of English and Scotch, almost every county has a dialect of its own, differing considerably in pronunciation, accent, and tone, although one and the same language.

DIALECTICS, in the literary history of the ancients, that branch of logic which taught the rules and modes of reasoning. See LOGIC. Eleates was the first who discovered the method of series of principles and conclusions observed in reasoning, and formed an art thereof in form of a dialogue; which, for this reason, was called dialectica. The dialectica of the ancients usually divided into several kinds: The first was the eleatica, that of Zeno Eleates, which was threefold; viz. consecutionum, colloquii, and contentiunum. The first consisting of rules for deducing or drawing conclusions. The second, the art of dialogue; which became such universal use in philosophy, that all reasoning was called interrogation: then, syllogism being laid aside, the philosophers used dialogue and required the respondent to conclude, and argue from the several concessions made. The last part of Zeno's dialectics, *apertum*, was contentious, or the art of disputing and contradicting, though some, particularly Laertius, ascribe this part to Protagoras a disciple of Zeno.

The second is the dialectica megarica, an author is Euclid, as of Megara. He gave it



hod of Zeno and Protagoras; though no things appropriated to him: the e impugned the demonstrations of by assumptions, but conclusions; making illations, and proceeding uence to consequence: the second, side all arguments drawn from com-similitude as invalid. He was suc-lubulides, from whom the sophistic oning is said to be derived. In his is described as manifold: mentiens, ra, obvelata, arcevalis, cornuta, and SOPHISM.

is the dialectica of Plato, which he a kind of analysis to direct the hu-by dividing, defining, and bringing: first truth; where being arrived, it f to explain sensible things, but with turn to the first truth where alone it uch is the idea of Plato's analysis.

h is Aristotle's dialectica: containing e of simple words, delivered in his edicaments; the doctrine of propo-his book *De Interpretatione*; and several kinds of syllogism, in his nalytics, Topics, and Elenchuses.

is the dialectica of the Stoics; which part of philosophy, dividing it into d dialectic; to which some add the whereby things are justly defined; ing likewise the canons or criterions The Stoics, before they treat of have two principal places; the one gnification of words, the other about gnified. On occasion of the first, er abundance of things belonging to arian's province: what, and how t; what is a word, diction, speech, occasion of the latter, they consider selves, not as without the mind, but ceived in it by means of the senses. r, they first teach, that nil sit in in-od non prius fuerit in sensu; 'what-e mind came thither by the senses;' t incursione sui, as Plato, who meets aut similitudine, as Cæsar by his proportione, either by enlarging as a diminish as a pygmy; aut trans-a Cyclops; aut compositione, as a ut contrario, as death; aut privatione, nan.

is Epicurus's dialectica: who had certain canons, the collection whereof anonica; and as all questions in phi- either de re or de voce, he gave les for each.

CTICK, *n. s.* Διαλεκτική. Logic; reasoning. See DIALECT.

CTICAL, *adj.* Logical; argumen-

lectual subtleties, that the schoolmen t physiological mysteries, more declare him that uses them, than increase the sober lovers of truth. Boyle.

HA, in the writings of the ancients, ed to express the elegant ornaments eks and Romans, composed of gold

They also called these lithocolla, tones or gems; the gold being in this

case as a cement to hold the stones together. They wore bracelets and other ornaments about their dress: and their cups and table-furniture were of the same kind. The green stones were found to succeed best, and the emerald and chrysolite were most in esteem for this purpose. Pliny says of them: 'Nihil jrcondius aurum decet,' 'Nothing becomes gold better.'

DIAL'OGIST, *n. s.* } Gr. διάλογος; δια  
Di'ALOGUE, *n. s.* & *v. n.* } and λογος, a word.  
A speaker in a conference; a conference or con-  
versation between two or more persons. To  
hold a conference.

Will you hear the *dialogue* that the two learned  
men have compiled in praise of the owl and cuckow?  
*Shakspeare.*

Dost *dialogue* with thy shadow?  
*Id. Timon.*

In easy *dialogues* is Fletcher's praise;  
He moved the mind, but had not power to raise.  
*Dryden.*

With the stars  
And the quick Spirit of the Universe  
He held his *dialogues*; and they did teach  
To him the magic of their mysteries. *Byron.*

DIALYSIS, in grammar, a mark or character, consisting of two points (") placed over two vowels, because otherwise they would make a diphthong, as Mosäic, Phæton, &c.

DIAMASTIGOSIS, a festival of Sparta, in honor of Diana Orthia, which received that name απο του μασιγονν, from whipping, because boys were whipped before the altar of the goddess. These boys, called Bomonica, were originally free-born Spartans, but in the more delicate ages they were of mean birth, and generally of a slavish origin. This operation was performed by an officer in a severe and unfeeling manner; and that no compassion should be raised, the priest stood near the altar with a small light statue of the goddess, which suddenly became heavy and insupportable if the lash of the whip was less rigorous. The parents of the children attended the solemnity, and exhorted them not to show themselves, either by fear or groans, unworthy of Laconian education. These flagellations were so severe, that the blood gushed in profuse torrents, and many expired under the lash of the whip, without uttering a groan, or betraying any marks of fear. Such a death was reckoned very honorable, and the corpse was buried with much solemnity with a garland of flowers on its head. The origin of this festival is unknown. Some suppose that Lycurgus first instituted it to inure the youth of Lacedemon to bear labor and fatigue, and render them insensible to pain and wounds. Others maintain, that it is a mitigation of an oracle, which ordered that human blood should be shed on Diana's altar; and according to their opinion, Orestes first introduced that barbarous custom, after he had brought the statue of Diana Taurica into Greece. There is another tradition which mentions that Pausanias, as he was offering prayers and sacrifices to the gods, before he engaged with Mardonius, was suddenly attacked by a number of Lydians who disturbed the sacrifice, and were at last repelled with staves and stones, the only weapons with which the Lacedemonians were provided at that



moment. In commemoration of this, therefore, the whipping of boys was instituted at Sparta, and after that the Lydian procession.

DIAMETER, *n. s.* } Gr. *διά* and *με-*  
DIAMETRAL, *adj.* } *τρον*, a measure. The  
DIAMETRICALLY, *adv.* } line which, passing  
DIAMETRIC, *adj.* } through the centre of  
DIAMETRICALLY, *adv.* } a circle, or other curvilinear figure, divides it into equal parts. Diametral and diametrical is describing or relating to a diameter; also, in a figurative sense, directly opposite; or perhaps, to the greatest length opposed, as are the points of a circumference touched by the ends of a diameter. Diametrically and diametrically are also synonymous.

The space between the earth and the moon, according to Ptolemy, is seventeen times the diameter of the earth, which makes, in a gross account, about one hundred and twenty thousand miles. *Raleigh.*

He made an instrument to know  
If the Moon shine full or no.

— Tell what her diameter to an inch is,  
And prove that she's not made of green cheese.

*Hudibras.*

He persuaded the king to consent to what was diametrically against his conscience and his honour, and, in truth, his security. *Clarendon.*

Christian piety is, beyond all other things, diametrically opposed to profaneness and impiety of actions. *Hammond.*

Thus intercepted in its passage, the vapour, which cannot penetrate the stratum diametrically, glides along the lower surface of it, permeating the horizontal interval, which is betwixt the said dense stratum and that which lies underneath it. *Woodward.*

That the longer diameter of an ellipsis may be shortened, till it shall differ little from a circle, is indisputably true. *Johnson.*

DIAMETER. The line, which passing through the centre of a circle, or other curvilinear figure, divides it into equal parts. The impossibility of expressing the exact proportion of the diameter of a circle to a circumference, by any received way of notation, and the absolute necessity of bringing it as near the truth as possible, has induced some of the most celebrated men in all ages to endeavour to approximate it. The first who attempted it with success was the celebrated Van Cuelen, a Dutchman, who, by the ancient very laborious method, carried it to thirty-six decimal places; these he ordered to be engraved on his tomb-stone, thinking he had set bounds to improvement. However, the indefatigable Abraham Sharp carried it to seventy-five places in decimals; and since that time it has been carried much further.

DIAMOND, *n. s.* } Fr. and Dut. *diamant*;  
DIAMONDED, *adj.* } Ital. Span. and Port. *diamante*; Teut. *demant*, from Lat. *adamas*, *adamantis*; Gr. *ἀδάμας*, *ἀδάμαντρος*, i. e. a privative, and *ἀνάζω* to subdue, because too hard to break or mould into shape. See the article below. A precious stone. Diamonded is, shaped like a diamond.

I see how thine eye would emulate the diamond:  
thou hast the right arch bent of the brow.

*Shakespeare.*

Lop a bough of a tree, and one shall behold its  
thereof (by some secret cause in nature) diamond  
or streaked in the fashion of a lozenge.

Certainly the price and virtue of things  
in the quantity: one diamond is more worth than  
many quarries of stone. *Bp. Hall. Contes.*

The diamond is by mighty monarchs  
Fair as the star that ushers in the morn.

*Bl.*

The lively diamond drinks thy purest  
Collected light, compact.

Shakspeare opens a mine which contains  
diamonds in inexhaustible plenty, though dis-  
incrustations, debased by impurities, and  
with a mass of meaner minerals.

The DIAMOND is a genus of siliceous  
called *adamas gemma* by the Latins, *diamant* by  
the Germans and Swedes, and *diamant* by the  
French, and is the hardest of all stones hitherto  
discovered. See *ADAMAS*. It was thought by  
the ancients that the diamond became hard  
and malleable, by steeping it in hot gosh-  
blood. Diamonds are found only in the East  
Indies, and in Brasil in South America. The  
diamond mines are in GOLCONDA, VENICE,  
BENGAL, and the island of BORNEO. See these  
articles. In the mines of Golconda are found a  
great number of stones from ten to forty carats,  
and upwards; and it was here that the famous  
diamond of Aurengzebe, the great mogul, was  
found, which before it was cut weighed 793 carats.  
The stones of this mine are not very clear; their  
water is usually tinged with the quality of  
the soil: being black where that is marshy; red  
where it partakes of red; and sometimes green  
and yellow, where the ground is of these colors.  
Another defect is a kind of greasiness appearing  
on the diamond, when cut, which takes off part  
of its lustre. There are usually not fewer than  
60,000 persons, men, women, and children, at  
work in this mine. When the miners have found  
a place where they intend to dig, they level another  
somewhat bigger near it, and enclose it with  
walls about two feet high, leaving apertures from  
space to space, to give passage to the water.  
They dig twelve or fourteen feet deep, and when  
they find water. Then they cease, and the water  
thus found serves to wash the earth two or three  
times, after which it is let out at an aperture  
reserved for that purpose. This earth being well  
washed and dried, they sift it in a kind of open  
sieve, as we do corn; then thresh it, and sift it  
afresh; and lastly, search it well with the hands  
to find the diamonds. The miners work naked,  
except that they have a thin linen cloth before  
them. They have also inspectors, to prevent  
their concealing diamonds; which, however,  
they frequently do, by swallowing them when  
not observed.

Diamonds are commonly clear and pellucid,  
yet some are met with of a rose color, or inclining  
to green, blue, or black, and some have black  
specks. Tavernier saw one in the treasury of  
the mogul, with black specks in it, weighing  
about fifty-six carats; and he informs us, that  
yellow and black diamonds are produced in the  
mines at Carnatica. Mr. Dutens also relates  
that he saw a black diamond at Vienna in the  
collection of the prince de Lichtenstein. Some



ve a greenish crust; and of these relates, that they burst into pieces g into a proper shape, or in the very ing on the wheel. In confirmation entions a large diamond worth up- 000 sterling, which burst into nine polishing on the wheel at Venice. monds are those of a color like pure regular form, and free from stains, , flaws, and cross veins. Diamonds, low, blue, green, or red, in a high ext in esteem; but if they are tinc- ese colors only in a low degree, the ly diminished. There are also dia- rown, and some of a dark hue; the ng the brownest sugar-candy, and ky iron. In the Philosophical Com- s, Dr. Lewis tells us of a black dia- himself had seen. At a distance it rmly black, but on closer examina- l in some parts transparent, and in d with foulness, on which the black d. These gems are lamellated, con- ry thin plates like talc, but very d, the direction of which must be y lapidaries before they can work y. Such as have their foliated sub- a flat position, are called by the monds of nature.

water in diamonds means the greatest perfection of their complexion, which that of the purest water. When d short of this perfection, they are the second or third water, &c., till y be properly called a colored one: be an impropriety to speak of an colored diamond, or one that has as a stone of a bad water only.

is so hard, that it can only be cut by itself and its own substance. To hat perfection which augments its iderably, they begin by rubbing se- each other while rough, after having o the ends of two wooden blocks, to be held in the hand, with a mix- and brick dust. It is this powder, off, and received in a little box for , that serves to grind and polish the This is done by a mill, which turns oft iron, sprinkled over with dia- mixed with oil of olives. The same ound, and diluted with water and ed in the sawing of diamonds, which with an iron or brass wire as fine as times, in lieu of sawing, they cleave ally if there be any large shivers the Europeans are not usually dar- enough to run the risk of cleaving, eaking.

stest diamond ever known belongs of Portugal, and was found in Brasil. ut; and Mr. Magellan informs us, rger, but a piece was broken off by countryman who chanced to find n, and tried its hardness by the arge hammer upon an anvil. This diamond weighs 1680 carats; and s uncut, Mr. Rome de l'Isle says VII.

that it is valued at £224,000,000 sterling, which gives the estimation of 79.36, or about £80 ster- ling for each carat; viz. for the multiplicand of the square of its whole weight. But even in case of any error of the press in this valuation, if we employ the general rule abovementioned, this great gem must be worth, at least, above £3,500,000 sterling. 2. The famous diamond which adorns the imperial sceptre of Russia under the eagle at the top of it, weighs 779 carats, and is worth at least £4,854,728 sterl., although it hardly cost 135,417 guineas. This diamond was one of the eyes of a Malabarian idol, named Sche- ringham. A French grenadier, who had deserted from the Indian service, contrived to become one of the priests of that idol, from which he stole one of its eyes; he then ran away to the English at Trichinapeuty, and thence to Madras. A ship's captain bought it for 20,000 rupees; afterwards a Jew gave £17,000 or £18,000 sterling for it: at last a Greek merchant, named Gregory Suffras, offered it to sale at Amsterdam in 1766; and the late prince Orloff purchased it, as he himself told Mr. Magellan in London, for the empress Ca- tharine II. The figure and size of this diamond may be seen in the British Museum in London: it is not of a regular form. 3. The diamond of the great mogul is cut in rose; weighs 279 $\frac{1}{2}$  carats, and is worth 380,000 guineas. This diamond has a small flaw underneath near the bottom; and Tavernier, page 389, who examined it, valued the carat at 150 French livres. Before this dia- mond was cut it weighed 793 $\frac{3}{4}$  carats, according to Rome de l'Isle; but Tavernier, vol. 2, p. 339, says, that it weighed 900 carats before it was cut. If this is the same diamond, its loss by being cut was very extraordinary. 4. Another diamond of the king of Portugal, which weighs 215 carats, is extremely fine, and is worth at least 369,800 guineas. 5—7. The diamond of the emperor of Germany weighs 139 $\frac{1}{2}$  carats; and is worth at least 109,520 guineas. Tavernier says, that this diamond has a little hue of a citron color; and he valued it at 135 livres tournoises the carat. Robert de Berquen the grandson of Louis, says, that this diamond was cut into two: that the grand Turk had another of the same size; and that there were at Bisnagar two large diamonds, one of 250 and another of 140 carats. 8. The dia- mond of the late king of France, called the Pitt or Regent, weighs 136 $\frac{1}{2}$  carats: this gem is worth at least 208,333 guineas, although it did not cost above the half of this value. 9. The other dia- mond of the same monarch, called the Sancy, weighs fifty-five carats: it cost 25,000 guineas; and M. Dutens says, that it is worth much above that price.

For the valuation of diamonds of all weights, Mr. Jefferies lays down the following rules.—He first supposes the value when rough to be £2 per carat, at a medium; then to find the value of diamonds of greater weights, multiply the square of their weight by 2, and the product is the value required. *Example.* To find the value of a rough diamond of two carats,  $2 \times 2 = 4$ , the square of the weight; which, multiplied by 2 gives £8, the true value of a rough diamond of two carats. For finding the value of manufac-



tured diamonds, he supposes half their weight to be lost in manufacturing them. To find their value, multiply the square of double their weight by 2, which will give their true value in pounds. Thus to find the value of a wrought diamond weighing two carats; we first find the square of double the weight, viz.  $4 \times 4 = 16$ ; then  $16 \times 2 = 32$ . So that the true value of a wrought diamond of two carats is £32.

The names of *oriental* and *occidental*, given by jewellers to this and all other precious stones, have a different meaning from the obvious sense; the finest and hardest being always called *oriental* whether they be produced in the east or not. Those called *occidental* are of inferior value; but according to Mr. Jefferies, who has written a treatise on the subject, the diamonds of Brasil equal the finest oriental ones. Diamonds are also distinguished according to their figure, by the names of rose diamonds, brilliants, and rough diamonds.

*Brilliant diamonds* are those cut in faces both at top and bottom; and whose table, or principal face at top, is flat. To make a complete square brilliant, if the rough diamond be not round of a square figure, it must be made so; and if the work be perfectly executed, the length of the axis will be equal to the side of the square base of the pyramid. Jewellers then form the table and collet by dividing the block, or length of the axis, into eighteen parts. They take 5-18ths from the upper part, and 1-18th from the lower. This gives a plane at 4-18ths from the girdle for the table; and a smaller plane at 5-18ths distance for the collet, the breadth of which will be 1-5th of the breadth of the table. In this state the stone is said to be a *complete square table diamond*. The brilliant is an improvement on the table diamond, and, according to Mr. Jefferies, was introduced within the last century. To render a brilliant perfect, each corner of the above described table diamond, must be shortened by 1-20th of its original. The corner ribs of the upper sides must be flattened, or run towards the centre of the table 1-6th less than the sides; the lower part, which terminates in the girdle, must be 1-8th of one side of the girdle; and each corner rib of the under sides must be flattened at the top, to answer the above flattening at the girdle, and at the bottom must be 1-4th of each side of the collet. The parts of the small work, which complete the brilliant, or the star, and skill facets, are of a triangular figure. Both of these partake equally of the depth of the upper sides from the table to the girdle; and meet in the middle of each side of the table and girdle, as also at the corners. Thus they produce regular lozenges on the four upper sides and corners of the stone. The triangular facets, on the under sides, joining to the girdle, must be half as deep again as the above facets, to answer to the collet parts. The stone here described is said to be a *full-substantiated brilliant*. If the stone is thicker than in the proportion here mentioned, it is said to be an *over-weighted brilliant*. If the thickness is less than in this proportion, it is called a *spread-brilliant*. The beauty of brilliants is diminished by their being either over-weighted or spread. The true proportion of the axis, or depth of the

stone to its side, is as 2 to 3. Brilliants are distinguished into square, round, oval, and from the figure of their respective girdles.

*Rose diamonds* are quite flat underneath their upper part cut in divers little faces, triangles, the uppermost of which terminate in a point. The depth of the stone from the point must be half the breadth of the diamond of the base of the stone. The diameter of the crown must be 2-5ths of the diameter of the stone. The perpendicular, from the base to the point, must be 3-5ths of the diameter of the stone. Lozenges which appear in all circular rose diamonds, will be equally divided by the perpendicular; and the upper angles of the crown will terminate in the extreme point of the stone and the lower in the base or girdle.

*Rough diamonds* are the stones, as nature produces them in the mines. They should be chosen uniform, of a good shape, transparent, quite white, and free of flaws and shivers. If they are rugged, dirty, flawed, veiny stones, and if they are not fit for cutting, they use to pour them into steel mortar made for that purpose; and by pulverising they serve to saw, cut, and polish. Shivers are occasioned in diamonds by this, that the miners, to get them more easily out of the vein, which winds between two rocks, break the rocks with huge iron levers, and shakes, and fills the stone with cracks and shivers.

It has been proved that diamonds are dissipated, not only by the heat of the sun, but also by the heat of a fire. Boyle says, that he perceived acrid and penetrating exhalations from diamonds exposed to fire. A diamond by exposure to fire, the diameter of whose concave speculum, the diameter of which was forty inches, was reduced to an eighth part of its weight. In the *Giornale de Letterati* there is a relation of experiments made with precious stones, by order of the grand duke of Tuscany, with a burning lens, the diameter of which was two-thirds of a Florentine ell, near the end of which was placed another smaller lens. In these experiments we find, that diamonds were altered by solar heat than most of the other precious stones, although not the least. The first appearance of a commencing fusion was observed in a diamond weighing thirty grains, thus: during thirty seconds, lost its color, lost its transparency, and became of an opaque white; five minutes bubbles appeared on its surface; afterwards it burst into pieces, which were separated; and the small fragment which remained was capable of being crushed into fine powder by the pressure of the blade of a knife. In the addition of glass, flints, sulphur, or salt of tartar prevented this dissipation of diamonds, or occasioned any degree of fusion. Other experiments made by order of the French Academy, we find, that diamonds were dissipated by having been exposed in a furnace to a violent fire of a furnace during two hours; while rubies by the same heat were altered in weight, color, or polish. By exposing diamonds during two hours only at the following alterations produced on them, fire were observed. First, they lost their



then they were split into thin plates; and, lastly, totally dissipated. By the same fire, emeralds were fused. See *Magasin de Hambourg*, tom. xviii. The action of fire on diamonds was, notwithstanding the above-mentioned experiments, doubted in France, where numerous experiments have been made. M. D'Arcet, found, not only that diamonds included in porcelain crucibles, closed or covered with perforated lids, and exposed to the long and intense heat of a porcelain furnace, were perfectly dissipated; but also, that these stones could, in a few hours, be totally volatilised with a much inferior degree of heat, by exposing them in a coppel, under the muffle of an assay furnace. In this experiment, he observed that the dissipation was gradual, and that it was effected by a kind of exfoliation. The dissipation of diamonds exposed in coppels was confirmed by M. Macquer, who farther observed, that the diamonds were, before the dissipation began, rendered, by the fire, brilliant and shining, as it were, with a phosphoric light. To determine whether the dissipation of diamonds was effected by their reduction into vapor, or by a combustion or other effect of air upon them, Messrs. Lavoisier, Macquer, and Cadet, exposed diamonds to intense heat in an earthen retort, during several hours, but without any other effect than that their polish was destroyed, and about 1-7th of their weight diminished. M. Mitouard put diamonds in a tobacco-pipe filled with powdered charcoal accurately closed with lute. He further secured the diamonds from access of air or flame, by placing the tobacco-pipe in a crucible, to which another crucible was inverted and carefully luted. The diamonds, thus excluded from external air, having been exposed to the most intense heat which could be excited in a well constructed furnace, were not thereby altered or diminished.

Lavoisier, in a memoir published in 1772, showed that when the diamond is burnt, carbonic acid gas is obtained, and that there is a striking analogy between it and charcoal. In 1785 Gnyton Morvau found that the diamond is combustible when dropped into melted nitre; that it burns without leaving any residuum, and in a manner analogous to charcoal. In 1797 Mr. Tennant repeated this experiment with much more precision; and the conclusion he drew from it was, that when a diamond is burnt, the whole of the product is carbonic acid gas; that a given weight of diamond yields just as much carbonic gas as the same weight of charcoal; and that diamond and charcoal are both composed of the very same substance.

Sir Humphry Davy, from the action of potassium on it, and its non-conduction of electricity, suggested in his third Bakerian lecture, that a minute portion of oxygen might exist in it; and in his new experiments on the fluoric compounds he threw out the idea, that it might be the carbonaceous principle, combined with some new, light, and subtle element, of the oxygenous and chlorine class.

This unrivalled chemist, during his residence at Florence in March, 1814, made several experiments on the combustion of the diamond and of plumbago, by means of the great lens in

the cabinet of natural history; the same instrument as that employed in the first trials on the action of the solar heat on the diamond, instituted in 1694 by Cosmo III., grand duke of Tuscany. He subsequently made a series of researches on the combustion of different kinds of charcoal at Rome. His mode of investigation was peculiarly elegant, and led to the most decisive results.

From the results of his different experiments, conducted with the most unexceptionable precision, it is demonstrated, that diamond affords no other substance by its combustion than pure carbonic acid gas; and that the process is merely a solution of diamond in oxygen, without any change in the volume of the gas.

DIAMOND, in the glass trade, an instrument used for squaring the large plates or pieces; and, among glaziers, for cutting their glass. These sorts of diamonds (which are small broken pieces of real diamonds), are differently fitted up. To be used for large pieces, as looking-glasses, &c. they are set in an iron ferrule, about two inches long, and a quarter of an inch in diameter, the cavity of the ferrule being filled up with lead, to keep the diamond firm: there is also a handle of box or ebony fitted to the ferrule, for holding it by. An application of the diamond, of great importance in the art of engraving, has been also made within a few years by the late Wilson Lowry, the eminent engraver, and first inventor of the mechanical methods now used in that part of the process called etching. He applied them to the purpose of drawing or ruling lines, which are afterwards to be deepened by aqua-fortis. Formerly steel points, called etching-needles, were used for that purpose, but they soon became blunt by the friction against the copper.

DIAMOND, in heraldry, a term used for expressing the black color in the achievements of peerage. Guillim does not approve of blazoning the coats of peers by precious stones, instead of metals and colors; but the English practice allows it. Morgan says the diamond is an emblem of fortitude.

DIAMONDS, CORNISH, a name given by many people to the crystals found in digging the mines of tin in Cornwall.

DIAMOND HARBOUR, a harbour in the Ganges, or Hoogly River, about thirty-four miles below Calcutta. The Company's ships are generally unloaded here, and take in their homeward-bound cargoes. The place is unhealthy; and owing to the heavy exhalations the sleeping in it is next to certain death. The country on both sides of the river abounds with tigers. The village is poor; but at Fulta, twelve miles up the river, there is a market and a good inn.

DIANA, the goddess of hunting. According to Cicero, there were three of this name: a daughter of Jupiter and Proserpine, who became mother of Cupid—a daughter of Jupiter and Latona—and a daughter of Upis and Glaucæ. The second is the most celebrated, and to her the ancients allude. She was early averse to marriage, and obtained leave of her father to live in perpetual celibacy, and to preside over the pains of women. To shun the society of



men she devoted herself to hunting, and was always accompanied by a number of chosen virgins, who, like herself, abjured marriage. She is represented with a quiver, attended with dogs, and sometimes drawn in a chariot by two white stags. Sometimes she appears with wings, holding a lion in one hand and a panther in the other, with a chariot drawn by two heifers, or two horses of different colors. She is tall, her face something manly; her legs are bare, well-shaped, and strong, and her feet covered with a buskin. She received many surnames, particularly from the places where her worship was established, and from the functions over which she presided. She was called Lucina, Ilythia, or Juno Pronuba, when invoked by women in child-bed; and Trivia, when worshipped in the cross-ways, where her statues were generally erected. She was supposed to be the same as the moon, and Proserpine or Hecate; hence she was called Triformis; and some of her statues represented her with three heads,—that of a horse, a dog, and a boar. Her powers and functions under these three characters have been expressed in these lines:—

Terret, lustrat, agit, Proserpina, Luna, Diana,  
Ina, suprema, feras, sceptro, fulgore, sagitta.

She was also called Agrotera, Orthia, Taurica, Delia, Cynthia, Aricia, &c., and supposed to be the same as the Isis of the Egyptians, whose worship was introduced into Greece with that of Osiris. When Typhon waged war against the gods, Diana metamorphosed herself into a cat to avoid his fury. The most famous of her temples was that of Ephesus. See *EPHESUS*. She was there represented with a great number of breasts, and other symbols of Cybele, or the earth. Though the patroness of chastity, yet she is said to have descended from her dignity to enjoy the company of Endymion, and to have granted favors to Pan and Orion. The inhabitants of Taurica were particularly attached to the worship of this goddess, and offered on her altar all the strangers that were shipwrecked on their coasts. Her temple in Aricia was always served by a priest who had murdered his predecessor; and the Lacedæmonians yearly offered her human victims till the time of Lycurgus, who changed this barbarous custom for the sacrifice of flagellation. See *DIAMASTIGOSIS*. The Athenians generally offered her goats; and others a white kid, a boar pig, or an ox. Among plants, the poppy and the dittany were sacred to her. She had oracles in Egypt, Cilicia, and Ephesus.

*DIANÆ FANUM*, in ancient geography, a promontory of Bithynia; now called Scutari, a citadel, opposite to Constantinople, on the east side of the Bosphorus Thracius.

*DIANDRIA*, from δις twice, and ἀνρ a man, the second class in Linnaeus's sexual system, consisting of hermaphrodite plants, which have flowers with two male organs. See *BOTANY*.

*DIANIUM*, in ancient geography, a town in Valentia, famous for a temple of Diana, whence the name; now called Denia.

*DIANTHERA*, in botany. See *JUSTICIA*.

*DIANTHUS*, the clove-gilliflower, carnation, pink, sweet-william, &c., a genus of the digynia

order, and decandria class of plants; natural order twenty-second, caryophyllei: cal. cylindrical, and monophyllous, with four scales at the base. There are five petals with narrow hosi; the capsule is cylindrical and unilocular. There are many species, but not above four that have much beauty as garden flowers. But each of these furnishes several beautiful varieties: viz.

1. *D. barbatus*, or bearded dianthus, commonly called sweet-william. This rises with many thick leafy shoots, crowning the root in a cluster close to the ground; garnished with spear-shaped evergreen leaves, from half an inch to two inches broad. The stems are upright and firm, branching erect two or three feet high, having all the branches and main stem crowned by numerous flowers in aggregate clusters of different colors and variegations.

2. *D. caryophyllus*, clove-gilliflower, including all the varieties of carnation. It rises with many short trailing shoots from the root, garnished with long, very narrow, evergreen leaves; and amidst them upright slender flower-stalks, from one to three feet high, emitting many side shoots, all of which, as well as the main stalk, are terminated by large solitary flowers, having short oval scales to the calyx, and crenated petals. The varieties of this are very numerous, and unlimited in the diversity of flowers.

3. *D. Chinensis*, Chinese, or Indian pink, is an annual plant, with upright firm flower-stalks, branching erect on every side, a foot or fifteen inches high, having all the branches terminated by solitary flowers of different colors and variegations, appearing from July to November.

4. *D. deltoides*, or common pink, rises with numerous short leafy shoots, crowning the root, in a tufted head close to the ground, closely garnished with small narrow leaves, and from the ends of the shoots many erect flower-stalks, from about six to fifteen inches high, terminated by solitary flowers of different colors, single and double, and sometimes firmly variegated. This species is perennial, as all the varieties of it commonly cultivated also are.

*DI'APASE*, or *DIAPA'SON*, n. s. Gr. δια παση. A chord including all tones. The first is the old word.

The sweet numbers and melodious measures,  
With which I wont the winged words to tie,  
And make a tuneful diapase of pleasures,  
Now being let to run at liberty. *Spenser.*

It discovereth the true coincidence of sounds into  
diapasons, which is the return of the same sound. *Bacon.*

Harsh din  
Broke the fair musick that all creatures made  
To their great Lord, whose love their motion sway'd  
In perfect diapason, whilst they stood  
In first obedience, and their state of good. *Milton.*

From harmony, from heavenly harmony,  
This universal frame began;  
From harmony to harmony

Through all the compass of the notes it ran.

The diapason closing full in man. *Dryden.*

*Diapason* denotes a chord which includes all tones: it is the same with that we call an eighth, or an octave; because there are but seven tones or notes, and then the eighth is the same again with the first.

*Harv.*



musical! when all-devouring Time,  
 on his throne of ruins hoar,  
 winds and tempests sweep his various lyre,  
 at thy diapason, Melancholy. *Byron.*

ON among musical instrument makers,  
 a scale whereby they adjust the pipes  
 and, and cut the holes of their hauts,  
 &c., in due proportion for perform-  
 es, semi-tones, and concords just.  
 ON, in music, a musical interval by  
 which writers on music express the oc-  
 currences of the Greeks.

ON DIAEX, a kind of compound con-  
 cord, which there are two sorts: the greater,  
 in the proportion of 10:3; and the lesser,  
 16:5.

ON DIAPENTE, a compound conso-  
 nant, triple ratio, as 3-9. This interval,  
 in the Capella, consists of nine tones  
 and a semi-tone, nineteen semi-tones, and thirty-  
 six. It is a symphony made when the  
 notes of the first to the twelfth sound.

ON DIATESSARON, a compound con-  
 cord, in the proportion of eight to  
 this interval Martians Capella allows  
 of a semi-tone, seventeen semitones,  
 four dieses. This is when the voice  
 from its first to its eleventh sound.  
 Musicians would rather call it the eleventh.  
 DESIS, in medicine, a transudation  
 is through the sides of the vessels that  
 is occasioned by the blood's becoming  
 attenuated, or the pores too open.

NTE, in ancient music, an interval  
 is second of the concords, and with  
 it an octave. This is what in mo-  
 dern is called a fifth.

R, n. s. & v. a. Fr. *diapre*; so called from  
 (pres), as Denim from Nismes. Linen  
 is in flowers, and other figures; the  
 names of figured linen after damask.  
 a verb, to diversify or variegate with  
 to imitate diaper.

y damsel, which her vaunteth most  
 diligent knitting of soft silken twine;  
 y weaver, which his work doth boast  
 super, in damask, or in lince,  
 in their diverse cunning ever dare  
 his so curious net-work to compare.

*Spenser.*

he stones her tender foot should wrong,  
 he strewed with flowers all along,  
 and like the discoloured mead. *Id.*  
 attend him with a silver bason  
 sea-water, and bestrewed with flowers;  
 near the ewer, a third a diaper.

*Shakespeare.*

per upon folds, let your work be broken,  
 as it were, by the half; for reason tells  
 us fold must cover somewhat unseen.

*Peachment on Drawing.*

d to cloath our grand dame earth with a  
 diapered with various flowers and che-  
 rished objects. *Hovel's Vocal Forest.*

ANIC, *adj.* } Gr. *διαφανεια*. Trans-  
 parency; pellucidness;  
 SEITY, n. s. } power of transmitting

callet light a quality inherent or cleaving  
 our body. *Raleigh.*

Air is an element superior, and lighter than water,  
 through whose vast, open, subtle, diaphanick, or  
 transparent body, the light, afterwards created, easily  
 transpired. *Id.*

Because the outward coat of the eye ought to be  
 pellucid, to transmit the light, which, if the eyes  
 should always stand open, would be apt to grow dry and  
 shrink, and loose their diaphanicy; therefore are the  
 eyelids so contrived as often to wink, that they so may,  
 as it were, glaze and varnish them over with the  
 moisture they contain. *Ray.*

DIAPHORE'SIS, in medicine, an elimination  
 of the humors in any part of the body through  
 the pores of the skin. See MEDICINE.

DIAPHRAGM, n. s. Gr. *διαφραγμα*. The  
 midriff which divides the upper cavity of the  
 body from the lower. Any division or partition  
 which divides a hollow body.

It consists of a fasciculus of bodies, round, about one  
 sixth of an inch in diameter, hollow, and parted into  
 numerous cells by means of diaphragms, thick set  
 throughout the whole length of the body.

*Woodward on Fossils.*

DIAPHRAGM, or DIAPHRAGMA. See ANA-  
 TOMY. Plato, as Galen informs us, first called  
 this muscle diaphragm, from the verb *διαφρατταν*,  
 to separate or be between two.

DIAPHORE'SIS, *διαφορησις*, in rhetoric, a  
 figure expressing the hesitation or uncertainty of  
 the speaker. It is most naturally placed in the  
 exordium of a discourse. We have an example  
 in Homer, where Ulysses, about to relate his  
 sufferings to Alcinous, begins thus:

Τι πρῶτον, τι δ' εἰπεῖται, τι δ' ὑστατιον καταλεξω;

Quid primum, quid deinde, quid postremo alloquar?

DIAPHORETICK, *adj.* Gr. *διαφορητικός*.  
 Sudorific; promoting a diaphoresis or perspira-  
 tion; causing sweat.

A diaphoretick medicine, or a sudorific, is something  
 that will promote sweating. *Watts.*

Diaphoreticks, or promoters of perspiration, help  
 the organs of digestion, because the attenuation of the  
 aliment makes it perspirable. *Arbuthnot.*

DIARBECK, DIARBEEKER, or DIARBEEKIR,  
 an extensive province of Asiatic Turkey; com-  
 prehending, in its greatest extent, Diarbekir, pro-  
 perly so called, Yerak or Chaldea, and Kurdistan,  
 which were the ancient countries of Mesopotamia,  
 Chaldea, and Assyria, with Babylon. See KUR-  
 DISTAN. It is called Diarbeck, and Diarbeker,  
 from the word *dhyar*, a duke or ruler, and *beker*,  
 country. It extends along the banks of the Ti-  
 gris and Euphrates from N. N. W. to south-east,  
 that is, from Mount Taurus, which divides it  
 from Turcomania on the north, to the inmost re-  
 cess of the Persian gulf on the south, about 600  
 miles; and from east to west, that is, from Persia  
 on the east, to Syria and Arabia Deserta on the  
 west, in some places 200, and in others about  
 300, miles; but in the southern or lower parts not  
 above 150. It extends also from the thirtieth to the  
 thirty-eighth degree of latitude, and lies under part  
 of the fifth and sixth climates, whose longest day  
 is about fourteen hours and a half, and enjoys a  
 good temperature of air, as well as in the greater  
 part of it a rich and fertile soil; although there  
 are some large desert tracts in it. Having a con-



siderable frontier towards Persia, it is well guarded and fortified; but its many ancient cities are at present dwindled into heaps of ruins. Diarbekir, Bagdad, and Mosul, are however considerable places. The rivers Euphrates and Tigris have almost their whole course through this country.

DIARBEKIR, or DIARBECK PROPER, is bounded on the north by Turcomania, on the west by Syria, on the south by part of Arabia Deserta and Yrack Proper, and on the east by Kurdistan. It is the same country that is called Padanaram by Moses, signifying fruitful, which it still is in a very high degree, especially on the north side; where it yields corn, wine, oil, and fruits, in great abundance. Christianity flourished here in an eminent manner, till its purity was sullied about the beginning of the sixth century by the heresy of the Jacobites, whose patriarch resided here at a very recent period. It is now a pachalic or government of Turkey, subdivided into twelve districts. The principal towns are Diarbekir, Mosul, Orsa or Edessa, Nisibis, Gezir, Merdin, Zibin, Amadia, and Carasara; all of little note except Diarbekir and Mosul.

DIARBEKIR, DIARBECK, or CARAHMED, the capital of the above district, is situated in a delightful plain, on the banks and near the head of the Tigris, about 155 miles or fifteen caravan days' journey, north-east of Aleppo. A bridge of ten arches over the river is said to have been built by order of Alexander the Great. It is one of the richest and most mercantile cities in all Asiatic Turkey; and was once well fortified, being encompassed with a double wall, the outermost of which was flanked with seventy-two towers; but the whole is now in a very dilapidated state. The streets are narrow, but the houses, being of stone and lofty, look respectable; and it has several stately piazzas or bazaars, well stored with all kinds of merchandise, and twelve magnificent mosques, said to have been formerly Christian churches. The Armenian cathedral is a handsome structure, the roof of which is supported by two rows of pillars; and the whole floor covered by carpets. A very handsome fountain in the court in front throws the water to a considerable height. Extensive manufactures are carried on here in iron, copper, silk, wool, and cotton; but its chief article of trade and manufacture is Turkey leather, of which the sale is immense. It has also a manufacture of fine dyed linen and cotton cloths, which are nearly in the same request. There are many large and convenient inns on both sides of the river, for the caravans that go to and from Persia; and the place is much frequented by pilgrims of all nations and religions. The Turkish ladies are said here to enjoy an extraordinary degree of liberty, and are commonly seen on the walks of the city in company with the Christian women, with whom they live in great friendship. The citizens generally are said to be polite, affable, and courteous. A basha resides here, who has very extensive jurisdiction. He has commonly a body of 20,000 horse under him. The adjacent territory is very rich and picturesque; the bread, wine, flesh, and fruits, excellent. The inhabitants, who consist of Turks, Armenians, Kurds,

Catholics, and Jacobites, are computed at 80,000 by Gardanne, at 38,000 by Mr. M'Donald Kinneir; the real number may probably be a medium between the two. Diarbekir is sixty miles from Merdin, 172 from Malatia, and 340 E.S.E. of Constantinople.

DIARRHŒA, *n. s.* } *Gr.* διαρροή. *Aflux.*  
DIARRHŒICK, *adj.* } productive of frequent stools. The adjective signifies purgative.

In the midst of that service was I surprised with a miserable distemper of body; which ended in a diarrhœa biliosa, not without some beginning and farther threats of a dysentery; wherewith I was brought so low, that there seemed small hope of my recovery.

*Bp. Hall's Account of Himself.*

Millet is diarrhœick, cleansing, and useful in diseases of the kidneys.

*Arbuthnot.*

During his diarrhœa I healed up the fontanel.

*Wierow.*

It is certain, that much swimming is the means of stopping a diarrhœa, and even of producing a constipation.

*Franklin.*

DIARRHŒA, in medicine, an excessive purging, distinguished by frequent stools with the natural excrement, not contagious, and seldom attended with pyrexia. It is a genus of disease in the class neuroses, and order spasms of Cullen, containing the following species:—

1. Diarrhœa crapulosa. The feculent diarrhœa, from *crapulus*, one who overloads his stomach.
2. Diarrhœa biliosa. The bilious, from an increased secretion of bile.
3. Diarrhœa mucosa. The mucous, from a quantity of slime being voided.
4. Diarrhœa hepatirrhœa. The hepatic, in which there is a quantity of serous matter, somewhat resembling the washings of fish, voided; the liver being primarily affected.
5. Diarrhœa hienterica. The hientery; when the food passes unchanged.
6. Diarrhœa colliaca. The coliac passion: the food passes off in this affection in a white liquid state like chyle.
7. Diarrhœa verminosa. Arising from worms.

DIARY, *n. s.* *Lat.* diarium. An account of the transactions, accidents, &c. of every day; a journal.

In sea voyages, where there is nothing to be seen but sky and sea, men make diaries; but, in land-travel, wherein so much is to be observed, they omit it.

*Bacon.*

I go on in my intended diary.

*Tales.*

DIASTOLE, *n. s.* διαστολή. A figure in rhetoric, by which a short syllable is made long; also, the dilation of the heart.

The systole seems to resemble the forcible beat of a spring, and the diastole its flying out again to its natural state.

*Hay on the Creation.*

If systole or diastole move

Quickest when he's in wrath or love. *Hudibras.*

DIASTYLE. Δια and πύλος, a pillar. A sort of edifice, where the pillars stand at such a distance from one another, that three diameters of their thickness are allowed for intercolumniation.

*Horris.*

DIATESSERON, *n. s.* Of δια and τεσσαρά, four. An interval in music, composed of one greater tone, one lesser, and one greater semitone; its proportion being as four to three. It is called, in musical composition, a perfect fourth. *Horris.*



**DIATHESIS, ASTHENIC**, is described to be that state of the body, wherein there is 'too little excitement of the whole living system, arising from the debilitating noxious powers, impairing all the functions, disturbing some, giving a false appearance of increasing others, but always debilitating.'

**DIATHESIS, STHENIC**, is that state of the body, wherein 'all the functions are first increased; a disturbance or irregularity then takes place in some; others are impaired; but not, as long as this diathesis lasts, by a debilitating operation.'

**DIATONIC**. Of *διὰ τὸν*. The ordinary sort of music which proceeds by different tones,

either in ascending or descending. It contains only the two greater and lesser tones, and the greater semi-tone. *Harris*.

**DIATONIC**, in music, is compounded of two Greek words, viz. the preposition *δια*, signifying a transition from one thing to another, and the substantive *τονος*, importing a given degree of tension and musical note. It is indifferently applied to a scale or gamut, to intervals of a certain kind, or to a species of music, whether in melody or harmony, composed of these intervals. We copy the following scale of the Greek diatonics from Dannely's Musical Dictionary:—

28	Nete hyperbolaeon (second space treble clef)	a
27	Paranete hyperbolaeon diatonos	g
26	Paranete hyperbolaeon chromatice	g-flat) or f-sharp
25	Paranete hyperbolaeon enarmonios	f
24	Trite hyperbolaeon	e x) enhar. f-flat
23	Nete diezeugmenon	e
22	Paranete diezeugmenon diatonos	d
21	Paranete diezeugmenon chromatice	d-flat) c-sharp
20	Paranete diezeugmenon enarmonios	c
19	Trite diezeugmenon	b x) enhar. c-flat
18	Paramese (space above bass staff)	b-natural
17	Nete synemmenon (the space below the treble staff)	d
16	Paranete synemmenon diatonos	c
15	Paranete synemmenon chromatice	c-flat (b-natural)
14	Paranete synemmenon enarmonios	b-flat
13	Trite synemmenon	a x) enhar. b-flat
12	Mese	a
11	Lichanos meson diatonos	g
10	Lichanos meson chromatice	g-flat) f-sharp
9	Lichanos meson enarmonios	f
8	Parypate meson	e x) enhar. f-flat
7	Hypate meson	e
6	Lichanos hypaton diatonos	d
5	Lichanos hypaton chromatice	d-flat (c-sharp)
4	Lichanos hypaton enarmonios	c
3	Parypate hypaton	b x) enhar. c-flat
2	Hypate hypaton	b-natural
1	Proslambanomenos (first space bass)	a

**DIAUGOPHRAGMIA**, in natural history, a genus of fossils of the order of septaria, whose partitions, or septa, consist of spar with an admixture of crystal. Of this genus there are three species: 1. A red kind, with brownish-yellow partitions; 2. A brownish-yellow kind, with whitish partitions; 3. A bluish-white kind, with straw-colored partitions.

**DIAZ** (John), a martyr to the frantic zeal of his brother against the protestant religion, was born in the beginning of the sixteenth century, at Cuenza in Spain. He studied theology at Paris, and under the celebrated Calvin at Geneva. He was the companion of Bucer at the Ratisbon conference; and, going soon after to Neuburgh, was visited by his brother and murderer Alphonsus Diaz, an advocate of the court of Rome. This zealot, failing in his endeavour to reclaim him to popery, immediately plotted against his life. He pretended to close his visit and take his departure, but secretly returned at break of day to the apartment of Diaz, with a companion, who affected to be the bearer of a letter. Gaining admission on this pretence, while Diaz was reading the paper presented, Alphonsus's comrade

gave him a death-blow on the head with an axe, and fled. This murder took place in March 27th, 1546; and, though the assassins were taken, the emperor Charles V. put a stop to the proceedings against them. The miserable fratricide afterwards hanged himself. An account of his death was composed in Latin, under the title of *Historia vera de Morte J. Diazii*. It produced a great sensation at the time. J. Diaz was the author of *A Summary of the Christian Religion*.

**DIAZEUTIC TONE**. Of *δια* and *ζευγνυμι*. In the ancient Greek music, it disjoined two fourths, one on each side of it; and which, being joined to either, made a fifth. This is, in our musick, from A to B.

They allowed to this *diazευτικ* tone, which is our *La*, *Mi*, the proportion of nine to eight, as being the unalterable difference of the fifth and fourth. *Harris*.

**DIBBLE**, *n. s. & v. a.* } Dut. *dipfel*, a  
DIBBLER. } sharp point, Skin-  
ner; from *dabble*, Junius; or a corruption of  
dog-bill, according to Mr. Thomson. A small  
spade; a pointed instrument with which are made  
holes for planting or sowing. The verb is of  
recent introduction.



Through cunning, with *dibble*, rake, mattock, and spade,  
By line and by level trim garden is made.

*Tusser's Husbandry.*

Wheat is generally *dibbled* in October, on land newly broken up from clover-ley a man with an iron *dibble*, about three feet long, in each hand, walking backward and making two rows of holes in each furrow, slice, or flag; they are made about four inches distant from each other and from one to two inches deep. The *dibbler* is followed by two or three women, boys, or girls, who drop two or three grains into each hole.

*Dixon's Agriculture.*

**DIBDIN** (Charles), a celebrated writer of songs and musical composer, was the son of a silversmith of Southampton, where he was born about the year 1745. He was intended for the church, and received his early education at Winchester school. At the age of fourteen, however, he became a candidate for the situation of organist in a Hampshire village, and, relinquishing all views of entering the church, came at the invitation of an elder brother, a captain in the West India trade, to London. Here he was first engaged in composing ballads, and tuning pianofortes. He made his first appearance as a performer in 1762, at the Richmond theatre, and two years afterwards appeared on the London stage, as Ralph in *The Maid of the Mill*. The chief part of the music to *Lionel and Clarissa*, and the whole of that to the musical entertainment of *The Padlock*, now established his fame as a composer for the drama, which he rapidly increased. The most celebrated of his pieces, perhaps, are *The Deserter*, *The Waterman* (the dialogue of which is also his production), and the *Quaker*, which appeared between 1772 and 1775. Mr. Dibdin never shone as an actor; and, having quarrelled with Garrick and some other proprietors of the London theatres, he quitted the stage altogether, and made a successful attempt to entertain the public by accompanying himself, in his own songs, on the piano-forte. His saloon was near Leicester square, and known by the title of *Sans Souci*. His songs and entertainments produced at this time are said to have exceeded 1200. His sea songs are considered very superior: witness the immense popularity of his *Tom Bowling*, *Poor Jack*, &c. The former is said to have been a tribute of affection to the memory of his brother. Imprudence, however, always kept Dibdin poor; and, though assisted by government and many opulent individuals, he died in indigent circumstances in 1814. An edition of his best songs has been published by Dr. Kitchiner.

**DIBRA**, a town of European Turkey, in Macedonia, near Albania. It was besieged by the Turks in 1442, who conveyed a dead dog into the only spring that supplied the town with water, which compelled the inhabitants to surrender. It is thirty miles north of Akrida.

**DIBSTONE**, *n. s.* A little stone which children throw at another stone.

I have seen little girls exercise whole hours together, and take abundance of pains, to be expert at *dibstones*.

*Locke.*

**DICACITY**, *n. s.* Lat. *dicacitas*. Pertness; sauciness.

**DICEARCHUS**, a scholar of Aristotle, who composed a great number of books which were valued highly by Cicero and Atticus. He wrote a work to prove that men suffer more mischief from one another than from all evils beside. Another work he composed, concerning the republic of Lacedæmon, was read every year before the youth in the assembly of the ephori. Geography was one of his principal studies, on which science there is a fragment of a treatise of his still extant, and preserved among the *Vetere Geographice Scriptores Minores*.

**DICE**, *n. s. & v. n.* } The plural of die.  
**DI'CEER**, *n. s.* } See **DIE**. To dice is to  
**DICE'BOX**. } play with dice, or gamble.  
A dicer; a gamester.

In prison! certes nay, but in paradise;

Wel hath Fortune turned thee the dice

That h'ath the sight of her, and I the absence.

*Chaucer's Canterbury Tale.*

They make marriage vows

As false as dicers' oaths. *Shakespeare. Hamlet.*

I was virtuously given as a gentleman need to be; virtuous enough; swore little; dived not above seven times a week. *Shakespeare Henry IV.*

It is above a hundred to one against any particular throw, that you do not cast any given set of faces with four cubical dice, because there are so many several combinations of the six faces of four dice. *Bosley.*

I look upon every man as a suicide from the moment he takes the dicebox desperately in his hand; and all that follows in his career from that fatal time is only sharpening the dagger before he strikes it to his heart.

*Cumberland.*

**DICE**, among gamesters, cubical pieces of bone or ivory, marked with dots on each side of their faces, from one to six. Sharpers have several ways of falsifying dice: by drilling and loading them with quicksilver; by filing and rounding them, &c.

The dice box is a narrow deep cornet, channelled within. It answers to what the Romans called *fritillus*; whence, *crepitantes fritilli*: and, in Seneca, *resonante fritillo*. Besides the *fritillus*, the Romans, for greater security, had another kind of dice-box called *pyrgus*, *πύργος*, and sometimes *turricula*. It was placed immovable in the middle of the table, being open at both ends, and likewise channelled within; over the top was placed a kind of funnel, into which the dice were cast out upon the *fritillus*; whence descending, they fell through the bottom on the table; by which all practising on them with the fingers was effectually prevented. For want of some contrivance of this kind, our sharpers have opportunities of playing a variety of tricks with the box.

**DICH**. This word seems corrupted, says Dr Johnson from *dit* for *do* it.

Rich men sin, and I eat root:

Much ood dich thy good heart, *Apemantus.*

*Shakespeare. Timon.*

**DICHOTOMY**, *n. s.* *Διχοτομία*. Distribution of ideas by pairs.

Some persons have disturbed the order of nature, and abused their readers by an affectation of *dichotomies*, trichotomies, sevens, twelves, &c. *Watts.*

**DICHOTOMY**, a term used by astronomers for that appearance on the moon, wherein she is



or shows just half her disk. In this the moon is said to be in a quadrate or to be in her quadrature.

**DICKENS.** A kind of adverbial exclamation, as it seems, much the same with the Belg. *dicker*.

Had you this pretty weathercock!

Not tell what the *dictens* his name is my husband him of. *Shaks. Merry Wives of Windsor.*

A *dictens* does he mean by a trivial sum?

Did you find it, Sir?

*Congreve. Old Bachelor.*

**DICKINSON (Edmund)**, a celebrated Ensign and chemist, born in 1624. He and took his degrees at Merton College, and, in 1655, published there his *Delicizantes*, &c., a learned piece, in which he attempted to prove, that the Greeks borrowed of the Pythian Apollo, and all that of the oracle at Delphi famous, from the raptures, and from the book of Joshua in war. He practised physic first at Oxford; moving to London in 1684, and restoring of Arlington from a dangerous illness, promoted to be physician in ordinary to II.; and continued in his appointments successor. After the Revolution, being with the stone, he retired from practice, in 1707. He published *Physica Vetus*, &c., containing a system of philosophy framed on principles collected from the history.

**DICTAMNUS**, white dittany, or fraxinella, a of the monogynia order and decandria plants; natural order twenty-sixth, mulberry: CAL. pentaphyllous; the petals are spatulose; the filaments sprinkled with white points, the capsules five, coalited. Only one species. It has thick, penetrant roots, collected into a head at top, up erect stalks annually two or three high, garnished with pinnated alternate of three or four pair of oblong stiff lobes, edged by an odd one; and the stalks crowned with pyramidal loose spikes of flowers, of red, and purple colors. They are very useful plants, and succeed in any of the borders. The dittany which grows in Dalmatia, and the Morea, formerly contained an article in the materia medica. The smell and taste somewhat resemble lemon, but have more of an aromatic flavor, and a greater degree of pungency; when they yield a considerable quantity of essential oil.

**DICTATE**, *v. a. & n. s.* Fr. *dicter*; Ital. *dictare*; Lat. *dicere*; Lat. *dicere*.

**DICTATOR**, *n. s.* Lat. *dictator*; from *dico*, to show; Gr. *deikno*, to show; Chald. *ḏḗr*, to see;

**DICTATORSHIP**, *n. s.* Chald. *ḏḗr*, to see; To declare or prescribe with authority. A dictatorial act is the rule or maxim laid down by the act of dictating; dictator, one who delivers rules or orders; and particularly a Roman magistrate invested with absolute power in certain exigencies. The other derivatives follow these meanings.

This is the solemnest title they can confer under the principedom, being indeed a kind of dictatorship.

*Wotton.*

Unanimous they all commit the care

And management of this main enterprise

To him their great dictator. *Milton.*

He that was fetched from the plough to be made dictator, had not half his (a clown's) pride and insolence.

*Butler.*

Kind dictators made, when they came home, Their vanquished foes free citizens of Rome.

*Waller.*

This is that perpetual dictatorship which is exercised by Lucretius, though often in the wrong. *Dryden.*

Those right helps of art, which will scarce be found by those who servilely confine themselves to the dictates of others. *Locke.*

Then let this dictate of my love prevail.

*Pope's Od.*

That riches, honours, and outward splendour, should set up persons for dictators to all the rest of mankind, is a most shameful invasion of the right of our understanding. *Watts.*

Judgment, like other faculties, is improved by practice, and its advancement is hindered by submission to dictatorial decisions, as the memory grows torpid by the use of a table-book. *Johnson.*

Thou, who with thy frown

Annihilated senates—Roman, too

With all thy vices, for thou didst lay down

With an atoning smile a more than earthly crown—

The dictatorial wreath,—couldst thou divine

To what would one day dwindle that which made

Thee more than mortal?

*Byron.*

A DICTATOR was first chosen during the Roman wars against the Latins. The consuls being unable to raise forces for the defence of the state, because the plebeians refused to enlist if they were not discharged from all the debts they had contracted with the patricians, the senate found it necessary to elect a new magistrate with absolute and uncontrollable power to take care of the state. The dictator remained in office for six months, after which he was again elected, if the affairs of the state seemed to be desperate; but if tranquillity was re-established, he generally laid down his power before the time was expired. He knew no superior in the republic, and even the laws were subjected to him. He was called dictator, quoniam dictis ejus parebat populus, because the people implicitly obeyed his command. He was named by the consul in the night *viva voce*, and his election was confirmed by the auguries. As his power was absolute, he could proclaim war, levy forces, conduct them against an enemy, and disband them at pleasure. He punished as he pleased, and from his decision there lay no appeal, at least till later times. He was preceded by twenty-four lictors with the fasces; during his administration, all other officers, except the tribunes of the people, were suspended, and he was the master of the republic. But amidst all this independence, he was not permitted to go beyond the borders of Italy; he was always obliged to march on foot in his expeditions, and he never could ride in difficult and laborious marches, without previously obtaining a formal leave from the people. He was chosen only when the state was in imminent danger from foreign enemies, or



intestine seditions. In the time of a pestilence, a dictator was sometimes elected; as also to hold the comitia, or to celebrate the public festivals, or drive a nail in the capitol; by which superstitious ceremony the Romans believed that a plague could be averted, or the progress of an enemy stopped. This office, so respectable and illustrious in the first ages of the republic, became odious by the perpetual usurpations of Sylla and Cæsar; and after the death of the latter, the Roman senate passed a decree which for ever forbade a dictator to exist in Rome. The dictator, as soon as elected, chose a subordinate officer, called his *magister equitum*, master of horse. This officer could do nothing without his express order. This subordination, however, was some time after removed; and during the second Punic war, the master of the horse was invested with a power equal to that of the dictator. A second dictator was also chosen for the election of magistrates at Rome after the battle of Cannæ. The dictatorship was originally confined to the patricians; but the plebeians were afterwards admitted to share it. Titus Lartius Flavius was the first dictator, A.U.C. 253. The institution has been revived in South America, in modern times, in the person of the illustrious Bolivar.

**DICTION**, *n. s.* Fr. *diction*; Lat. *dictio*. Style; language; expression.

There appears in every part of his *diction*, or expression, a kind of noble and bold purity. *Dryden*.

We are refined! and plain manners, plain dress, and plain *diction*, would as little do in life, as acorns, herbage, and the water of the neighbouring spring, would do at table. *Chesterfield*.

**DICTIONARY**, *n. s.* Fr. *dictionnaire*; Span. *diccionario*; Ital. *dittonario*; Lat. *dictionary*, from *dictio*, *dico*, to speak. See **DICTION**. A book containing the words of a language, with their explanations; a lexicon; a nomenclature of words or things.

Some have delivered the polity of spirits, and left an account that they stand in awe of charms, spells, and conjurations; that they are afraid of letters and characters, notes and dashes, which, set together, do signify nothing; and not only in the *dictionary* of man, but in the subtler vocabulary of Satan.

*Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

Is it such a fault to translate simulacra images? I see what a good thing it is to have a good catholic *dictionary*. *Stillingfleet*.

An army, or a parliament, is a collection of men; a *dictionary*, or nomenclature, is a collection of words. *Watts*.

It is not enough that a *dictionary* delights the critic, unless, at the same time, it instructs the learner. *Johnson. Plan of Dictionary.*

**DICTYNNA**, in antiquity, feasts celebrated at Lacedæmon and in Crete, in honor of Diana, or of a nymph taken for her, who, having plunged herself into the sea, to escape the passion of Minos, was caught in fishermen's nets, *dictynna*, whence the name.

**DICTYS**, a very ancient Cretan historian, who, serving under Idomeneus in the Trojan war, wrote the history of that expedition. Tzetzes tells us that Homer formed his *Iliad* upon the plan of that history. The Latin history of Dictys, which has come down to us, is spurious.

**DIDACTICAL**, *adj.* Gr. *didaskalikos*. Preceptive; giving precepts: thus a didactic poem is a poem that gives rules for some art; as the Georgics.

The means used to this purpose are partly *didactical*, and partly *protreptical*; demonstrating the truth of the gospel, and then urging the professors of that truth to be steadfast in the faith, and to beware of infidelity. *Ward on Imphibol.*

But what shall I say to Junius, the grave, the solemn, the *didactic*! *Horne Tenth.*

**DID'APPER**, *n. s.* From *dip*. A bird that dives into the water.

**DIDASCAL'ICK**, *adj.* Greek, *didaskalikos*. Preceptive; didactic; giving precepts in some art.

I found it necessary to form some story, and give a kind of body to the poem: under what species it may be comprehended, whether *didascalick* or *humick*, I leave to the judgment of the critics. *Prior*.

**DID'DER**, *v. a.* Teut. *diddern*; Ger. *zittern*. To quake with cold; to shiver. 'A provincial word,' says Skinner.

**DIDELPHIS**, in zoology, the opossum; a genus of quadrupeds belonging to the order of fera, the characters of which are these:—They have ten fore-teeth in the upper jaw, and eight in the under one. The dog-teeth are long, the tongue is somewhat ciliated; and they have a pocket formed by a duplicature of the skin of the belly, in which the dugs are included. *Mer* enumerates nineteen species; the chief are:—1. *D. brachyura*, the short-tailed opossum of Pennant, of a red color, has naked ears, and a short hairy tail, thick at the base, and gradually lessening to the extremity. The body is from three to five inches and a half long. The fur is very soft and glossy, and there is a beautiful red streak along the sides of the head and body. This species inhabits the woods of South America. The female has from nine to twelve young at a birth, which adhere to her teats as soon as born, and she has no pouch. This species agrees with the *Marina*, in the general form of the body. 2. *D. cancrivora*, the crab-eater of Buffon, or the Cayenne opossum, has a long slender face; ears erect, pointed, and short; the coat woolly, mixed with very coarse hairs, three inches long, of a dirty white from the roots to the middle; from thence to the ends, of a deep brown; sides and belly of a pale yellow; legs of a dusky brown; thumb on each foot distinct on the toes of the fore-feet, and thumb of the hind, are nails, very long, taper, naked, and scaly. Length seventeen French inches; of the tail fifteen and a half. The subject measured was young. It inhabits Cayenne; is very active in climbing trees, on which it lives the whole day. In marshy places it feeds on crabs, which, when it cannot draw out of their holes with its feet, hooks them by means of its long tail. If the crab pinches its tail, the animal sets up a loud cry, resembling the human voice, which may be heard afar; but its common voice is a grunt like a young pig. It is well furnished with teeth, and will defend itself stoutly against dogs; brings forth four or five young, which it secures in some hollow tree. The natives eat



these animals, and say their flesh resembles a hare. They are easily tamed, and will then receive no kind of food. 3. *D. cayopolin*, the Mexican opossum of Buffon and Pennant, is of ash color on the head and upper parts of the body; the belly and legs are whitish; the tail long and pretty thick, varied with brown and yellow; it is hairy near an inch from its origin, the rest naked; the length of the animal from nose to tail, about seven inches and a half; of the tail, more than eleven. It inhabits the mountains of Mexico, and lives in trees, where it brings forth its young: when in any fright, they embrace the parent closely. Her belly has no pouch. The tail is prehensile, and serves instead of a hand. 4. *D. gigantea*, the kangaroo. This animal has a small head, neck, and shoulders; the body increasing in thickness to the rump. The head is oblong, formed like that of a man, and tapering from the eyes to the nose; the face and the nose naked black; the upper lip divided. The nostrils are wide and open; the lower jaw is shorter than the upper; and the aperture of the mouth small: there are whiskers on both jaws, those on the upper longest; and long hairs above and below the eyes. The ears are not large; the irides are dusky; the pupil is of a bluish black. The ears are erect, broadly ovated, rounded at the ends, and thin, covered with short hairs, four inches long. There are no canine teeth, but six broad cutting teeth in the upper jaw; two long lanceolated teeth in the lower, pointing forward; and four grinding teeth in each jaw, remote from the others. The belly is convex and great. The fore legs are very short, scarcely reaching to the nose, and useless for walking. The hind legs are almost as long as the body, and the thighs are very thick: on the fore feet are five toes, with long tonic and strong claws; on the hind feet only three; the middle toe is very long and thick, like that of an ostrich; the two others are placed very distinct from it, and are small; the claws are short, thick, and blunt; the bottom of the feet, and hind part, black, naked, and tuberculated, as the animal rests often on them. The tail is very long, extending as far as the ears; thick at the base, tapering to a point. The scrotum is large and pendulous. The hair on the whole animal is soft, and of an ash color. Lightest on the lower parts. It inhabits the western side of New Holland, and has as yet been discovered in no other part of the world. It lurks among the grass, and feeds on vegetables; it goes entirely on its hind legs, making use of the fore feet only for digging, or bringing its food to its mouth. The dung is like that of a deer. It is very timid; at the sight of men it flies from them by amazing leaps, springing over bushes seven or eight feet high, and going progressively from rock to rock. It carries its tail quite at right angles with its body when it is in motion; and when it alights, often looks back. 5. *D. murina*, the murine opossum, has the face and upper parts of the body of a tawny color; the belly of a yellowish white: the tail slender, and covered with minute scales to a very rump: the length of the animal from nose to tail, about six inches and a half; the tail

of the same length; the female wants the false belly of the last; but on the lower part the skin forms on each side a fold, between which the teats are lodged. It inhabits the hot parts of South America; agrees with the others in its food, manners, and the prehensile power of its tail. Count de Buffon, from inspection, says the female has fourteen teats, and brings from ten to fourteen young ones at a time; they affix themselves to the teats as soon as they are born, and remain attached like inanimate things, till they attain growth and vigor to shift a little for themselves. 6. *D. opossum*, the sarigue of Buffon, or Molucca opossum of Pennant, has long, oval, and naked ears; the mouth is very wide; the lower side of the upper jaw, throat, and belly, is of a whitish ash color; the rest of the hair a cinereous brown, tipped with tawny, darkest on the back: the tail is as long as the body; near the base covered with hair; the rest naked; the claws are hooked. On the belly of the female is a pouch, in which the young shelter. Marcgrave found six young within the pouch. It has ten cutting teeth above, and eight below. Over each eye is an oblong white spot. The length of the animal from nose to tail is ten inches; and the tail exceeds the length of the head and body. Its whole figure is of a slender and elegant make. This species is found in great numbers in Aroe and Solor. It is called in the Indies pelandor Aroe, or the Aroe rabbit. They are reckoned very delicate eating, and are very common at the tables of the great, who rear the young in the same places in which they keep their rabbits. It inhabits also Surinam, and the hot parts of America. 7. *D. tridactyla*, Philip's opossum, or the kangaroo rat, is described as similar, both in the general shape of the body and the conformation of the legs, to the kangaroo; but the visage having a strong resemblance to that of the rat, and the color of the whole not ill resembling that animal, it has obtained the name of the kangaroo rat. It is an inhabitant of New Holland; and two of the species were seen alive at the exhibition of animals over Exeter Change in 1790, where one of them brought forth young. This species has two cutting teeth in front of the upper jaw, with three others on each side of them; and at a distance one false grinder, sharp at the edge, and channelled or fluted on the sides; and close to these, two true grinders: in the lower jaw there are two long cutting teeth, formed like those of the squirrel, with three grinders corresponding with those in the upper jaw. 8. *D. volans*, the flying opossum, a beautiful species, and clothed with fur of the most exquisite texture, is an inhabitant of New South Wales. In length, from the tip of the nose to the root of the tail, it is twenty inches; the tail itself is twenty-two inches; at the base, quite light, increasing gradually to black at the end: the ears are large and erect: the coat or fur is of a rich and most delicate texture, appearing on the upper parts of the body at first sight, of a glossy black; but on a nicer inspection, is found to be mixed with gray; the under parts are white, and on each hip is a tan-colored spot, nearly as big as a shilling; at this part the fur is thinnest, but at the



root of the tail it is so rich and close that the hide cannot be felt through it. The fur is also continued to the claws. On each side of the body is a broad flap or membrane (as in the flying squirrels), which is united to both the fore and hind legs. The jaws are furnished with teeth, placed as in some others of this genus: in the upper jaw forwards are four small cutting teeth, then two canine ones, and backwards five grinders: the under jaw has two long large cutting teeth and five grinders, with no intermediate canine ones, the space being quite vacant. The fore legs have five toes on each foot, with a claw on each; the hinder ones four toes, with claws (the three outside ones without any separation), and a thumb without a claw, enabling the animal to use the foot as a hand, as many of the opossum tribe are observed to do.

**DIDEROT** (Denys), a celebrated French writer, born at Langres in 1713. He was educated among the Jesuits, with a view to the church, and received the tonsure; but, disliking the profession, he was placed with a lawyer. This pursuit, however, he also abandoned, and thereby incurred his father's displeasure. He did not devote himself particularly to any one object of study; but his attention was at different times engrossed by geometry, metaphysics, and the belles lettres. In 1745 he published *Principles of Moral Philosophy*, 12mo. which first brought him into public notice as an author. Next year he published a piece, entitled *Pensées Philosophiques*, a work which gained him considerable fame, and was highly applauded by the partisans of the new philosophy, among whom he had now enrolled himself, and to the propagation of which he applied in the most zealous manner. He afterwards gave a second edition of this work, under the title of *Etrennes aux Esprits Forts*, which was eagerly read. About this period, having been concerned in a Medical Dictionary, it gave rise to the idea of the *Dictionnaire Encyclopédique*; and, in conjunction with his friend d'Alembert, the plan of this vast undertaking was formed. Diderot's share in this work was large, for, besides many articles in various departments of science, the whole of the arts and trades were furnished by him. Between the years 1751 and 1767, the first edition of the dictionary was completed; and although Diderot had labored almost twenty years upon it, he received but a small consideration. During this period, however, he composed various other works, particularly *A Letter on the Blind*, for the use of those who see; a work for which the author was confined six months at Vincennes, on account of the free sentiments it contained. About two years after, he published *A Letter on the Deaf and Dumb*, for the use of those who hear and see, 2 vols. 12mo. His next productions were two comedies, in prose, *Le Fils Naturel*, 1757; and *Le Pere de Famille*, 1758, which latter has been thought one of the best sentimental comedies that ever appeared on the French stage. Besides the above-mentioned works, Diderot wrote *A Panegyric on Richardson*; and *An Essay on the Life and Writings of Seneca*, which was published in 1779, and was the last work of his pen. At the conclusion of

the *Encyclopedie*, he was obliged to dispose of his library. The empress of Russia became a purchaser; the price which the philosopher received was 50,000 livres; while he was to be allowed the use of it during his life. Diderot was a member of the Academy of Sciences at Berlin. He died suddenly as he rose from table, July 31st, 1784. His works have been collected and published in two large octavo volumes.

**DIDO**, or **ELISSA**, a daughter of Belus, king of Tyre, who married Sichæus or Sichæus her uncle, priest of Hercules. Her brother, Pygmalion, who succeeded Belus, murdered Sichæus, to get possession of his immense riches; and Dido, disconsolate for the loss of her husband, whom she tenderly loved, and by whom she was equally esteemed, set sail in quest of a settlement, with a number of Tyrians, to whom the cruelty of the tyrant had become odious. According to some writers, she threw into the sea the riches of her husband, which Pygmalion so greedily desired; and by that artifice compelled those ships to fly with her that had come by order of the tyrant to obtain the riches of Sichæus. But it is more probable that she carried the riches along with her, and by their influence prevailed on the Tyrian seamen to follow her. During her voyage, Dido visited the coast of Cyprus, where she obtained fifty wives for her Tyrian followers. A storm drove her fleet to the African coast, where she bought of the inhabitants as much land as could be surrounded by a bull's hide cut into thongs. Upon this land she built a citadel, called Byrsa; and the increase of population, and the rising commotion among her subjects, soon obliged her to enlarge her city, and the boundaries of her dominion. Her beauty, as well as the fame of her enterprise, gained her many admirers; and her subjects wished to compel her to marry Iarbus, king of Mauritania, who threatened them with a dreadful war. Dido begged three months to give her decisive answer; and during that time she erected a funeral pile, as if wishing by a solemn sacrifice to appease the manes of Sichæus, to whom she had promised eternal fidelity. When all was prepared, she stabbed herself on the pile in presence of her people; and by this uncommon action, obtained the name of Dido, 'valiant woman,' instead of Elissa. According to Virgil and Ovid, the death of Dido was caused by the sudden departure of Æneas, of whom she was deeply enamoured, and whom she could not obtain as a husband. This poetical fiction represents Æneas as living in the age of Dido, and introduces an anachronism of nearly 300 years. Dido left Phœnicia 247 years after the age of Æneas, and about A.C. 953. This chronological error proceeded not from the ignorance of the poets, but from a voluntary fiction. While Virgil describes, in a beautiful episode, the desperate love of Dido, and the submission of Æneas to the will of the gods, he traces the origin of the hatred between the republics of Rome and Carthage, and pretends that it was kindled by a more remote cause than the jealousy and rivalry of two flourishing empires. Dido, after her death, was honored as a deity by her subjects.

**DIDOT** (Ambrose), a celebrated French typographer, was born at Paris in 1730. His



er was a printer and bookseller, and, having received a classical education, he materially improved various branches of his business, and the less connected with it. The manufacture of paper received his early attention, and he invented many machines and instruments in aid of stereotyping. His edition of the Delphin classics, and various other works, will long distinguish his name. One of his sons became a celebrated type-founder, another shared with his father the reputation of being one of the first printers in Europe. His anxiety for accuracy said to have been so great, that at the age of twenty-three, he read five times over each sheet of his son's edition of Montaigne. He died at Paris in 1804.

**DIDUCTION**, *n. s.* Lat. *diductio*. Separation by withdrawing one part from the other.

He ought to shew what kind of strings they are which, though strongly fastened to the inside of the bladder, must draw as forcibly one as another, in comparison of those that draw the bladder draw so as to hinder the *diduction* of the sides. Boyle.

**DIDUS**, or **DODO**, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of galline. The bill is directed in the middle by two transverse ridges; each mandible is inflected at the point; the face is bare behind the eyes. Only one species, viz. the ineptus, is mentioned by Linnaeus: three are described by Buffon, viz. —

**D. ineptus**, the dronte of Buffon, or hooded dodo, is somewhat bigger than a swan, and nearly six feet in length. The bill is strong, large, hooked at the end; the gape stretches behind the eyes: the color is a very pale blue, except the end of the upper mandible, which is brownish, and a red spot on the bend of it; the bill of the lower is blackish; the irides are black. The general color of the plumage is ashy, and soft to the touch; the belly and the legs are whitish. The head is large, and seems to be covered with a black hood or cowl. The wings are very short, and of a yellowish ashy color: the tail feathers are curled, stand up on the rump, and incline to yellow. The legs have three toes, three before and one behind; are stout, short, and yellowish; the claws are black. It inhabits the islands of Mauritius and Bourbon in the Indian Ocean.

**D. Nazarenus**, the Nazarene dodo is bigger than a swan. The bill is a little bent downwards: large: instead of feathers, the whole is covered with a black down; but the wings are feathered, and it has some frizzled ones upon the rump, which serve instead of a tail: the legs are long and scaly, and there are three toes on each foot. It was met with in the Isle of France, and described as above by Fr. Cauche; who adds, the female lays only one egg, which is as big as a penny loaf, and that there were ways found with it a white stone of the size of a hen's egg; that it makes its nest of leaves and dry herbs, in the forests, on the ground; that there is likewise found a gray stone in the pizzard of the young bird.

**D. solitarius**, the solitaire of Buffon, or solitary dodo, is a large bird, and the male is said to weigh sometimes forty-five pounds. The neck

is of a proportionable length, and the eye black and lively: the head is not crested, and the general color of the plumage is gray and brown mixed: it has scarce any tail, and the bastard wing swells out into a round knob: the wings are too short for flight; and the hind parts are rounded like a horse's rump, being clothed with feathers, which may be termed coverts. The females are covered with sometimes brown, and sometimes light yellow feathers, and appear very beautiful. The feathers on each side of the breast enlarge into two white tufts, somewhat resembling the bosom of a woman. Those of the thighs are rounded at the end like shells; and, according to Leguat, the bird has altogether a noble and elegant gait. It is an inhabitant of the Isle of Rodriguez, where it is not uncommon; but not met with in flocks, scarcely more than two being found together. It makes its nest in by-places, of the leaves of the palm, a foot and a half in thickness; and lays one egg, bigger than that of a goose. The male sits in his turn; and does not suffer any bird to approach within 200 yards of the spot while the hen is sitting, which is seven weeks. They are chased in the winter season, viz. from March to September, being then fat; and the young birds are much esteemed for the table.

**DIDYMUS**, of Alexandria, an ecclesiastical writer of the fourth century; who though he is said to have lost his sight at five years of age, when he had scarcely learned to read, yet applied so earnestly to study, that he was thought worthy to fill the chair in the famous divinity school at Alexandria. He was the author of a great number of works: but all we have now remaining are, a Latin Translation of his book upon the Holy Spirit, in the works of St. Jerome, who was the translator; Short Strictures on the Canonical Epistles; and a book against the Manichees.

**DIDYNA'MIA**; from *dis*, twice, and *δυναμις*, power; the name of the fourteenth class in Linnaeus's sexual method; consisting of plants with hermaphrodite flowers, which have four male organs, two long and two short. See BOTANY.

**DIE**, *v. n.* Goth. *deia*; Sax. *daedian*; Dan. and Swed. *do*; from Gr. *δειδω*, to fear, because death is generally an object of fear, says Minsheu, ingeniously. To lose or depart from life; taking *by* before an instrument of death; *of* before a disease, or a positive cause of death; and *for* before a privative; to sink or faint; grow rapid; to vanish; perish; be doomed to hell.

For wher we lyuen, we lyuen to the Lord, and whether we *dien*, we *dien* to the Lord, therefore wher we lyuen or *dien* we ben of the Lord.

Wiclif. Romoyns. 14.

His heart *died* within him, and he became as a stone. I Samuel.

Except a corn of wheat fall into the ground, and *die*, it abideth alone; but if it *die*, it bringeth forth much fruit. John.

If I *die* for it, as no less is threatened me, the king my old master must be relieved.

Shakspeare. King Lear

How now, my lord, why do you keep alone  
Of sorriest fancies your companion making,  
Using those thoughts which should indeed have *died*  
With them they think on. Id. Macbeth.



This battle fares like to the morning's war,  
When *dying* clouds contend with growing light. *Id.*

O, thou great power, in whom we move,  
By whom we live, to whom we *die*,  
Behold me through thy beams of love,  
Whilst on this couch of tears I lie. *Wotton.*

So long as God shall live, so long shall the damned  
*die*. *Hakewill on Providence.*

At first she startles, then she stands amazed;  
At last with terror she from thence doth fly,  
And loaths the watery glass wherein she gazed,  
And shuns it still, although for thirst she *die*.

*Davies.*

Oh let me live my own, and *die* so too!

To live and *die* is all I have to do. *Denham.*

The dira only served to confirm him in his first  
opinion, that it was his destiny to *die* in the ensuing  
combat. *Dryden.*

If any sovereignty, on account of his property,  
had been vested in Adam, which in truth there was  
not, it would have *died* with him. *Locke.*

The young men acknowledged in love-letters, that  
they *died* for Rebecca. *Tatler.*

He in the loaden vineyard *dies* for thirst.

*Addison.*

Hipparchus being passionately fond of his own  
wife, who was enamoured of Bathyllus, leaped and  
*died* of his fall. *Id.*

The smaller stains and blemishes may *die* away and  
disappear, amidst the brightness that surrounds them;  
but a blot of a deeper nature casts a shade on all  
the other beauties, and darkens the whole character.

*Id. Spectator.*

Trembling, hoping, lingering, flying,  
Oh the pain the bliss of *dying*!

*Pope.*

Talk not of life or ransom, he replies;  
Patroclus dead, whoever meets me, *dies*:  
In vain a single Trojan sues for grace;  
But least the sons of Priam's hateful race;  
*Die* then, my friend! what boots it to deplore?  
The great, the good Patroclus is no more!  
He, far thy better, was foredoomed to *die*;  
And thou, dost thou, bewail mortality?

*Pope's Homer.*

They often come into the world clear, and with the  
appearance of sound bodies; which, notwithstanding,  
have been infected with disease, and have *died*  
of it, or at least have been very infirm. *Wiseman.*

Thy body *dies*; but thou, *thou* must live for ever,  
and thine eternity will take its tincture from the man-  
ner of thy behaviour, and the habits thou contractest,  
during this thy short co-partnership with flesh and  
blood. *Mason.*

If the man who turnips cries,

Cry not when his father *dies*,

'Tis a proof that he had rather

Have a turnip than his father. *Dr. Johnson.*

'Tis solitude should teach us how to *die*;  
It hath no flatterers; vanity can give  
No hollow aid; alone—man with his God must strive.  
*Byron.*

Like the figures on arras, that gloomily glare,  
Stirred by the breath of the wintry air  
So seen by the *dying* lamp's fitful light,  
Lifeless, but life-like, and awful to sight. *Id.*

*Die*, n. s. Fr. *dé*; Ital. Span. and Portug. *dádo*;  
Lat. *texsera* (*dice*), from Gr. *τεσσαρα*, four, because  
four sided. A small cube, marked on its faces  
with numbers from one to six, which gamblers

throw in play. Hence hazard, chance; and  
ally any small cube.

Etsoons his cruel hand Sir Guyon staid,  
Tempering the passion with advisement she  
And mustering might on enemy dismay  
For the' equal *die* of war he well did know.

*Faerie*

I have set my life upon a cast,  
And I will stand the hazard of the *die*.  
*Shakespeare. Rich.*

To put it to the chance and try,  
I' the ballot of a box and *dye*,  
Whether his money be his own,  
And lose it, if he be o'erthrown.

Thine is the adventure, thine the victor  
Well has thy fortune turned the *die* for thee

He knows which way the lot and the *die* s  
as perfectly as if they were already cast.

Young creatures have learned spelling of  
having them pasted upon little flat tablets or

*DIE*, n. s., plural *dies*. The stamp  
coinage.

Such variety of *dies* made use of by Wood  
ing his money, makes the discovery of co  
more difficult.

DIEMEN (Anthony Van), govern  
Dutch East India possessions, was born  
lenberg, of which place his father was  
master. He went out to India in an  
station, but was employed there as agent  
the government; and in 1625 became a  
of the supreme council. In 1631 he ret  
Holland as commander of the India f  
the following year went out again as  
general; and not long after was appointe  
nor general, in which station he greatly e  
the Dutch interest and power in the  
1642 he sent Abel Tasman on a voyag  
south, the consequence of which was th  
very of the island near the south coast  
Holland, which Tasman named Van I  
Land. He died in 1645.

DIEMEN'S (Van) LAND, an island  
tralasia, to the south of New Holland  
which it is separated by Bass's Straits  
its north coast in S. lat. 40° 41', and its  
promontory in 43° 38' S. Its length  
170 miles, and breadth about 154. It  
seen by the Dutch commander, Tasman,  
who, mistaking it for a part of what  
called the Great South Land, or New  
gave it its present name, in honor of t  
governor-general of Batavia, Anthony  
men. But the Dutch did not land he  
time; Tasman's carpenter only swam  
the surf, 'with the prince's flag, and  
set up as a memorial of their visit, to  
rity of the inhabitants of this count  
own enterprising navigators, Furneaux  
Hayes, and above all Mr. Bass, the c  
of captain Flinders, have far better p  
to be called its discoverers. Furn  
Cook anchored in Adventure Bay, and  
had some communication with the  
subsequently, Bligh and captain Cox  
Adventure and Oyster Bay; and, in 1  
tain Hayes, of the Bombay marine,



he named the Derwent River. But none of these navigators, nor yet the French, under d'Entrecasteaux, who discovered Storm Bay, proposed this to be an island; a fact which Mr. Flinders first announced in the close of 1798, after sailing 600 miles of the coasts in this neighbourhood, in a small decked whale-boat. Together with Captain Flinders, he also first visited Port Rymphe.

The general appearance of this island is diversified by ranges of moderate hills and broad bays, having a fine soil. The hills, the ridges of which 'form,' according to Mr. Evans, 'irregular ridges,' are for the greater part wooded; and, at their summits, are to be seen levels of good pasture-land, thinly interspersed with trees, the soil growing most luxuriantly. These beautiful plains are generally of the extent of 8000 to 10,000 acres; and this description is to be considered as common to the whole of the island. The southern extremity terminates in a promontory, whose shape corresponds with, but whose height exceeds, that of the Table Mountain, of the Cape of Good Hope, and to which has been given the same name. The height of Table, behind Hobart Town, is 3964 feet; that of the Cape 3315. The former is covered with snow for seven or eight months in the year. To the eastward of the Tamar is a considerable mountain, named Ben Lomond, whose height has not been ascertained; and another called Man's Peak. There is also a lofty mountain to the north-western part of the island, and a range of hills, called the Asbestos Hills, from the great quantity of that substance found in them. To the south-west part of the island, at the distance of about sixty miles to the north-west of Hobart Town, are the Western Mountains, whose height is computed to exceed 3000 feet. A beautiful lake, in the midst of the last-mentioned range, was visited, for the first time, in 1817, by Mr. Beaumont, the provost-marshal of the island. The principal branch of the Derwent is supposed to flow from it, and he describes it as about fifty miles in circumference, and having its banks moderately clothed with wood. About the middle of the island are salt-water plains, on which are several small lakes, the waters of which are strongly impregnated with salt, and from which many tons of this article are annually extracted. On all the lakes and rivers are water-fowl in abundance.

The climate is described as exceedingly fine and congenial to Englishmen. 'It is in fact,' says the Quarterly Review, 'England with a finer climate, with less of its winter frosts and of its autumnal and spring moisture; all the fruits and vegetables of an English kitchen-garden are raised here.' During summer the ordinary course of the weather is the alternating land and sea breeze, the former commencing early in the morning, and prevailing till noon, when it is succeeded by the latter, which usually continues till after sun-set. Occasionally, however, a wind blows from the north or north-west, which, though resembling that of New South Wales, which there raises the thermometer to 80° in the shade, is greatly mitigated in Van Diemen's Land, by passing across Bass's Straits.

The autumn is generally a serene and delightful season, and the weather continues fine and open to the middle or end of May. In June, rain, sleet, and, in elevated situations, snow, set in, with strong southerly gales; but, even in winter, fine weather intervenes, and neither wind nor rains can be said to be periodical. Slight frosts occur at night, but neither ice nor snow remains throughout the day in the valleys and plains. In September the spring rapidly advances, and in October the weather resembles the 'faithless April of an English May.'

Van Diemen's Land has four principal ports, connected with its rivers: Storm Bay, terminating with the Derwent; Port Dalrymple, or the Tamar; Port Macquarie, and Port Davey. The river Derwent, besides its direct outlet into Storm Bay, has a lateral one into Storm Bay Passage, canal d'Entrecasteaux, a strait about thirty miles long; dividing the large island Bruny from the main land, and continuing from two to five miles wide, till it opens to the Southern Ocean, at Tasman's Head. This large inlet presents every where bold shores and deep water, perfectly sheltered from all winds, and forming a noble port. The Derwent, at its entrance, is two miles broad, and takes a northerly course, which varies in breadth from one to two miles, expanding, occasionally, into large basins equally deep and safe for the distance of twenty-five miles, to which point ships of 500 tons burden can navigate with ease. Here the river begins to freshen, and continues hence for the distance of forty miles, narrowing gradually, but affording a safe passage for vessels of fifty tons as far as New Norfolk, where a ridge of rocks forms a rapid, and abruptly terminates the navigation.

Twelve miles up the Derwent, on the western bank, stands Hobart Town, the capital of the island, picturesquely placed under the Table Mountain already named. Down its side trill several rivulets, one of the most considerable of which passes through the town, and discharges itself into Sullivan's Cove. The town is laid out on an extensive and regular plan, and has many handsome brick houses; but the majority of the buildings are of wood and plaster. There are very few that are not white-washed (for lime abounds in the neighbourhood), and glazed; and each has a paved garden. Several respectable public buildings are either completed or in progress; as a large church of brick and stone, a government-house, a county-jail, store and commissariat offices, a barrack for 100 men, and a small hospital, fenced in together; a battery, guard-house, magazine, &c. The farms of settlers extend principally along the banks of the Derwent, from the entrance of the river from Storm Bay Passage; for the shores of Van Diemen's Land have often a rich black mould close to the edge of the cliff. On the Hobart side, the most considerable group of settlements is New Town, about two miles from Hobart Town, and is watered by a fine stream. A little below Hobart Town, on the opposite bank, is the settlement of Clarence Plains.

To the eastward, upon the north and east sides of an extensive salt-water inlet, communi-



eating with what the settlers call Frederik Hendrik's Bay, is the more considerable settlement of Pittwater, the chief granary of the island. It is watered by two streams, and presents to view a vast extent of naturally clear ground. On the road from Hobart Town to Port Dalrymple, there is a plain extending, in one direction, for twenty miles, and clear land is frequent on that side of the island. To the north-west of Pittwater is the Coal River settlement. About twelve miles higher up are several farms; midway, stands Mount Direction, a remarkably picturesque hill. There are several scattered farms in this quarter, and on the east of the Derwent, as far as New Norfolk. Above the falls at this place the Derwent receives many rivulets; and a most beautiful and fertile country lies on its banks. All these settlements form together a county, under the name of Buckinghamshire, comprising about half the island, the other half being called the county of Cornwall.

The chief settlement near Port Dalrymple is Launceston, situated forty miles up the Tamar, at the confluence of two small streams, called the North and South Esk. This town is about 120 miles across the island from Hobart Town. The Tamar, not admitting large vessels more than seven or eight miles, George Town has been recently laid out near the mouth of the river, and governor Macquarie speaks of it being already in a flourishing state.

Port Macquarie and Port Davey are on the western coast. The channel inwards, of the former, is made between an island and the west head of entrance; it is very deep, but not more than thirty yards wide; the basin is navigable, but shoally for about eight miles, after which there is deep water. In its cliffs are veins of coal, and on its shores abundance of useful and valuable timber, particularly a sort of cedar called the Huon pine, much esteemed in the colony and in India, for its peculiar property of repelling insects. Port Davey is more to the southward, and is a spacious port, with an open entrance; but the country is rocky and barren, and the timber difficult of access. Into these two ports fall Gordon's and several other rivers.

The mineralogical productions of this island are iron, copper, slate, alum, limestone, asbestos, and basalt; together with crystal, cornelian, jasper, marble, and various petrifications. The first is most abundant towards Launceston, where entire mountains of this mineral, yielding twenty per cent. of ore, are said to be found. Its botany, and general natural history, resemble those of New South Wales. All kinds of European grain flourish; the harvests have never failed, it is said, for want of rain. 'Barley and oats produce most abundantly, and the wheat is superior to that which is grown in New South Wales; so greatly, indeed, that the difference of price which it bears in Sydney market will generally pay the expense of transport thither; and the average produce is generally greater, with the exception, perhaps, of the flood-lands on the banks of the Hawkesbury and Nepean. The natural grasses afford abundance of pasturage at all seasons of the year, and supersede the necessity of making provi-

sion for winter provender in the shape of hay or other artificial food; and, notwithstanding the greater severity of the winters, every description of stock attains a larger size here than in the neighbourhood of Port Jackson. The only advantage which the large island seems to enjoy over this, consists in the fineness of its wool, and the great excellence and variety of its fruits; particularly the grape, which promises to yield as good wine as any that is made in France, Spain, or Portugal. The temperature of Van Diemen's Land is not sufficiently high for the cultivation of the vine; but, by the introduction of the Merino sheep, the wool has been already so much improved, as to leave no doubt it will soon become a valuable article of export to the mother-country. Mr. Wentworth supposes, that twenty years hence, this single article will raise the colonists of New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, to as high a pitch of happiness and prosperity as is enjoyed by any portion of his majesty's subjects in any quarter of the globe; and that they may be enabled to ship, for Great Britain, every year, at least to the value of a million sterling. The exports, at present, consist of cattle, sheep, wool, flour, corned meats, hams, tongues, dried fish, hides, tallow, banilla, bark for tanning leather, seal-skins and oil, whale-oil, and spars. The markets hitherto opened to the colonists are England, the Cape of Good Hope, Mauritius, and the East Indies. They have also sent considerable supplies of butcher's meat, corn, and potatoes to Port Jackson.'—*Quarterly Review*.

The wild animals are, the kangaroo, opossum, wombat, squirrel, kangaroo-cat, &c., and (rarely) the hyena opossum. Horned cattle, and particularly sheep, thrive excellently well, the ewes generally dropping lambs twice a year. Goats and pigs run wild. Few indigenous plants were found here, but nearly all the European fruits have cultivated with success.

Van Diemen's Land has a lieutenant-governor and judge-advocate of its own, commissioned by his majesty; but it has not obtained the benefit of a separate criminal jurisdiction, so that prisoners for trial, prosecutors and witnesses, are compelled to make the voyage to Port Jackson. Its civil jurisdiction is confined to causes of £20 value; but the judge of the supreme court of New South Wales has lately made a circuit to the island for the trial of causes of greater value. The colony is peopled by free settlers and convicts from England as well as from New South Wales.

The remaining natives are few in number considering the extent of country which they yet hold free, and in that state of extreme wretchedness which probably forbids their increase. They are, at present, hostilely inclined to Europeans, a circumstance ascribed to a fatal quarrel at the first settling, in which several of them were killed by the rash command of a young officer, and the memory of which has been kept alive by occasional encounters in the interior. The stock-keepers of the settlers are often assaulted by them with spears and stones; but a more friendly intercourse has been effected on the Western Coasts.

The following Tables show:—1. The progress of POPULATION in this Colony, from 1818 to 1820 (omitting the military). 2. The IMPORTS and EXPORTS of the capital at the same period.

TABLE I.—ABSTRACT OF THE GENERAL MUSTER BOOKS OF VAN DIEMEN'S LAND, IN OCTOBER 1818 AND 1820.

	Acres of Land.				Horses.		Horned Cattle		Sheep.		Number of Free Persons and Settlers.			Convicts.		
	In wheat.	In Barley.	In beans and peas.	In potatoes.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Male.	Female.	Total of Population.
<i>Town, g that led the y of tham.</i>																
818	3529	135½	145	247½	97	106	4668	7019	30680	62909	640	333	483	1114	185	2755
820	6293	409	349	454	158	142	8196	13753	44988	95477	726	392	759	1875	266	4018
<i>rt mple. g that led the y of vall.</i>																
818	1520½	78½	3½	21½	29	32	1398	2271	13195	21099	189	78	150	267	55	739
820	2982	119	18	63	45	66	2708	4181	12600	29403	255	118	241	712	104	1450
<i>y arri- k place g and he last may be</i>																
	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	130	20	60	520	-	730
Total 1818	5049½	214	148½	269	126	138	6066	9290	43875	84008	829	411	633	1381	240	3494
Total 1820	9275	528	367	517	203	208	10904	17934	57588	124880	1111	530	1060	3107	370	6178
<i>ase in ears</i>																
	4226½	314	218½	248	77	70	4838	8644	13713	40872	282	119	427	1726	130	2684

TABLE II.—OFFICIAL RETURN OF THE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS AT HOBART TOWN FOR THE YEARS 1817 AND 1818.

IMPORTS (*exclusive of Government Stores, British Goods, and India Piece-Goods*).

	Spirits.	Wine.	Beer.	Sugar.	Soap.	Tobacco.	Fea.
	Gallons.	Gallons.	Casks.	Tons.	Boxes.	Baskets.	Chests.
1817	10,313	2,291	47	83	156	370	278
1818	13,537	4,982	152	100	172	203	311

EXPORTS (*exclusive of 250 Tons of Oil taken home by the licensed whaler Anne*).

	Wheat.	Meat.	Horned Cattle.	Sheep.	Seal and Kangaroo Skins.	Oil.	Potatoes.	Huon Pine.
	Bushels.	Tons.				Tons.	Tons.	Feet.
1817	24,000	20 tons	—	—	10,000	—	150	—
1818	8,000	70 casks	92	1,200	10,000	90	—	17,500



**DIEPHOLT**, or **DIEPHOLZ**, a county of Westphalia, belonging to Hanover, bounded on the north by the county of Hoya, on the east by Minden, on the south by the bishopric of Osnaburg, and on the west by Munster. It is about twenty-four miles long, and twelve broad; and is full of briers, underwood, and morasses; except along the Dümme Lake. It contains four towns and about 16,000 inhabitants. The people are Lutherans, and subsist chiefly by feeding cattle, which they sell to Holland and the countries bordering on the Rhine, along with coarse woollens and linens. This territory was erected into a country by Maximilian I. In 1585 it passed to the duchy of Zell, and from them to the electorate of Hanover. The inhabitants rear cattle and flax.

**DIEPPE**, a town of Normandy, in the department of the Lower Seine, with a good harbour, formed by the mouth of the river Arques. It has an old castle westward, and two piers. Packet boats pass between this port and Brighton constantly. They are about sixty-six miles distant. The church of St. James is a very fine structure, and there is a tower from which, in fine weather, the coast of England may be seen. The principal trade consists in fish, ivory toys, and laces. It was bombarded, and great part of it burnt by the English, in 1694. Here is a navigation school very well conducted. It contains about 20,000 inhabitants; and lies thirty-four miles north of Rouen, and 100 north-west of Paris.

**DIES MARCHIÆ** was the day of congress or meeting of the English and Scotch, annually appointed to be held on the marches or borders, in order to adjust all differences between them.

**DIESIS**, in music, is the division of a tone less than a semitone; or an interval consisting of a less or imperfect semitone. Diesis is the smallest and softest change or inflexion of the voice imaginable: it is called a faint, expressed thus (X) by a St. Andrew's cross or saltire.

**DIESPITER**, in antiquity, a name given to Jupiter; and signifying diei pater, father of the day.

**DIET**, *n. s.* From *dies*, an appointed day, Skinner; from *diet*, an old German word signifying a multitude.—Junius. An assembly of princes or estates. See the article.

An emperor in title without territory, who can ordain nothing of importance but by a *diet*, or assembly of the estates of many free princes, ecclesiastical and temporal.

*Raleigh.*

**DI'ET**, *v. a., v. n. & n. s.* } Fr. Germ. and Dut.  
**DIETARY**, *adj.* } *diete*; Span. Port.  
**DI'ETER**, *n. s.* } and Ital. *dieta*.  
**DI'ETICAL**, *adj.* } from Gr. *diæta*, the  
**DI'ET-DRINK**, *n. s.* } manner of living.

To feed or live by rule; to give food to; as a neuter verb, to feed; eat: diet as a substantive is food, generally, or allowance of food. Dietary and dietetic, pertaining to diet.

For his diet, there was a continual diet given him by the king.

*Jeremiah.*

She diets him with fasting every day,

The swelling of his wounds to mitigate,

And made him pray both early and eke late.

*Fairie Queene.*

I'm partly led to diet my revenge,  
For that I do suspect the lusty Moor  
Hath leapt into my seat. *Shakespeare. Othello.*

When we've stuffed  
These pipes, and these conveyances of blood,  
With wine and feeding, we have suppler souls,  
Than in our priestlike fasts; therefore I'll watch him  
Till he be dieted to my request. *Id. Coriolanus.*

Shew a while like fearful war,  
To diet rank minds sick of happiness,  
And purge the obstructions which begin to stop  
Our very veins of life. *Id. Henry IV.*

He sauced our broth as Juno had been sick,  
And he her dieter. *Id. Cymbeline.*

I commend rather some diet for certain seasons,  
than frequent use of physick; for these diets alter the  
body more, and trouble it less. *Ramus.*

He received no other counsel than to refrain from  
cold drink, which was but a dietetical caution, and such  
as culinary prescription might have afforded.

*Brocene's Vulgar Errata.*

Time may come, when men  
With angels may participate; and find  
No inconvenient diet, nor too light fare. *Milton.*

Henceforth my early care  
Shall tend thee, and the fertile burden ease;  
Till, dieted by thee, I grow mature  
In knowledge as the gods, who all things know. *Id.*

No part of diet, in any season, is so healthful, as  
natural, and so agreeable to the stomach, as good and  
well-ripened fruits. *Temple.*

Nature delights in the most plain and simple diet. *Adams.*

We have lived upon expedients, of which no  
country had less occasion; we have dieted a healthy  
body into a consumption, by plying it with physick in-  
stead of food. *Swift.*

This book of Cheyne's became the subject of con-  
versation, and produced even sects in the dietetical phi-  
losophy. *Arbuthnot on Aliments. Prof.*

Milk appears to be a proper diet for human bodies,  
where acrimony is to be purged or avoided; but as  
where the canals are obstructed, it being void of all  
saline quality. *Id.*

As an article of diet, salt seems to act simply as a  
stimulus, not containing any nourishment, and is the  
only fossil substance which the caprice of mankind  
has yet taken into their stomachs along with their  
food. *Darwin.*

**DIET**, in medicine, according to some, com-  
prehends the whole regimen of life, with regard  
to air, meat, drink, sleep, watching, motion, rest,  
the passions, retentions and excretions. Others  
restrict the term to eating and drinking alone.  
See Food. The natural constitution of the body  
of man is such, that it can easily bear some  
changes and irregularities without much injury.  
Had it been otherwise, we should be almost con-  
stantly put out of order by slight causes. This  
advantage arises from those wonderful commu-  
nications of the inward parts, whereby, when one  
part is affected, another comes immediately to  
its relief. Thus, when the body is too full, na-  
ture causes evacuations through some of the out-  
lets: and for this reason, diseases from absolute  
inanition are generally more dangerous than  
from repletion, unless the latter be excessive:  
because we can more expeditiously diminish than  
increase the juices of the body. Upon the same



unt, though temperance be beneficial to all, the ancient physicians advised persons in health, now and then to eat and drink plentifully than usual. But of the two, temperance in drinking is safer than in eating. A man be obliged to fast, he ought to avoid laborious work. From satiety it is not proper to pass directly to sharp hunger, nor from hunger to satiety: neither will it be safe to indulge in rest immediately after excessive labor, nor to fall to work after long idleness. In food, all changes in the way of living should be made by degrees. The softer and milder kinds of aliment are proper for children, and for youth stronger. Old people ought to lessen the quantity of their food, and increase that of their drink: but some allowance is to be made for women, especially in cold climates like ours: as in these the appetite is keener, so is the digestion better performed. The article ALIMENT presents a regular table of all the ordinary kinds of human food, or diet: in that of DIET more remarks on this subject occur.

DIET, GENERAL, OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE, was usually held at Ratisbon. It consisted of the emperor, the nine electors, and the ecclesiastical princes; viz. the archbishops, bishops, abbots, and abbesses; the secular princes, being dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, or barons; and the representatives of the imperial cities. It was convened on the emperor's summons, but any of the electors might send deputies. Peace and war, the levying of general taxes, and the assessment of different states, were among the principal subjects submitted to the deliberation of the diet. If it required the consent of the emperor to give their determinations the force of laws. The imperial dignity, though not hereditary, was possessed for several ages, without interruption, by the house of Austria. The Confederation of the Rhine, during the domination of Buonaparte, completely dissolved this ancient system, and compelled the house of Austria to resign the title and title of emperor of Germany, which it has not since resumed.

At the congress of Vienna, however, the constitution of Germany was so far remodelled on the former plan, that a new diet was created to watch over the interests of what was now called the Germanic Confederation. By this confederation, although the title of elector ceases, all the states have a vote in the diet according to their respective territories, and the population. The emperor of Austria has no other preponderance

than that which arises from the extent of his dominions within the limits of the confederacy. Two new kingdoms were created in the north, and two in the south. These were Hanover and Saxony, in the former; and Bavaria and Wirtemberg, in the latter.

The great powers of this new confederation are Austria, Prussia, Hanover, Saxony, Bavaria, and Wirtemberg. In the diet, each member of the confederacy has an equal vote. The members, as constituted by the act of congress, are seventeen, composed of the following separate or combined powers:—

1. Austria.
2. Prussia.
3. Bavaria.
4. Saxony, kingdom (not the duchies).
5. Hanover.
6. Wirtemberg.
7. Baden.
8. The electorate of Hesse.
9. The grand duchy of Hesse.
10. Denmark for Holstein and Lauenburg.
11. The Netherlands for Luxemburg.
12. The grand ducal, and the ducal houses of Saxony.
13. Brunswick and Nassau.
14. Mecklenburg, Schwerin and Strelitz.
15. Oldenburg, Anhalt, and Schwartzburg.
16. Hohenzollern, Lichtenstein, Reuss, Schaumburg-Lippe, Lippe, and Waldeck.
17. The free towns of Lubeck, Frankfort, Bremen, and Hamburg.

This list therefore exhibits the present political division of Germany, and the states included under the same number vote in the diet conjointly. The deliberations of this body embrace all ordinary discussions; but when general laws are to be enacted, or changes made in the *fundamental* rules or principles of the confederation, the diet forms itself into a general assembly, in which each state votes separately. But as it would evidently have been an unequal partition of power to have given each an equal voice in this assembly, the number of votes possessed by the several states are regulated by their territorial extent and importance. For this purpose, the whole of the confederacy is divided into four classes, which, with the population of each state, according to the official returns of 1818, and the number of votes it possesses in the general assembly, are as follow, viz:—

## FIRST CLASS.

States.	Population.	Votes.
1. Austria (for her possessions within the limits of the confederacy)	9,482,227—	4
2. Prussia (exclusive of her Polish territories)	7,923,439—	4
3. Saxony, kingdom of	1,200,000—	4
4. Bavaria, do.	3,560,000—	4
5. Hanover, do.	1,305,350—	4
6. Wirtemberg, do.	1,395,463—	4

## SECOND CLASS.

1. Baden, grand duchy of	1,000,000—	3
2. Hesse-Cassel, electorate of	540,000—	3
3. Hesse-Darmstadt, grand duchy of	619,500—	3
4. Holstein and Lauenburg, duchies of	360,000—	3
5. Luxemburg, grand duchy of	214,058—	3



## THIRD CLASS.

States.	Population.	Votes.
1. Brunswick, duchy of	209,600—	2
2. Mecklenburg-Schwerin, grand duchy of	358,000—	2
3. Nassau, duchy of	302,767—	2

## FOURTH CLASS.

1. Saxe-Weimar, grand duchy of	201,000—	1
2. Saxe-Gotha, duchy of	185,682—	1
3. Saxe-Coburg	80,012—	1
4. Saxe-Meiningen	54,400—	1
5. Saxe-Hildburghausen	27,706—	1
6. Mecklenburg-Strelitz, grand duchy of	71,769—	1
7. Oldenburg	217,769—	1
8. Anhalt-Dessau, duchy of	52,947—	1
9. Anhalt-Bernburg	37,046—	1
10. Anhalt-Köthen	32,454—	1
11. Schwartzburg-Sondershausen, principality of	45,117—	1
12. Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt	53,937—	1
13. Hohenzollern-Hechingen	14,500—	1
14. Lichtenstein	5,546—	1
15. Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen	35,360—	1
16. Waldeck, county of	51,877—	1
17. Reuss (Elder Branch), principality of	22,253—	1
18. Reuss (Younger Branch)	52,203—	1
19. Hesse-Homburg	20,000—	1
20. Schaumburg-Lippe	24,000—	1
21. Lippe-Detmold	69,062—	1
22. Lubeck, the free town of	40,650—	1
23. Frankfurt	47,850—	1
24. Bremen	48,500—	1
25. Hamburg	129,800—	1

30,091,489—69

This federative body keeps up a military armament, composed in time of peace of 120,000 men, including 96,000 infantry, 18,000 cavalry, and 6000 artillery. In war the contingent is to be increased; the forces being one in every hundred of the population, which, according to the preceding scale, would be 301,000. A reserve of one in every 200 is also to be maintained; which would therefore at present amount to 150,000 men. Of this army

Austria furnishes	94,822
Prussia	79,234
Bavaria	35,600
Wurtemberg	23,955
Hanover	13,054
Saxony, kingdom of	12,000
Baden	10,000
The other states	32,335
	301,000

The pecuniary contributions of the several members of the confederacy have also been voted for five years; after which the proportions are subject to revision. The fortresses that are considered as essential to the defence of the dominions, belong in common to the confederation, and are to be repaired and supported at the general expense. Germersheim, as commanding the passage of the Rhine, is to be made a place of great strength; as well as Homburg and Ulm. For completing the fortifications of the last of these places, the sum of £800,000 was voted by the diet in 1818. In time of war, a generalis-

simo is to be chosen by the diet, and who is to be accountable to them alone for his conduct.

DIETRICH, or DIETRICH (Christian Wilhelm Ernest), a modern artist, born at Weimar in 1712. He resided chiefly at Dresden, where he was professor of the Academy of Arts. He succeeded both in history and landscape, and painted above 150 small subjects, which are engraved in the style of Salvator Rosa. Some of these etchings are exceedingly rare.

DIEU ET MON DROIT, Fr. i. e. God and my right. The motto of the arms of England, assumed by Richard I. to intimate that he did not hold his empire in vassalage of any man. It was afterwards taken up by Edward III. and was continued without interruption to the reign of king William III. who used the motto *maintiendray*, though the former was still retained upon the great seal. After him queen Anne used the motto *Semper eadem*, which had been before used by queen Elizabeth; but ever since queen Anne, *Dieu et mon droit* has been the royal motto.

DIEU ET SON ACTE, in common law, a maxim that the act of God shall hurt no man; so that house be beat down by a tempest, the lessee is not only free from an action of waste, but also have a right to take the timber to rebuild the house.

DIEZ, ISLE DE, an island in the Atlantic, on the coast of France, about seven miles long, and two wide, fifteen miles S.S.W. of Noirmout. Long. 15° 17' E. of Ferro, lat. 46° 42' N.

DIEZ (Juan or John Martin), better known as the Empecinado of modern Spanish warfare, was the son of a peasant of Vallada



and born in 1775. Having twice d in the army, as a private dragoon, nguished himself on the invasion of onaparte in 1808, when placing him- ead of a party of four or five of his he commenced killing the French izing their horses, arms, &c. After e committed by the French army Martin openly defied and harassed rious directions; and besetting the d their convoys, and exceedingly ha- small parties. He and his twelve rades are said to have slaughtered en in three months. He at first neither pected quarter; but when at the head y men, abandoned this mode of war- ntinued to signalise himself by great orts. In one affair, being opposed ander of an enemy's party, the Em- eceived a sword-thrust through his e side; when, enraged by the pain, his adversary by the neck, dragged his horse, and fell with him to the ping himself uppermost. The struggle, until both were disarmed, when, hman refused to surrender, the Em- olding him down with one hand, y a stone with the other and dashed out. In September, 1809, Martin 170 men, mounted, and placed them orders of the junta of Guadalaxara. rds received the rank of a brigadier cavalry, but very unwillingly ex- peasant's dress for uniform.

ed duke of Wellington entered Madrid Diez attended him, and received his to join the army in the neighbourhood at the head of 4850 men. After the addressed a letter to king Ferdinand, ary 13th, 1815, and evincing consi- wers of mind. It was published in The Military Exploits of D. Juan z, the Empecinado, who first com- d then organised the System of Gue- re in Spain.' Yet he could write, it is e than his name. On the establishment ent wretched system of government e Empecinado became obnoxious to owers, and, notwithstanding all his ces, was seized on a charge of conspi- and executed at Ruedtz, the 19th of 25.

he name of an instrument in music Arabs, serving chiefly to beat time to it is a hoop, sometimes with pieces xed to it to make a gingling, over ce of parchment is distended. It is e fingers, and is the true tympanum nts.

CREATION, in Roman antiquity, a hereby the divorce of their priests nished. The word comes from the dis, used in composition for division, o, a ceremony with wheat, of far, iffarreation was properly the dissolv- rriages contracted by confarreation, those of the pontifices or priests. , it was performed with a wheaten ceare will have confarreation and

diffarreation to be the same thing, contrary to the obvious derivation of the words.

DIFFER, *v. n.*  
DIFFERENCE, *v. a. & n. s.*  
DIFFERENT, *adj.*  
DIFFERENTIAL,  
DIFFERENTLY, *adv.*  
DIFFERENTLY, *adv.*

French *differer*;  
Span. *deferenciar*;  
Ital. *differire*, Lat.  
*differre*, from *dis*  
different, and *ferre*,  
to scatter. To be  
distinguished from; to contend; to be at variance.  
To difference is to make things to differ; a dif-  
ference, the diversity or contrariety made: hence  
a dispute; quarrel; and the evidence or ground  
of distinction, or quarrel. Differential is a sci-  
entific term explained below. The two adverbs  
seem synonymous.

Where the faith of the holy church is one, a *dis-*  
*ference* between customs of the church doth no harm.  
*Hooker.*

You shall see great *difference* betwixt our Bohemia  
and your Sicilia. *Shakspeare. Winter's Tale.*

Oh the strange *difference* of man and man!  
To thee a woman's services are due;  
My soul usurps my body. *Id. King Lear.*

What was the *difference*?  
— It was a contention in publick. *Id. Cymbeline.*

This nobility, or *difference* from the vulgar, was not  
in the beginning given to the succession of blood, but  
to the succession of virtue. *Raleigh.*

A man of judgment shall sometimes hear ignorant  
men *differ*, and know well within himself that those  
which so *differ* mean one thing, and yet they them-  
selves never agree. *Bacon.*

If the pipe be a little wet on the inside, it will make  
a *differing* sound from the same pipe dry. *Bacon.*

This is notoriously known in some *differences* of  
brake or fern. *Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

Opiniators naturally *differ*  
From other men; as wooden legs are stiffer  
Than those of pliant joints, to yield and bow,  
Which way soe'er they are designed to go. *Butler.*

Such protuberant and concave parts of a surface  
may remit the light so *differingly*, as to vary a colour.  
*Boyle.*

Nothing could have fallen out more unluckily than  
that there should be such *differences* among them about  
that which they pretend to be the only means of  
ending *differences*. *Tillotson.*

Most are apt to seek all the *differences* of letters in  
those articulating motions; whereas several combina-  
tions of letters are framed by the very same motions  
of those organs which are commonly observed, and  
are *differenced* by other concurrent causes. *Holder.*

Thus, born, alike, from virtue first began  
The *difference* that distinguished man from man:  
He claimed no title from descent of blood;  
But that, which made him noble, made him good.  
*Dryden.*

Though it be useful to discern every variety that is  
to be found in nature, yet it is not convenient to con-  
sider every *difference* that is in things, and divide  
them into distinct classes under every such *difference*.  
*Loche.*

Grass *difference*th a civil and well cultivated region  
from a barren and desolate wilderness. *Ray.*

In things purely speculative, as these are, and no  
ingredients of our faith, it is free to *differ* from one  
another in our opinions and sentiments.

*Burnet's Theogy.*



The world's a wood, in which all lose their way,  
Though by a *different* path each goes astray.  
*Buckingham.*

There are certain measures to be kept, which may leave a tendency rather to gain than to irritate those who *differ* with you in their sentiments.

*Addison's Freeholder.*

He may consider how *differently* he is affected by the same thought, which presents itself in a great writer, from what he is when he finds it delivered by an ordinary genius.

*Id.*

By *different* methods *different* men excel;  
But where is he that can do all things well?

*Churchill.*

Plutarch, discoursing of the effects of the air on the minds of men, observes, that the inhabitants of the Piræum possessed very *different* tempers from those of the higher town in Athens, which was distant about four miles from the former: but I believe no one attributes the *difference* of manners in Wapping and St. James's to a *difference* of air or climate.

*Hume.*

The *difference* of natural tempers seems to be chiefly owing to the *different* degrees of influence the several passions have upon the mind.

*Mason.*

The powers of the letters, when they were applied to a new language, must have been vague and unsettled, and therefore *different* hands would exhibit the same sound by *different* combinations.

*Johnson. Preface to Dictionary.*

*Differential* method, is applied to the doctrine of infinitesimals, or infinitely small quantities, called the arithmetick of fluxions. It consists in descending from whole quantities to their infinitely small *differences*, and comparing together these infinitely small *differences*, of what kind soever they be: and from thence it takes the name of the *differential* calculus, or analysis of infinitesimals.

*Harris.*

DIFFERENCE, in heraldry, a term given to the figures added to coats of arms, serving to distinguish one family from another; and to show how distant younger branches are from the elder or principal branch.

DIFFERENCE, in logic, an essential attribute belonging to some species, and not found in the genus; being the idea that defines the species. Thus, body and spirit are the two species of substance, which, in their ideas include something more than is included in the idea of substance. In body, for instance, is found impenetrability, and extension; in spirit, a power of thinking and reasoning; so that the difference of body is impenetrable extension, and the difference of spirit is cogitation.

DIFFERENCE, in mathematics, is the remainder, when one number or quantity is subtracted from another.

DIFFERENTIAL, in the higher geometry, is an infinitely small quantity, or a particle of quantity so small as to be less than any assignable one. It is called a differential, or differential quantity, because frequently considered as the difference of two quantities; and, as such, is the foundation of the differential calculus. Sir Isaac Newton, and the English, call it a moment, as being considered as the momentary increase of quantity. See CALCULUS.

DIFFICILE, *adj.*

DIFFICILENESS, *n. s.*

DIFFICULT, *adj.*

DIFFICULTLY, *adv.*

DIFFICULTY, *n. s.*

Fr. *difficile*; Ital. *difficile*; Lat. *difficile*, *de*, *pr* and *facilis*, *easy*, *not easy*; not distressing; scrupulous. Difficile and are synonymous adjectives; the former common in our old writers. The substantives are difficulty and diffidence.

It is *difficult* in the eyes of this people

The cardinal finding the pope *difficult* in the dispensation, doth use it as a principal argument concerning the king's merit, that he had none of those deniers which had been levied in England.

There be that in their nature do not affect of others: the lighter sort of malignity turns a crossness or frowardness, or aptness to *difficultness*, or the like; but the deeper sort and mere mischief.

The way he came, not having marked, *Was difficult*, by human steps untrod.

Latin was not more *difficult*

Than to a blackbird 'tis to whistle. *H*

Some write in Hebrew, some in Greek

And some, more wise, in Arabic,

To avoid the critic, and the expense

Of *difficulty*, wit, and sense.

A man, who has always indulged himself full enjoyment of his station, will *difficultly* be persuaded to think any methods unjust that offend him.

*Rogers's*

They mistake *difficulties* for impossibilities; vicious mistake certainly; and the more proof for that men are seldom convinced of it, convictions do them no good.

Men should consider, that raising *difficulties* concerning the mysteries in religion, cannot make more wise, learned, or virtuous.

It is very *difficult* to praise a man without him out of countenance.

If, therefore, we would have the benefit of our language more generally known among us, we should endeavour to remove all the *difficulties*, however small, that discourage the learner. But I am sorry to observe, that of late years *difficulties*, instead of being diminished, have augmented.

Some of the cases which occurred about are of such a kind, that it is *difficult* to know what casuistry the jury could have been required to give their verdict.

*Sir S.*

Nothing so *difficult* as a beginning

In poesy, unless perhaps the end;

For oftentimes when Pegasus seems winning

The race, he sprains a wing, and down he falls like Lucifer, when hurled from heaven for

DIFFIDE, *v. n.*

DIFFIDENCE, *n. s.*

DIFFIDENT, *adj.*

Fr. *défier*; Ital. *diffido*; Lat. *diffido*, *de*, *pr* and *fide*, *confidence*. To distrust; have no reliance or confidence, the more common word, is to doubt; distrust; whether applied to ourselves or others.

No man almost thought himself secure, durst scarce commune or talk one with another, there was a general *diffidence* every where.

*Bacon's*



so confident of my own sufficiency, as not to admit the counsel of others; but yet I confident of myself, as brutishly to submit to dictates.  
*King Charles.*

You have brought scandal  
of diffidence of God, and doubt  
of hearts, propense enough before  
*Milton's Agonistes.*

Be not diffident  
; she deserts thee not, if thou  
t her, when most thou need'st her nigh.  
*Milton.*

vidence of its being, or that this is its true  
only on probable proofs, our assent can  
gher than an assurance or diffidence arising  
ore or less apparent probability of the proofs.  
*Locke.*

With hope and fear  
woman did the new solution hear:  
man diffides in his own augury,  
d doubts the gods.  
*Dryden.*

trality of mankind, either out of laziness,  
of their being able to judge right in points  
t very clear, are apt rather to take things  
than to give themselves the trouble to  
ether they be true or no.  
*Buckingham.*

ent always when you doubt your sense;  
ak, though sure, with seeming diffidence.  
*Pope.*

ess makes the humble heart diffident.  
*Clarissa.*

eaks of the Seres, the same people with  
e, as being very shy and diffident in their  
dealing.  
*Arbutnot.*

ory of past errors makes me diffident for  
*Hume on the Human Understanding.*

ND, v. a. Lat. *diffindo*. To cleave in  
dit.

SSION, n. s. Lat. *diffissio*. The act  
or splitting.

ATION, n. s. Lat. *difflare*. The act  
g with a blast of wind.

U'ENCE, or } Lat. *diffluo*; *dis*, di-  
EN'CY, n. s. } versely, and *fluo*, to  
ENT, adj. } flow; Gr. *βλωω*. To  
ely. The flowing away on all sides,

ter congealed by the frigidity of the air,  
acquireth no new form, but rather a con-  
determination of its diffuency; and admit-  
essence, but condition of fluidity.

*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

RM, adj. } From Lat. *forma*. Con-  
MITY, n. s. } trary to uniform; having  
fferent structure; dissimilar; unlike;  
m flower, of which the leaves are un-  
ther.

ey murmur against the present disposure  
they desire in them a difformity from the  
le, and the idea of that mind that formed  
it.  
*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

ual refractions of difform rays proceed not  
ntingent irregularities; such as are veins,  
polish, or fortuitous position of the pores  
*Newton.*

A'NCHISEMENT, n. s. Fr. *franchise*.  
taking away the privileges of a city.

DIFFUSE, v. a. & adj.

DIFFUSE'D, part. adj.

DIFFU'SEDLY, adv.

DIFFU'SEDNESS, n. s.

DIFFU'SION,

DIFFU'SIVE, adj.

DIFFU'SIVELY, adv.

diffuse, as an adjective, therefore, sometimes means  
obscure of meaning; difficult to gather; also ex-  
tended. Diffusion is a state of dispersion; copi-  
ousness; exuberance.

He grows like savages,

To swearing and stern looks, diffused attire,  
And every thing that seems unnatural.

*Shakspeare. Henry V.*

Whereas all bodies act either by communication of  
their natures, or by the impressions and signatures of  
their motions, the diffusion of species visible seemeth  
to participate more of the former operation, and the  
species audible of the latter. *Bacon's Natural History.*

Wisdom had ordained

Good out of evil to create; instead  
Of spirits malign, a better race to bring  
Into their vacant room, and thence diffuse  
His good to worlds, and ages, infinite.  
*Milton.*

A sheet of very well sleeked marble paper did not  
cast distinct colours upon the wall, nor throw its light  
with an equal diffusion; but threw its beams, unstained  
and bright, to this and that part of the wall.

*Boyle on Colours.*

A chief renowned in war,

Whose race shall bear aloft the Latian name,  
And through the conquered world diffuse our fame.  
*Dryden.*

The stars, no longer overlaid with weight,  
Exert their heads from underneath the mass,  
And upward shoot, and kindle as they pass,  
And with diffusive light adorn their heavenly place.  
*Id.*

No man is of so general and diffusive a lust, as to  
prosecute his amours all the world over. *South.*

They are not agreed among themselves where infal-  
libility is seated; whether in the pope alone, or a  
council alone, or in both together, or in the diffusive  
body of Christians. *Tillotson.*

All liquid bodies are diffusive; for their parts being  
in motion, have no connexion, but glide and fall off  
any way. *Burnet's Theory of the Earth.*

The fault that I find with a modern legend is its  
diffusiveness; you have sometimes the whole side of a  
medal overrun with it. *Addison on Medals.*

The wisdom of the ignorant somewhat resembles  
the instinct of animals; it is diffused, but in a very  
narrow sphere; but within the circle it acts with  
vigour, uniformity, and success. *Goldsmith.*

Some glossy-leaved and shining in the sun,

The maple, and the beech of oily nuts  
Prolific, and the lime at dewy eve,  
Diffusing odours. *Cowper.*

DIG, v. a. & v. n. Saxon, *dic*; Dan. *dyger*;  
Belg. *dyken*; from *diok*, a ditch. To pierce and  
turn over the earth; to cultivate ground; to  
form by digging; to pierce; to obtain any thing  
by this operation. As a neuter verb, to work  
with the spade.

They long for death, but it cometh not; and dig for  
it more than for hid treasures. *Job iii. 21.*

If I digged up thy forefathers' graves,  
And hung their rotten coffins up in chains,  
It would not slake mine ire. *Shakspeare.*











As Life discordant elements arrests,  
Rejects the noxious, and the pure *digests*,  
Combines with Heat the fluctuating mass,  
And gives awhile solidity to gas. *Darwin.*

Oh, the souls of some men  
Thou wouldst *digest* what some call treason, and  
Fools treachery. *Byron.*

**DIGEST, DIGESTUM**, is a collection of the Roman laws, ranked and digested under proper titles by order of the emperor Justinian. That prince gave his chancellor Tribonianus a commission for this purpose: who, in consequence of this, chose sixteen jurisconsulti, or lawyers, to work upon them. These, accordingly, took the best decisions from the 2000 volumes of the ancient jurisconsulti, and reduced them all into one body; which was published A. D. 533, under the name of the Digest. To this the emperor gave the force of a law, by a letter at the head of the work, which serves it as a preface. The Digest makes the first part of the Roman law, and the first part of the corpus or body of the civil law contained in fifty books. It was translated into Greek under the same emperor, and called *Pandecta*. See **PANDECTS**. Cujas says, that Digest is a common name for all books disposed in a good order and economy; and hence Tertullian calls the gospel of St. Luke a digest. Hence also abridgments of the common law are denominated digests of the numerous cases, arguments, readings, pleadings, &c., diversified in the year books and other reports and books of law, reduced under proper heads. The first was that of Statham, which comes as low as Henry VI.

**DIGESTER**, an instrument invented by Mr. Papin about the beginning of the last century. It is a strong vessel of copper or iron, with a cover adapted to screw on with pieces of felt or paper interposed. A valve with a small aperture is made in the cover, the stopper of which valve may be more or less loaded, either by actual weights, or by pressure from an apparatus on the principle of the steel-yard. The purpose of this vessel is to prevent the loss of heat by evaporation. The solvent power of water when heated in this vessel is greatly increased.

**DIGESTION**. For the rationale of this process, see **PHYSIOLOGY**. See also the word **BILE** for an account of part of the changes which aliment undergoes, before it may in one sense be said to be duly digested; and, for an account of the derangements in the process of digestion see the article **MEDICINE**, and the word **STOMACH**; under which last word, the reader will find a detailed account of those modern theories which have recently excited so much attention in respect of stomach derangements and their general influence over the frame. It is under this word, that we propose discussing the merits and demerits of these theories, and engaging in a somewhat comprehensive disquisition on the subject in all its bearings.

**DIGESTIVES**, in medicine, such remedies as strengthen and increase the tone of the stomach, and assist in the digestion of food. To this class belong all stomachics and strengtheners, or corroborants.

**DIGGING**, among miners, is appropriated to the

operation of freeing any kind of ore from or stratum in which it lies, where every one of their tools turns to account: in contradistinction to the openings made in search of ore, which are called *hatches*, or *essay hatches*: and the operation itself, tracing of mines or hatching. When a bed of ore is discovered, the bee-men dig ore from the fossils around it; and the men throw it from one shamble to another, until it reaches the mouth of the hatch. In order to save the expense as well as fatigue of shovel-men, they raise the ore by means of a winder and two buckets, one of which goes up while the other comes down.

**DIGHT**, *v. a.* Goth. & Swed. *dig*, *dihten*. To arrange; dress; embellish. *Dight* seems always to signify the past; the passive is *dight*, as *dighted* in Hudibras happens improper.

Every spirit as it is most pure  
And hath in it the more of heavenly light,  
So it the fairer body doth procure  
To habit in, and it more fairly *dights*  
With cheerful grace, and amiable sight.

On his head his dreadful hat he *dights*  
Which maketh him invisible to sight.

Let my due feet never fail  
To walk the studious cloisters pale  
And love the high embowed roof,  
With antick pillar, massy proof;  
And storied windows richly *dight*  
Casting a dim religious light.

Just so the proud insulting lass  
Arrayed and *dighted* Hudibras.

**DIGIT**, *n. s.* Lat. *digitus*;

**DIGITATED**, *adj.* *ἡ δακτύλος, δακτύλος*, to cause we point out any thing with the finger. *Digitated* is a measure of about three-fourths of an inch, or the width of the finger; or the twelfth part of the sun's or moon's diameter. *Digitated* is out.

Not only the numbers seven and nine, but also the numbers abstruse, have been extolled by all or most of other *digits* have been as much applauded.

*Brounne's Vagabond*

For animals multiform, or such as are, have several divisions in their feet, those that are uniparous; that is, men and

If the inverted tube of mercury be but *digits* high, or somewhat more, the quicksilver will not fall, but remain suspended in the tube cannot press the subjacent mercury with force as doth the incumbent cylinder of the atmosphere thence to the top of the atmosphere.

**DIGIT**, in astronomy, is used to express the quantity of an eclipse. Thus an eclipse is said to be of six *digits*, when six of the sun's diameter is hid.

**DIGIT**, is also a measure taken from the finger. It is properly three-fourths of an inch, and contains the measure of the finger laid breadthwise.

**DIGITALIS**, fox-glove, a genus of the order, and didynamia class of the natural order twenty-eighth, *luridæ*:



es: cor. campanulated, quinquefid, and  
e; caps. ovate and bilocular. There are  
es: five of which are hardy, herbaceous,  
and perennial plants, and the sixth a  
rubby exotic. The herbaceous species  
or three feet high, crowned with spikes  
, iron-colored, or purple flowers. The  
sort rises five or six feet high, having  
ped rough leaves, four or five inches  
half as broad; the branches being all  
d with flowers growing in loose spikes.  
pecies are easily raised by seeds. An  
made of the flowers of purple fox-glove  
butter, is much commended by some  
s for scrophulous ulcers which run much  
full of matter. Taken internally this  
a violent purgative and emetic; and is  
only to be administered to robust con-  
: indeed it often proves even then a  
An infusion of two drachms of the leaf  
of water, given in half-ounce doses  
hours or so, till it begin to purge, is  
ded in dropsy, particularly that of the  
is said to have produced an evacuation  
so copious and sudden, in ascites, by  
urine, that the compression of bandages  
necessary. The plentiful use of dilu-  
dered during its operation. But besides  
n in infusion, it has also been employed  
ce. And when taken at bedtime to the  
one, two, or three grains of the dried  
often in a short time operates as a very  
diuretic, without producing any other  
s. Even this quantity, however, will  
excite very severe vomiting, and that  
ing unexpectedly.

DIADATION, *n. s.* Lat. *digladiatio*. A  
th swords; any quarrel or contest.  
seems purposely to intend the cherishing  
rial *digladiations*, by his own affection of  
obscurity. *Glenville.*

GGYHEUR, a town in the island of  
out ten miles to the eastward of Candy,  
d to Battacolo. The district around is  
and impenetrable, for which reason it  
royal residence; and when the king was  
of Candy, and his capital burned by  
in 1803, he found here a retreat, to  
European army could penetrate. There  
villages among the surrounding hills,  
rice grounds.

PH, in architecture, a kind of imper-  
ph, console, or the like: with two  
engravings either circular or angular.  
l, the chief town of the department of  
Alps, France, famous for the baths near  
eated on the Bleone, and is a bishop's  
streets are steep and winding, and the  
an; but the cathedral is a respectable  
d there are four other churches. Not  
e town there is an extinct volcano. It  
out 3500 inhabitants. Thirty miles  
Apt, and thirty-four south by west of

FY *v. a.*  
ICA'TION, *n. s.*  
IED, *adj.*  
ARY, *n. s.*  
Y, *n. s.*

From Lat. *dignus* (Gr.  
*δικη*, right) worthy;  
and *facio* to make.  
To advance; promote;  
raise to honor. Digni-

fication and dignity are synonymous substan-  
tives; and the cognates of the latter. Fr. *dig-  
nité*; Span. *dignidad*; It. *dignita*. Dignities is  
used by Browne for the general or chief maxims  
of a science. Ayliffe says, that among ecclesias-  
tics, 'we understand by a dignity that promo-  
tion or preferment to which any jurisdiction is  
attached.' Dignitary has also a peculiar appli-  
cation to clergymen, above the rank of a parish-  
priest; but is likewise used generally.

Angels are not any where spoken so highly of as  
our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, and are not in  
dignity equal to him. *Hooker.*

Such a day,  
So fought, so followed, and so fairly won,  
Came not till now to dignify the times  
Since Caesar's fortunes! *Shakespeare. Henry IV.*  
Not that we think us worthy such a guest,  
But that your worth will dignify our feast.

*Ben Jonson.*  
The sciences concluding from dignities, and prin-  
ciples known by themselves, receive not satisfaction  
from probable reasons, much less from bare asseve-  
rations. *Brown.*

I grant that where a noble and ancient descent and  
merit meet in any man, it is a double dignification of  
that person. *Walton's Angler.*

Abbots are stiled dignified clerks, as having some  
dignity in the church. *Ayliffe's Parergon.*

If there be any dignitaries, whose preferments are  
perhaps not liable to the accusation of superfluity,  
they may be persons of superior merit. *Swift.*

Some men have a native dignity, which will pro-  
cure them more regard by a look, than others can  
obtain by the most imperious commands. *Clarissa.*

The peaceable lawyers are, in the first place, many  
of the benchers of the several inns of court, who seem  
to be the dignitaries of the law, and are endowed  
with those qualifications of mind that accomplish a  
man rather for a ruler than a pleader. *Addison.*

No turbot's dignify my boards;  
But gudgeons, flounders, what my Thames affords. *Pope.*

We all know, that those who loll at their ease in  
high dignities, whether of the church, or of the state,  
are commonly averse to all reformation. *Burke.*

Or, turning to the Vatican, go see  
Laocoon's torture dignifying pain—  
A father's love and mortal's agony  
With an immortal's patience blending. *Byron.*

DIGNITY, as applied to the titles of noblemen,  
signifies honor and authority. And dignity may  
be divided into superior and inferior; as the titles  
of duke, marquis, earl, baron, &c. are the highest  
names of dignity; and those of baronet, knight,  
serjeant at law, &c., the lowest. Nobility only  
can give so high a name of dignity as to supply  
the want of a surname in legal proceedings; and  
as the omission of a name of dignity may be  
pleaded in abatement of a writ, &c., so it may be  
where a peer who has more than one name of  
dignity is not named by the Most Noble. No  
temporal dignity of any foreign nation can give  
a man a higher title here than that of Esquire.  
The first personal dignity after the nobility is a  
knight of the order of St. George, or of the gar-  
ter, first instituted by Edward III. A. D. 1344.  
Next (but not till after certain official dignities,  
as privy-counsellors, the chancellors of the ex-



chequer and duchy of Lancaster, the chief justice of the king's bench, the master of the rolls, and the other English judges,) follows a knight banneret; who indeed by statutes 5 Richard II. c. 4, and 14 Richard II. c. 11, is ranked next after barons; and his precedence before the younger sons of viscounts was confirmed by order of king James I. But to entitle him to this rank, he must have been created by the king in person, in the field, under the royal banners, in time of open war; else he ranks after baronets, who are the next in order; which title is a dignity of inheritance, created by letters patent, and usually descendible to the issue male. Next follow the knights of the Bath. The last of these inferior nobility are knights bachelors; the most ancient though the lowest order of knighthood amongst us. See *BACHELOR*. The above, with those enumerated under the article *NOBILITY*, Sir Edward Coke says, are all the names of dignity in this kingdom; Esquires and Gentlemen being only names of worship. But before these last the heralds rank all colonels, serjeants at law, and doctors of law, physic, and divinity.

*DIGNOTION*, *n. s.* From Lat. *dignosco*. Distinction; distinguishing mark.

That temperament all *dignotions*, and conjecture of prevalent humours, may be collected from spots in our nails, we are not averse to concede.

*Broune's Vulgar Errors.*

*DIGRESS'*, *v. n.* } Span. and Port *digre-*  
*DIGRESSION*, *n. s.* } *dir*; Ital. *digredire*; Lat.  
*DIGRESSIVE*, *adj.* } *digrediri*, *digressus*, from  
*dis* and *gradior*, *gressus*, to step; to go aside from a road, or design; to wander; expatiate. *Digressive* is wandering.

Thy noble shape is but a form of wax,  
*Digressing* from the valour of a man.

*Shakespeare.*

The *digression* of the sun is not equal; but, near the equinoctial intersections, it is right and greater; near the solstices, more oblique and lesser.

*Broune's Vulgar Errors.*

He, she knew, would intermix  
Grateful *digressions*, and solve high dispute  
With conjugal caresses.

*Milton.*

The good man thought so much of his late conceived commonwealth, that all other matters were but *digressions* to him.

*Sidney.*

In the pursuit of an argument, there is hardly room to *digress* into a particular definition, as often as a man varies the signification of any term.

*Locke.*

*Digressions* in a book are like foreign troops in a state, which argue the nation to want a heart and hands of its own; and often either subdue the natives, or drive them into the most unfruitful corners.

*Swift.*

The excellence of this work is not exactness but copiousness. The wild diffusion of the sentiments, and the *digressive* sallies of imagination, would have been compressed and restrained by confinement to rhyme.

*Johnson.*

*DIGYNIA*; from *δις*, twice, and *γυνή*, a woman; the name of an order in the first thirteen classes, except the ninth, in Linnæus's sexual method; consisting of plants, which have two female organs.

*DII*, the divinities of the ancient heathens, were very numerous. Every object which caused

terror, inspired gratitude, or bestowed favour, received the tribute of veneration. Man was a superior agent in the stars, the elements, or the trees, and supposed that the waters which communicated fertility to his fields and possessions, were under the influence and direction of some invisible power inclined to favor and to benefit mankind. Thus arose a train of divinities which imagination arrayed in different forms and armed with different powers. They were supposed to be endowed with understanding, and actuated by the same passions which daily afflict the human race; and to be appeased or provoked, like the imperfect beings whose fears gave them birth. Their wrath was to be mitigated by sacrifices and incense; and sometimes human victims bled, and thus real crimes were committed, to expiate crimes, which superstition alone supposed to exist. The sun, from his powerful influence and animating nature, first claimed the adoration of the civilised inhabitants of the earth. The moon was honored with sacrifices, and addressed in prayers; and after immortality had been literally bestowed on all the heavenly bodies, mankind classed among their deities the brute creation, and the cat and the sow shared equally with Jupiter himself, the father of gods and men, the devout veneration of their votaries. The immense number of deities has been divided into different classes according to the fancy of the mythologists. The Romans generally reckoned two classes of the gods. Among the demi-gods, who were said to have merited immortality by the greatness of their exploits and services to mankind, were Vertumnus, Hercules, Jason, Castor and Pollux, whose parents were some of the immortal gods. All the passions and moral virtues were also reckoned powerful deities, and temples were raised to the goddesses of concord, peace, &c. According to Hesiod, there were no less than 30,000 gods that inhabited the earth, and were guardians of men, all subservient to Jupiter. To these, succeeding ages added an almost equal number; and indeed they were so numerous, and their functions so various, that we find temples erected and sacrifices offered, to unknown gods. All the gods of the ancients were supposed to have once lived upon earth as mere mortals; and even Jupiter himself, the ruler of heaven, is represented by the mythologists as once a helpless child; and all the particulars, attending the birth and education of Juno, are recorded. In process of time, not only virtuous men, who had been the patrons of learning and the supporters of liberty, but also thieves and pirates, were admitted among the gods, and the Roman senate servilely granted immortality to the most cruel and worthless of their emperors.

*DIJAMBUS*, in Latin poetry, the foot of a verse of four syllables; it is compounded of two iambics, as *sēvēritas*.

*DIJON*, or *DIGON*, an ancient and handsome city of France, a bishop's see, in the department of the Cote d'Or and ci-devant province of Burgundy. It has a university which has long been among the most celebrated and best regulated in France. The public structures, and particularly the churches, are very fine. In front of the ci-devant Place Royale, is the ancient palace of the



grundy; and at the gates of Dijon is a church founded in 1383, in which are the recent tombs of those princes. The church, in the form of a horse-shoe, is the finest of the city. Among the churches are, that of St. Benigne, the spire to an elevation of 370 feet; the church of St. Stephen, now the cathedral; the church of Notre Dame, esteemed the best models of Gothic architecture in France; the old monastic institutions, as the Cistercian abbey, the origin of the order throughout Europe. Here is a church built by Louis XI. The streets are straight, and regular, and the houses in general are commodious; the population, of the suburbs, is 21,600. Here are manufactures of silk, cotton, and wool, the trade in which is much improved by the recent canal from this place to St. Jean de la Vierge; great annual fairs are held here: June 14th, and November 10th, last of each. Dijon is built on an oval plain in a pleasant plain, which produces wine, between two small rivers, forty-four miles north-east of Autun, 100 miles north-east of 175 south-east of Paris; contains a university of theology, philosophy, mathematics, German, history, rhetoric, eloquence, poetry. Here are also a drawing-school, 4000 volumes, a museum of paintings, gravings, and a theatre. The academy was founded in 1725. Among the characters of Dijon, may be mentioned Bossuet, and the poets Piron. It has several public gardens, which the most frequented are the

**DILATION**, *n. s.* Lat. *dijudicatio*. A prolongation.

*s.* Goth and Swed. *dike*; Saxon, *dike*; Fr. *digue*; from Gr. *τειχος*; Heb. *dykes* or mound. A boundary of lands, and often by embankments on either side of a channel for water.

breaks up the flood-gates of so great a city, all the art and industry of man is not able to rise up *dykes* and ramparts against it.

*Cowley.*  
The river is filled, and with a roaring sound  
The waters float the nether ground.

*Dryden's Virgil.*  
[*dykes*! than whom no sluice of mud  
Can blot the silver flood.

*Pope's Dunciad.*  
notes also a ditch or drain, made for the purpose of waters. The word seems formed from *to dig*; though others derive it from *dyk*, or *dyke*, a dam, sea-bank,

*dyke*, is a work of stone, timber, or masonry, to oppose the entrance or passage of waters of the sea, a river, lake, or the like.

**DILACERATE**, *v. a.* Lat. *dilacero*. To tear; to rend; to

The infant, at the accomplished period, struggling to come forth, *dilacerates* and breaks those parts which restrained him before. *Brounck's Vulgar Errors.*

The greatest sensation of pain is by the obstruction of the small vessels, and *dilaceration* of the nervous fibres. *Arbuthnot.*

**DILANIATE**, *v. a.* Lat. *dilanio*. To tear; to rend in pieces.

Rather than they would *dilaniate* the entrails of their own mother, and expose her thereby to be ravished, they met half way in a gallant kind.

*Howel's Eng. Tears.*

**DILAPIDATE**, *v. n.* Lat. *dilapido*. To waste. **DILAPIDATION**, *n. s.* } go to ruin; to fall by decay. The incumbent's suffering the chancel, or any other edifices of his ecclesiastical living, to go to ruin or decay, by neglecting to repair the same: it likewise extends to his committing, or suffering to be committed, any wilful waste in or upon the glebe-woods, or any other inheritance of the church. (*Ayliffe's Parergon*.) This word has also been applied generally of late.

'Tis the duty of all church-wardens to prevent the *dilapidations* of the chancel and mansion-house belonging to the rector or vicar. *Ayliffe.*

**DILATE**, *v. a. & v. n.* Fr. *dilater*; Span. *dilatar*; Ital. & Lat. *dilatere*, from *de* and *latus*; Gr. *πλαιο*, to broaden, from Heb.

**וַיִּפְּחַ**, to set at large. To extend; spread out; enlarge; hence to relate at length or diffusely: as a neuter verb, to widen; speak largely. *Dilatation* is admitting of extension. *Dilatation*, the act of extending, or state of being extended.

But ye thereby much greater glory gate,  
Than had ye sorted with a prince's peer;  
For now your light doth more itself dilate,  
And in my darkness greater doth appear.

*Spenser.*

But he would not endure that woful theam  
For to dilate at large. *Faerie Queene.*

Do me the favour to dilate at full  
What hath befallen of them, and thee, till now. *Shakespeare.*

Joy causeth a cheerfulness and vigour in the eyes; singing, leaping, dancing, and sometimes tears: all these are the effects of the *dilatation*, and coming forth of the spirits into the outward parts.

*Bacon's Natural History.*

It may be behoveful for princes, in matters of grace, to transact the same publicly, and by themselves; or their ministers to dilate upon it, and improve their lustre, by any addition or eloquence of speech. *Clarendon.*

Satan alarmed,  
Collecting all his might, dilated stood,  
Like Teneriff, or Atlas, unremoved. *Milton.*

The motions of the tongue, by contraction and dilatation, are so easy and so subtle, that you can hardly conceive or distinguish them aright. *Holder.*

We take notice of the wonderful dilatation or extensiveness of the gullets of serpents: I have taken two adult mice out of the stomach of an adder, whose neck was not bigger than my little finger. *Ray.*

Diffused, it rises in a higher sphere;  
Dilates its drops, and softens into air. *Prior.*



His heart *dilates* and glories in his strength,

Addison.

The second refraction would spread the rays one way as much as the first doth another, and so *dilate* the image in breadth as much as the first doth in length.

Newton.

The windpipe divides itself into a great number of branches called bronchia: these end in small air-bladders, *dilatable* and contractible, capable to be inflated by the admission of air, and to subside at the expulsion of it.

Arbutnot on Aliments.

The buccinators, or mowers up of the cheeks, and the *dilators* of the nose, are too strong in choleric people.

Id.

This fluid may possibly be the same with that which, being attracted by and entering into other more solid matter, *dilates* the substance, by separating the constituent particles, and so rendering some solids fluid, and maintaining the fluidity of others.

Franklin.

Here, there, he points his threatening front, to suit His first attack, wide waving to and fro His angry tail; red rolls his eyes, *dilated* glow.

Byron.

**DILATATION**, in physics, a motion of the parts o. any body, by which it is so expanded as to occupy a greater space. This expansive motion depends upon the elastic power of the body; whence it appears that dilatation is different from rarefaction, this last being produced by the means of heat.

**DILATORY PLEAS**, in law, are such as are put in merely for delay, and there may be a demurrer to a dilatory plea, or the defendant shall be ordered to plead better, &c. The truth of dilatory pleas is to be made out by affidavit of the fact, by stat. 4 and 5 Anne.

**DILATRIS**, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, and triandria class of plants: CAL. none: CON. has six petals, and is shaggy; the stigma simple. Species three; all natives of the Cape.

**DILATORY**, *adj.* Fr. *dilatoire*; Lat. *dilatatorius*. See **DILATE**. (For a dilatory person spreads or extends his work.) Slow; delaying; tardy.

These cardinals trifle with me: I abhor This *dilatory* sloth, and tricks of Rome.

Shakespeare. Henry VIII.

An inferior council, after former tedious suits in a higher court, would be but *dilatory*, and so to little purpose.

Hayward.

All promise is poor *dilatory* man, And that through every stage.

Young.

A *dilatory* temper commits innumerable cruelties without design.

Addison's Spectator.

**DILECTION**, *n. s.* Lat. *dilectio*. The act of loving; kindness.

So free is Christ's *dilection*, that the grand condition of our felicity is our belief.

Boyle's Seraphic Love.

**DILEMMA**. Fr. *dilemme*; Lat. *dilemma*; Gr. *διλημμα*, from *δις* and *λημμα*, an assumption, *δ λαμβανω*, to take. An argument or sophism capable, apparently, of two equally correct, but opposite conclusions.

A *dilemma*, that Morton used to raise benevolence, some called his fork, and some his crotch.

Bacon's Henry VII.

Quoth he, in all my past adventures I ne'er was set so on the tenters, Or taken tardy with *dilemma*, That every way I turn does hem me.

Ha

Hope, whose weak being ruined is Alike if it succeed, and if it miss; Whom good or ill does equally confound, And both the horns of fate's *dilemma* wound.

O

A dire *dilemma*; either way I'm sped; If foes they write, if friends they read, me

**DILIGENCE**, *n. s.* Fr. *diligent*; **DILIGENT**, *adj.* } Port., and Ita

**DILIGENTLY**, *adv.* } *gênte*; Lat. *diligens*. Industry stancy in business; continued application. Hence a name, not seldom misapplied, to coaches.

Seest thou a man *diligent* in his business, I stand before kings.

Prov. 22

Brethren, give *diligence* to make your call election sure.

2 Pet.

Still when she slept he kept both watch and And when she wakt he wayted *diligent*, With humble service to her will prepared.

Spenser. Faerie Queene

If you inquire not attentively and *diligent* shall never be able to discern a number of motions.

But the power of nature is only the power to any certain purpose the materials which it procures, or opportunity supplies.

J

Now, who would have suspected your friend Prim of an indiscretion? Yet such is the case of people, that they say her uncle stopped her week, just as she was stepping into the York with her dancing master.

SA

**DILL**, *n. s.* Sax. *dile*; Pers. *dilec*, firm the heart, a cordial. It hath a slender, annual root; the leaves are like those of the seeds are oval, plain, streaked, and dered.

*Dill* is raised of seed, which is ripe in August.

M

**DILLEMBURG**, or **DILLENBURG**, a town of Germany, in Westphalia, and capital of Dillenburg, situated on the Dille. Near furnace for the smelting of copper. The reign of this town was added to the duke of Berg, by the late treaty of conference between the states of the Rhine. It is 10 miles north-west of Wetzlar. Long. 8° lat. 50° 36' N.

**DILLINGEN**, a neat town of Bavaria left bank of the Danube, with a university. The bishop of Augsburg resided formerly, and it is still a bishop's see. It contains a chapter and three convents; formerly a county; the princes of which were powerful. Near this town Louis XVI. was killed at, and wounded in the forehead, by an unknown assassin, July 12th, 1796. P. 3120. It is twenty-three miles north of Augsburg and twenty-four north-east of Dillingen.

**DILLENIA**, in botany, a genus of the gynia order, and polyandria class of CAL. pentaphyllous; the petals five: an



olyspermous, coalited and full of pulp.  
ght; all Indian plants.

NIUS (John James), an eminent bo-  
n at Darmstadt in Germany, in 1687,  
ted at the university of Gießen. He  
l several curious papers to the *Mis-  
uriosa*, and, in 1721, accompanied Dr.  
England, where he spent the re-  
f his days. Soon after his arrival he  
a new edition of Ray's *Synopsis  
Britannicarum*. He was appointed  
otanical professor at Oxford, on Dr.  
foundation, and in 1735 the univer-  
ted him to the degree of M. D. He  
47. He published an elaborate work,  
ortus Elthamensis, and also a History

N (Wentworth), earl of Roscommon, a  
et of celebrity, was the son of James,  
scommon, by a sister of the earl of

Though born in Ireland (in 1633) he  
is education at lord Strafford's seat in  
and finally entered the Protestant  
of Caen in Normandy, under the ce-  
ochart. After travelling into Italy he  
oon after the Restoration, to England,  
ade captain of the band of pensioners.  
ined his estate by gaming; and, being  
so in quarrels, he returned to Ireland,  
property lay. Here, however, he fol-  
rly the same course as in England,  
arriage with a daughter of the earl of  
He now appears to have cultivated  
to have reformed himself. He pro-  
ong other modes of promoting literature,  
y for improving and fixing the English  
but the scheme was never accom-  
On the accession of James II. he  
y, and took up his residence at Rome,  
fied of the gout in 1684. Lord Ros-  
was not a voluminous writer, his prin-  
being a poetical Essay on Translated  
which he lays down the rules that  
overn translations. Other poems of  
are translations of Horace's *Art of  
Virgil's sixth Eclogue*, of the *Dies Iræ*,  
in *Pastor Fido*, &c. Dr. Johnson calls  
ost correct writer of English verse be-  
m; and Pope has said of him, address-  
of rather different character,  
py Dryden! in all Charles's days,  
amon only boasts unspotted lays.

DATE, *v. a.* } From Lat. *diluci-*  
adj. } dare. To make clear,  
TION, *n. s.* } or plain; to explain;  
n obscurity.  
not extenuate, but explain and *dilucidate*,  
the custom of the ancients.

*Broune's Vulgar Errors.*

E', *v. a. & adj.* } From Lat. *diluo*,  
n. s. } de and *luo*, Gr. *λυω*  
(Heb. כלל, to waste)  
to wash. To make  
fluid-like; to weaken; make vapid.  
the act of making thin or weak,  
so made.

a large dose of *diluted* tea, as she was  
a physician, she got to bed. *Loche.*

If the red and blue colours were more *dilute* and  
weak, the distance of the images would be less than  
an inch; and if they were more intense and full, that  
distance would be greater. *Newton.*

Water is the only *diluter*, and the best dissolvent  
of most of the ingredients of our aliment.

*Arbuthnot on Aliments.*

There is no real *diluent* but water: every fluid is  
*diluent*, as it contains water in it. *Id.*

Opposite to *dilution* is coagulation, or thickening,  
which is performed by dissipating the most liquid  
parts by heat, or by insinuating some substances,  
which make the parts of the fluid cohere mor-  
strongly. *Id.*

DILUVIAN, *adj.* From Lat. *diluvium*, de and  
*luo*, to wash. Relating to the deluge.

Suppose that this *diluvian* lake should rise to the  
mountain tops in one place, and not diffuse itself  
equally into all countries about. *Burnet's Theory.*

DIM, *v. a. & adj.* } Goth. *dimma*; Sax. *dim-*  
DIM'ISH, *adj.* } me; Swed. *dimm*; Welsh  
DIM'ISHLY, *adv.* } dy; Erse *dow*. According  
DIM'ISHNESS, *n. s.* } to Minshew from *deimos*,  
fear, because the dark occasions fear. To be-  
cloud; darken; make less bright, or obscure: as an  
adjective, somewhat dark; and hence not seeing  
clearly; dull. Dimish is a diminutive of dim.

When Isaac was old his eyes were *dim* that he could  
not see. *Gen. xxvii. 1.*

The statu of Mars began his hauberke ring,  
And with that sound he herd a murmuring  
Full low and *dym*, that saied, 'Victory!'

*Chaucer.*

And her fair eyes, like stars that *dimmed* were  
With darksome cloud, now shew their goodly beams.  
*Spenser.*

As where the Almighty's lightning brand does  
light,  
It *dims* the dazed eyen, and daunts the senses  
quite. *Id. Faerie Queene.*

All of us have cause  
To wail the *dimming* of our shining star.  
*Shakespeare. Richard III.*

It hath been observed by the ancients, that much  
use of Venus doth *dim* the sight; and yet eunuchs  
which are unable to generate, are nevertheless also  
*dim* sighted. *Bacon.*

Thus while he spake, each passion *dimmed* his face,  
Thrice changed. *Milton.*

Unspeakable! who sittest above these heavens,  
To us invisible, or *dimly* seen,  
In these thy lowest works *Id.*

In the beginning of our pumping the air, the match  
appeared well lighted, though it had almost filled the  
receiver with fumes; but by degrees burnt more and  
more *dimly*. *Boyle's Spring of the Air.*

The principal figure in a picture is like a king  
among his courtiers, who *dim* all his attendants.  
*Dryden.*

Every one declares against blindness, and yet who  
almost is not fond of that which *dims* his sight?  
*Locke.*

'Tis true, but let it not be known,  
My eyes are somewhat *dimish* grown;  
For nature, always in the right,  
To your decays adapts my sight. *Swift.*

For thee I *dim* these eyes, and stuff this head,  
With all such reading as was never read.  
*Pope's Dunciad.*



Add to all these improvements backwards another modern fancy, that *grey* printing is more beautiful than black. Hence the English new books are printed in so *dim* a character, as to be read with difficulty by old eyes, unless in a very strong light, and with good glasses.

Franklin.

But when the fading eye grows *dim*,  
And fails each faint and wasted limb,  
And short and frequent pantings show  
The sad disease that lurks below.

Bowdler.

I linger yet with Nature, for the night  
Hath been to me a more familiar face  
Than that of man; and in her starry shade  
Of *dim* and solitary loveliness,

I learned the language of another world.

Byron.

**DIMACHÆ**; from *δίς*, double, and *μαχῶ*, I fight; in antiquity, a kind of horsemen, first instituted by Alexander. Their armour was lighter than that of the infantry, and at the same time heavier than that used by horsemen, so that they could act as horse or foot as occasion required.

**DIMCHURCH**, or **DINCHURCH**, a village of England, in Kent, situated by the side of a strong dyke, called Dimchurch Wall, between Romney and Hythe, made to prevent the encroachments of the sea, with a road on the top which is mostly wide enough for carriages to pass each other. Here are kept the records of the Romney Marsh; and the court is held here by the lords of the Marsh and the members of the corporation, to regulate all affairs concerning it. It is four miles and a half N. N. E. of New Romney, and four and a half S. S. W. of Hythe.

**DIMENSION**, *n. s.* } Fr. and Span. *dim-*

**DIMENSIONLESS**, *adj.* } *mension*; Ital. *dimen-*

**DIMENSIVE**. } *sione*; Lat. *dimensio*;

*de* and *mensio*, from *metior*, Gr. *μετρώ*, to measure. Extent; capacity; solid contents. Dimensionless is used by Milton for without bulk. Dimensive is marking the boundary or dimensions.

Wherefore base

When my *dimensions* are as well compact,  
My mind as generous, and my shape as true,  
As honest Madam's issue?

Shakspeare.

All bodies have their measure, and their space  
But who can draw the soul's *dimensive* lines?

Davies.

In they passed

*Dimensionless* through heavenly doors.

Milton.

My gentleman was measuring my walls, and taking  
the *dimensions* of the room.

Swift.

To judge rightly of our own worth, we should retire  
a little from the world, to see its pleasures, and pains  
too, in their proper size and *dimensions*.

Sterne.

Thus mingled still with wealth and state,

Crusus himself can never know;

His true *dimensions* and his weight

Are far inferior to their show.

Watts.

**DIMENSION**, in geometry, is either length, breadth, or thickness; hence a line has one dimension, viz. length; a superficies two, viz. length and breadth; and a body or solid has three, viz. length, breadth, and thickness.

**DIMICATION**, *n. s.* Lat. *dimicatio*. A battle; the act of fighting; contest.

**DIMIDIATION**, *n. s.* Lat. *dimidiatio*. The act of halving; division into two equal parts.

**DIMINISH**, *v. a. a. & n.*

**DIMINISHINGLY**, *adj.*

**DIMINU'TION**, *n. s.*

**DIMINUTIVE**, *n. s. & adj.*

**DIMINUTIVELY**, *adv.*

**DIMINUTIVENESS**, *n. s.*

less; to impair; take from in any way; as a neuter verb, to grow less; be impaired. Diminutive, as a substantive diminutiveness, express littleness. Dim also means, that makes little; any thing

Ye shall not add unto the word which I say, neither shall you *diminish* ought from it.

Deut.

The poor wren,

The most *diminutive* of birds, will fight,  
Her young ones in her nest, against the owl.

Shakspeare.

Follow his chariot; monster-like, be slow  
For poor'st *diminutives*, for doits!

Shak.

The one is not capable of any *diminution* or variation at all by men; the other apt to admit

He afterwards proved a dainty and all youth, was commonly called, by the *diminutive* name, Peterkin or Perkin.

Bacon's Hist.

Make me wise by thy truth, for my own salvation, and I shall not regard the world's *diminution* of me.

King.

Impiously they thought

Thee to *diminish*, and from thee withdraw  
The number of thy worshippers.

O thou that with surpassing glory crown'st  
Look'st from thy sole dominion like the God  
Of this new world; at whose sight all the  
Hide their *diminished* heads.

Sim, while but Sim, in good repute did  
Was then a knave, but in *diminutive*.

What judgment I had, increases rather than  
*diminishes*; and thoughts, such as they are, come  
in so fast upon me, that my only difficulty is  
or to reject.

The light of man's understanding is but  
*diminutive*, contracted light, and looks not to be  
present.

Finite and infinite seem to be looked upon  
modes of quantity, and to be attributed precisely  
those things which are capable of increase or  
tion.

I never heard him censure, or so much  
*diminishingly*, of any one that was absent.

The gravitating power of the sun is to  
through the vast bodies of the planets with  
*diminution*, so as to act upon all their parts  
very centres, with the same force, and not  
the same laws, as if the part upon which it  
not surrounded with the body of the planet.

They know how weak and awkward many  
little *diminutive* discourses are.

Crete's ample fields *diminish* to our eyes  
Before the Boreal blasts the vessels fly.

Pope's

Security *diminishes* the passions; the man  
left to itself, immediately languishes.

Check then the solicitations of the flesh;  
to do nothing that may *diminish* thy native  
dishonour thy high original, or degrade  
nature.



ith what pleasure have we just discerned  
plough, slow moving, and beside  
team, that swerved not from the track,  
swain diminished to a boy. *Cowper.*

SORY, *adj.* Lat. *dimissorius*. That  
man is dismissed to another jurisdic-

of another diocese ought neither to ordain  
clerk, without the consent of his own pro-  
and without the letters *dimissory*.

*Ayliffe.*

RY LETTERS, *literæ dimissoriae*, in the  
a letter given by a bishop to a candi-  
ly orders, having a title in his diocese,  
some other bishop, and giving leave  
er to be ordained by him. When a  
duces letters of ordination or tonsure,  
any other than his own diocesan, he  
same time produce the letters dimis-  
by his own bishop, on pain of nullity.  
missory cannot be given by the chapter,  
e; this being deemed an act of volun-  
tation, which ought to be reserved to  
or.

Y, *n. s.* A fine kind of fustian, or cloth

a trowze of fine *dimity*. *Wiseman.*

E, *n. s. & v. n.* } Dint, a hole; din-  
n, *adj.* } tie, a little hole; by  
, *adv.* } a careless pronun-  
dimple, says Skinner. A small hol-  
pression, often applied to the face.

On each side her  
ty dimpled boys like smiling cupids,  
*Shakespeare.*

impled brook, and fountain brim,  
od-nymphs decked with daisies trim  
erry wakes and pastimes keep:  
ath night to do with sleep? *Milton.*

waves mastered him, and sucked him in,  
eddies dimpled on the main. *Dryden.*

se smooth surface of the dimply flood  
ver-slippered virgin lightly trod.

*Warton's Isis.*

her forehead's fair half round,  
sits in open triumph crowned;  
the dimple of her chin,  
ivate state, by friends is seen. *Prior.*

e [laugh] is practised to give a grace to  
and is frequently made a bait to entangle  
r. *Steele.*

How frail is Beauty's bloom!  
dimpled cheek—the sparkling eye—  
e seen, before their wonders fly  
To decorate a tomb. *Robinson.*

ITE; from *ḍia*, and *μωρῶς*, to di-  
me given to the Apollinarists, who at  
at Christ only assumed a human body  
ing a reasonable soul; but, being at  
vinced by texts of Scripture, they al-  
he did assume a soul, but without  
ing, the Word supplying that faculty.  
way of separating the understanding  
ul they were denominated *Dimæritæ*,  
rs.

UC, a town of European Turkey, in  
with a Greek archbishop's see. It is  
a mountain surrounded by the river  
.. VII.

Meriza, twelve miles south-west of Adrianople  
Long. 26° 15' E., lat. 41° 35' N.

DIMSDALE (Thomas), a celebrated English  
physician, the son of a surgeon at Theydon Gar-  
non in Essex, where he was born in 1712. He  
studied some time at St. Thomas's Hospital,  
London; and, about 1734, commenced practi-  
tioner at Hertford. In 1745 he accompanied the  
army under the duke of Cumberland as assistant  
surgeon, and continued in that capacity till Car-  
lisle had surrendered to the royal army, when he  
returned to Hertford. In 1761 he took the de-  
gree of M. D., commenced physician, and became  
celebrated by his successful mode of inoculating  
for the small pox. He published a treatise on it  
in 1767, which was quickly translated, and cir-  
culated all over the continent. His fame as a  
skilful practitioner occasioned his being invited  
to Russia to inoculate the empress Catherine  
and her son, in 1768, for which he was appointed  
counsellor of state and physician to her imperial  
majesty, with an annuity of £500: he was at the  
same time created a baron of the Russian empire,  
and the same title was conferred on his son. At  
Moscow he inoculated also a considerable num-  
ber of the people; but refused the invitation of  
the empress to reside in Russia as her physician,  
and after being admitted, at Sans Souci, to a pri-  
vate audience of Frederic II. king of Prussia, he  
returned to England. In 1780 he was elected  
M. P. for the borough of Hertford; upon which  
he declined his practice, except for the relief  
of the poor. In 1781 he again visited Russia to  
inoculate the late emperor Alexander and his  
brother, in which he experienced the same success  
as before. On his resignation, in 1790, his son  
Nathanael was elected representative of the  
borough of Hertford. Baron Dimsdale died at  
Hertford, after a short illness, in 1800.

DIN, *v. a. & n. s.* Sax. *dȳn*, from *dȳnan*, to  
make a noise; Ice *dyna*, to thunder. To sun  
with a noise; stupify; overpower with clamor;  
the noise made.

And all the way he roared as he went,  
That all the forest with astonishment  
Thereof did tremble, and the beasts therein  
Fled fast away from that so dreadful din.

*Hubbard's Tale.*

O, 'twas a din to fright a monster's ear;  
To make an earthquake: sure, it was the roar  
Of a whole herd of lions.

*Shakespeare.*

Now night, over heaven  
Inducing darkness, grateful truce imposed,  
And silence on the odious din of war.

*Milton.*

Rather live  
To bait thee for his bread, and din your ears  
With hungry cries.

*Otway.*

Some independent ideas, of no alliance to one ano-  
ther, are, by education, custom, and the constant din of  
their party, so coupled in their minds, that they always  
appear there together, and they can no more separate  
them in their thoughts than if they were but one idea,  
and they operate as if they were so.

*Locke.*

What shall we do if his majesty puts out a  
proclamation commanding us to take Wood's half-  
pence? This hath been often dinned in my ears.

*Swift.*

Nature's eye is melancholy  
O'er the city high and holy:

S



But without there is a *din*  
Should arouse the' saints within,  
And revive the heroic ashes  
Round which yellow Tiber dashes. *Byron.*

**DINAGEPORE**, a district of Bengal, situated between the twenty-fifth and twenty-sixth degrees of northern latitude. It is bounded on the north and west by Purneah, on the east by Rungpore and Ghoragot, and on the south by Bettooriah. The soil is much diversified, and the general face of the country is divided into small valleys of two or three miles broad. These are watered by rivers, which, in the rainy seasons, inundate the low lands and swell into large lakes fifty or sixty miles long, till the falling of the Ganges permits the water to retire, after which these lowlands are covered with luxuriant pasture, and are capable of producing abundant crops of rice. The soil does not answer for grain, but indigo, tobacco, and hemp are cultivated successfully. It is on the whole, however, one of the poorest districts of Bengal. Three-fourths of the inhabitants are Hindoos.

**DINAGEPORE**, or Rajgunge, the capital of the above district, is situated on an island formed by the Pernabubah, and is the residence of the rajah. It is a considerable place of trade.

**DINAH**; Heb. דִּינָה, i. e. judgment; the only daughter of the patriarch Jacob. Her misfortune with the prince of Shechem; his honorable proposal of repairing the injury by marriage; and the prevention of the fulfilment of his generous intention by the treachery and barbarity of her bloody brethren, Simeon and Levi, are recorded in Gen. xxxiv. See **LEVI**.

**DINAN**, or **DINANT**, a town of the department of the Cotes du Nord, Brittany, containing manufactures of cotton, linen, and flannel, and about 4200 inhabitants. It is surrounded with walls, and has an old castle, situated on the river Rance, a few miles from the sea. The small harbour is about thirteen miles south of St. Malo.

**DINAPORE**, a town, or rather a military cantonment, belonging to the British, situated on the southern bank of the river Ganges, in the province of Bahar, eleven miles and a half west of the city of Patna, for the defence of which it was constructed, in the year 1767. It consists of two handsome brick squares that will contain 1200 men, and superior barracks for the European officers. 'The officers,' says Mr. Hamilton, 'have more accommodations than in any barracks in England; and the private soldiers of the European regiments are provided with large and well aired apartments. The native soldiers are quartered in small huts, which to them is no hardship. The magazine built by Mr. Hastings has had £15,000 expended on it. In the vicinity is an excellent house in the European style, built by the soudah Ali, nabob of Oude.

**DINDIGUL**, or **DANDIGALA**, a district in the south of India, situated between the tenth and eleventh degrees of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by Coimbatore and Kistnagherry, on the east by the Polygar territory and Madura, on the south by Travancor and Madura, and on the west by Travancor, Cochin, and Malabar. The principal rivers are the

Noil and the Amravati; and the chief Dindigul, Balny, and Palapetty. Part of the habitants are here in the enjoyment of a portion of land, rent free, and the hereditary of the rest. This district was ceded to the British by Tippoo, in 1792, and, together with Madura, the Manapara Pollams, Rannad, and vagunga, now forms one of the collectories of the Madras presidency. The Dindigul tracts and sequestered pollams have been converted into forty zemindaries.

**DINDIGUL**, the capital of the district same name, in southern India; has a situation on a strong rock, in the midst of which is bounded on the west by the great range of mountains which separates it from the Malabar, and on the east by a lower range which runs between it and the district of Madura. This place was taken in 1755 by the British, and by the British army in 1783, but restored to Tippoo at the peace of 1784. Travelling distance from Seringapatam 198 miles, from Madras 275 miles.

**DINDYMA**, or **DINDYMUS**, a mountain ridge, allotted by many to Phrygia. It mentions two mountains of this name, Mysia, near Cyzicus, the other in Galatia near Pessinus, and none in Phrygia. It extends this ridge from the borders of Mysia through Phrygia to Gallogrecia: though, before, there were two mountains called Dindymus in particular, both sacred to the mother-gods, and none of them in Phrygia. May there might be several hills and eminences, on which this goddess was worshipped, therefore called Dindyma in general.

**DINE**, *v. a. & v. n.* } Fr. *diner*, to dine.  
**DINING-ROOM**, *n. s.* } day-meal, from  
**DIN'NER**, } *dagman*, a day.  
**DIN'NER-TIME**. } **DAY**. To give  
or principal, meal to. To feed; to eat.  
The dining-room, dinner, and dinner-time  
this country well understood.

Pernaps some merchant hath invited him,  
And from the mart he's somewhere gone to dine.  
Good sister let us *dine*, and never fret. *Shak.*

At dinner-time,

I pray you have in mind where we must dine.

He would *dine* with him the next day. *Shak.*

Before dinner and supper, as often as it is convenient, or can be had, let the public prayer church, or some parts of them, be said public family.

The apartments within were very splendid, especially the *dining-room*; and many other of them were well adorned with mouldings and some of whose marble clavins were so delicate that they would reflect an object true and in a great distance. *Fuller. Worthies of*

Boil this restoring root in generous wine  
And set beside the door the sickly stock

Thus, of your heroes and brave boys  
With whom old Homer makes such noise  
The greatest actions I can find,  
Are, that they did their work and *dine*.



the mint walks forth the man of rhyme,  
th me just at dinner-time. *Pope.*

in carcasses of every kind,  
a man hath elegantly dined. *Gay.*

**CAL**, *adj.* Διερρηκός. Whirling  
(ginous).

ate have concluded, from spots in the  
pear and disappear again, that, besides  
it maketh with its orbs, it hath also a  
n, and rolls upon its own poles.

*Broune's Vulgar Errors.*

figure is most commodious for dinetical  
olution upon its own axis. *Ray.*

Goth. *denga*; Sax. *dengan*; Dutch  
beat about. To dash violently; to  
nce.

us all ring fancy's knell;  
deng bell. *Shakespeare.*

d *dings*, because we will not spend the  
left, to get him the title of lord Strut.  
*Arbutnot.*

**FINGEN**, a well-built old town of  
ria, situated on the Iser, in the  
Danube, and containing 2080 in-  
It is divided into the upper and  
; the former standing on a steep  
communicating with the hills by a  
queduct. It is eighteen miles north-  
shut, and forty-eight north-east of

, *n. s.* From Sax. *den*, or *ðin*, a  
hollow between hills; a dale.

ach lane, and every alley green,  
ushy dell of this wild wood;  
ry bosky bourn from side to side,  
alks and ancient neighbourhood.

*Milton.*

n geography, a sea-port of Ireland,  
unster, seated on the north side of  
rmerly a place of great trade, parti-  
Spain. Several of the houses are  
spanish fashion, with ranges of stone  
dows. It is a borough, and sent  
rs to the Irish parliament. It is  
miles W.S.W. of Tralee, and 166

**ALL**, an ancient and flourishing  
h, in the county of Ross, Scotland,  
king Alexander II., in 1226. Its  
at date was confirmed and renewed  
, and the inhabitants empowered to  
st, two baillies, dean of guild, trea-  
m counsellors. It joins with Kirk-  
Dornoch, and Tain, in sending a  
e to the British parliament. From  
of some old causeways, Dingwall  
ave been anciently much more ex-  
it is now. The ruins of its castle  
be seen, consisting of 'stones so  
ented with mortar that it is easier to  
d rock than to separate those of  
omposed.' It was surrounded with  
, and a regular glacis remains. The  
n much enlarged and improved, and  
le inland trade is carried on in it  
een miles west of Crohnarty, and is  
Frith.

**DINOCRATES**, a celebrated architect of Ma-  
cedonia, who rebuilt the temple of Ephesus,  
when burnt by Erostratus, with much more  
magnificence than before. Vitruvius informs us,  
that Dinocrates proposed to Alexander the Great  
to convert mount Athos into the figure of a man,  
whose left hand should contain a walled city,  
and all the rivers of the mount flow into his right,  
and from thence into the sea! He also conceived  
a scheme for building the dome of the temple of  
Arsinoe at Alexandria, of loadstone, that should,  
by its attraction, uphold her iron image in the  
centre, suspended in the air.

**DINT**, *v. a. & n. s.* Sax. *ðynt*; Goth. *dunt*, a  
blow; a stroke. To give a blow that marks or in-  
dents: the blow given; force.

Much daunted with that *dint*, her sense was dazed;  
Yet, kindling rage, herself she gathered round.

*Spenser.*

A gentle knight was pricking on the plaine  
Ycladd in mighty arms and silver shielde,  
Wherein old *dints* of deepe wounds did remaine,  
The cruel marks of many 'a bloody fieelde.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

Leave, leave, fair bride, your solitary bone,  
No more shall you return to it alone;  
It nurseth sadness; and your body's print,  
Like to a grave, the yielding down doth *dint*.

*Donne.*

Now you weep; and I perceive you feel  
The *dint* of pity. *Shakespeare. Julius Cæsar.*

Neither vainly hope

To be invulnerable in these bright arms,  
Though tempered heavenly; for that mortal *dint*,  
Save he who reigns above, none can resist.

*Milton.*

Deep-dinted wrinkles on her cheeks she draws;  
Sunk are her eyes, and toothless are her jaws.

*Dryden's Æneid.*

We are to wrest the whole Spanish monarchy out  
of the hands of the enemy; and, in order to it, to  
work our way into the heart of his country by *dint* of  
arms. *Addison.*

Fast by the rock, all menacing but mute,  
He stood; and save a light beat of his foot,  
Which deepened now and then the sandy *dint*  
Beneath his heel, his form seemed turned to flint.

*Byron.*

**DINUMERATION**, *n. s.* Lat. *dinumeratio*.  
The act of numbering out singly.

**DIO**, surnamed Chrysostom, (golden mouth), a  
celebrated orator and philosopher of Greece, in  
the first century, born at Prusa, in Bithynia. He  
attempted to persuade Vespasian to quit the em-  
pire; and Domitian was so offended at his free-  
dom of speech that he would have put him to  
death had he not fled into Thrace. After the  
death of that tyrant Dio returned to Rome, and  
acquired the esteem of Trajan, who made him  
ride with him in his triumphal chariot. There  
are still extant eighty of Dio's Orations, and  
some other of his works,—the best edition of  
which is that of Samuel Raimarus, in 1750,  
in folio.

**DIOCESS**, *n. s.*

**DIOCESAN**, *n. s. & adj.* } Gr. *δια*, and *οικησις*,  
} or see the article fol-  
lowing. The circuit of a bishop's jurisdiction:  
diocesan is the bishop administering therein.

None ought to be admitted by any bishop, but such  
as have dwelt and remained in his *diocess* a con-  
venient time. *Whitgift.*



One younger man amongst the rest would take upon him to defend that every *diocesan* bishop was pope. I answered him with some scorn.

*Bp. Hall's Hard Measure.*

Although he (the bishop) had not all the *diocess* actually in communion and subjection, yet his charge, his *diocess* was so much. Just as with the Apostles, to whom Christ gave all the world for a *diocess*, yet at first they had but a small congregation. *Bishop Taylor.*

I have heard it has been advised by a *diocesan* to his inferior clergy, that they should read some of the most celebrated sermons printed by others.

*Tatler.*

This realm has two divisions, one into shires or counties, in respect of temporal policy; another into *dioceses*, in respect of jurisdiction ecclesiastical.

*Cowell.*

Oblige him to a longer residence in his *diocese* than is usually practised, that he may do the proper work of a bishop; that he may direct and inspect the flock of Christ; confirm the unstable, reclaim the reprobate, &c.

*Bishop Watson.*

DIOCESE is also used in ancient authors for the province of a metropolitan. Diocesis meant, originally, a civil government, composed of divers provinces. The first division of the empire into dioceses is ordinarily ascribed to Constantine, who distributed the whole Roman state into four: viz. those of Italy, Illyria, the east, and Africa. And yet, long before Constantine, Strabo, who wrote under Tiberius, takes notice (lib. xiii. p. 432) that the Romans had divided Asia into dioceses; and complains of the confusion such a division occasioned in geography, Asia being no longer divided by people, but by dioceses, each of which had a tribunal or court, where justice was administered. Constantine, then, was only the institutor of those large dioceses which comprehended several metropolises and governments; the former dioceses only comprehending one jurisdiction, or the country under one judge, as appears from this passage in Strabo, as well as from Cicero himself; lib. iii. epist. ad famil. 9. and lib. xiii. ep. 67. Thus, at first, a province included diverse dioceses; and afterwards a diocese came to comprise divers provinces. In after times the Roman empire became divided into thirteen dioceses or prefectures; though, including Rome and the suburbs, there were fourteen. These fourteen dioceses comprehended 120 provinces; each province had a proconsul, who resided in the capital; and each diocese of the empire had a consul, who resided in the principal city of the district. On this civil constitution the ecclesiastical one was afterwards regulated: each diocese had an ecclesiastical vicar or primate, whose judgment determined all the concerns of the church within his territory. At present diocese is confined to a single province, under a metropolitan, or more commonly to the single jurisdiction of a bishop. Brito affirms diocese to be properly the territory and extent of a baptismal or parochial church; whence the word is used by divers authors to signify a simple parish.

DIOCLEIA, Διοκλεία, in antiquity, a solemnity kept in the spring, at Megara, in memory of the Athenian hero, who died in the defence of the youth he loved.

DIOCLESIANUS (Caius Valerius) was a celebrated Roman emperor, born of a secure family in Dalmatia, in 245. He was a common soldier, and by merit and success gradually rose to the office of a general; the death of Numerian, in 284, was in conjunction with imperial power. In this high station he rewarded the fidelity of Maximian, who shared with him all the subordinate offices of the army, by making him his colleague on the throne. He created two subordinate emperors, Constantius and Galerius, by the title of Cæsars, whilst he claimed for himself and his co-emperor the superior title of Augustus. Dioclesian was celebrated for his military virtues, though he was not polished by education; nevertheless, a patron of learning. He was resolute, and active; but his cruelty towards Christians has been deservedly branded with infamy. After he had reigned twenty-two years in the greatest prosperity, he publicly abdicated the crown at Nicomedia, in 305, and retired to a private station at Salona. Maximian, his colleague, was compelled to follow his example, and when he, some time after, endeavoured to rouse the ambition of Dioclesian and persuade him to re-assume the imperial purple, he refused for answer, that Dioclesian took now more pleasure in cultivating his little garden, than he formerly enjoyed in a palace, when his power extended over all the earth. He lived nine years after his abdication in the greatest tranquillity and enjoyment at Salona, and died in 314, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. His persecution of the Christians forms a chronological era, the era of Dioclesian, or of the Martyrs. It is long used in theological writings, and is followed by the Copts and Abyssinians. It commenced August 29th, A. D. 284.

DIOCTAHEDRIA, in natural history, a genus of pellucid and crystalliform sponges, composed of two octangular pyramids, joined at the base, without any intermediate column. Of some have long pyramids, others short and sharp-pointed ones, and others short and pointed ones; the two former species are found in the Hartz, and the last in the coast of Cornwall.

DIODATI (John), a Protestant divine, professor of theology at Geneva, who was at Lucca in 1579, and died at Geneva in 1609. He is distinguished by his translations of the Bible into Italian, with notes, Geneva, 4to. This work is, however, rather a paraphrase than a translation, and the notes, divine questions more than critical reflections. 2. Bible into French, Geneva, 1644; and Father Paul's History of the Council of Trent into French.

DIODIA, in botany, a genus of the Umbellifera order, and tetrandria class of plants. It is the forty-seventh, stellate; corolla monophyllous and funnel-shaped; caps. bilocular and immovably. Species six, natives of the West Indies and of Mexico.

DIODON, the sun-fish, in ichthyology, a genus belonging to the order of branchiostomes. There are three species: viz.

1. *D. trystrix*, or the globe-fish, com-



pe and South Carolina. The form of the is usually oblong; but when alarmed it has the power of inflating the belly to a globular form of great size. This seems designed as a means of defence against fish of prey, as they are less means of laying hold of it, and are less terrified by the numerous spines with which that part is armed, and which the animal erects on every part. The mouth is small; sides white, tinged with red; the back, from head to tail, almost straight, or at least very slightly elevated, of a rich deep blue color. It is pectoral, but wants the ventral fins: the dorsal almost even, divided by an angular process in the middle; tail and fins brown. The head and sides are white, shagreened, or wrinkled, beset with innumerable small sharp spines, arising to the skin by four processes.

*D. mola*, or the short sun-fish, differs from the oblong, in being much shorter and deeper. The dorsal and anal fins are higher, and the pectorals to the gills not semilunar, but oval. The situation of the fins is the same in both. Several kinds are taken on the western coasts of the Mediterranean kingdom, but in much greater numbers in warmer parts of Europe.

*D. oblongus*, the oblong sun-fish, grows to a great bulk: one examined by Sylvianus was nearly 100 pounds in weight; and Dr. Borlase mentions another taken at Plymouth in 1734, which weighed 500. In form it resembles a bream, the deep fish cut in the middle. The mouth is very small, and contains in each jaw two small teeth, with sharp edges. The eyes are large; before each is a small semilunar aperture. The pectoral fins are very small, and placed close to the head. The color of the back is dusky, spotted; the belly silvery; between the dorsal and the pectoral fins are certain streaks, running downwards. The skin is free from scales. When boiled, it has been observed to turn into a glutinous jelly, resembling boiled mackerel when cold, and served the purposes of food on being tried on paper and leather. The meat of this fish is uncommonly rank: it is like skell-fish. The sun-fish of the Irish, *Scophthalmus* of Gmelin, differs in all respects from this.

**DIODORUS**, surnamed Siculus, an ancient historian, born at Argyra, in Sicily. He wrote a history of Egypt, Persia, Syria, Media, Greece, Asia, and Carthage; and it is said that he visited all the places mentioned in his history, which he labored for thirty years. He is, however, credulous in some of his narratives; and he dwells too long upon fabulous reports and interesting incidents; while events of the greatest importance to history are treated with brevity, sometimes passed over in silence. He lived in the age of Caesar and Augustus, and spent some time at Rome to procure information, and to entice his history. This important work, which he composed in Greek, contained forty volumes of which there are only fifteen remaining. The best editions are that of Amsterdam, 1745, 8 vols. folio, and Heyne, 10 vols. 8vo. 1793. **DIÆCIA**, the twenty-second class in Linnaeus's sexual system, consisting of plants which, though no hermaphrodite flowers, produce male

and female flowers on separate roots. These last only ripen the seeds; but require for that purpose the vicinity of a male plant; for the aspergion or sprinkling of the male dust. From the seeds of the female flowers, thus impregnated, are raised both male and female plants. The plants in the class diæcia are therefore all either male or female, on separate roots; not hermaphrodite, as in the greater number of classes; nor with male and female flowers upon one root, as in the class monæcia. See **BOTANY**.

**DIÖGENES** of Apollonia, in the island of Crete, held a considerable rank among the philosophers who taught in Ionia before Socrates appeared at Athens. He was the scholar and successor of Anaximenes, and in some measure rectified his master's opinion concerning air being the cause of all things. It is said that he was the first who observed that air was capable of condensation and rarefaction. He taught with great reputation at Athens; but was at length banished for the freedom of his opinions. He died about A. A. C. 450.

**DIÖGENES** the Cynic, an ancient philosopher, the son of a banker of Sinope. Being banished with his father for coining money, he retired to Athens, where he studied philosophy under Antisthenes. Here he added new degrees of austerity to the sect of the Cynics, and never did any philosopher carry contempt for the conveniences of life so far. He lodged in a tub; and had no other property beside his staff, wallet, and wooden bowl, which last he threw away, on seeing a boy drink out of the hollow of his hand. He used to call himself a vagabond, who had neither house nor country; was obliged to beg, was ill clothed, and lived from hand to mouth. Such singularity soon gained him reputation; and Alexander the Great condescended to visit the philosopher in his tub. He asked if there was any thing in which he could oblige him: 'Get out of my sunshine' was the only answer from the philosopher. The conqueror was so struck with the independence of mind thus exhibited, that he declared, 'if he was not Alexander, he would choose to be Diogenes.' In reply to one who asked at what time he ought to dine, Diogenes said, 'If you are a rich man, when you will; if you are poor, when you can.' 'Would you be revenged upon your enemy,' said Diogenes, 'be virtuous, that he may have nothing to say against you.' As Diogenes was going over to the island of Ægina, he was taken by pirates, who carried him into Crete, and there exposed him to sale. He answered the crier, who asked him what he could do, that 'he knew how to command men;' and perceiving Xenaiades, a Corinthian, going by, he said, 'Sell me to that gentleman, for he wants a master.' Xenaiades, struck with the singularity of Diogenes, bought him and carried him to Corinth, appointed him tutor to his children, and soon entrusted him with the management of his house. Diogenes's friends being desirous of redeeming him, 'You are fools,' said he; 'the lions are not the slaves of those who feed them, but they are the servants of the lions.' Some say that Diogenes spent the remainder of his life in Xenaiades's family; but Dio Chrysostom asserts that he passed the winter



at Athens, and the summer at Corinth. He died at Corinth when he was about ninety years old; but authors are not agreed either as to the time or manner of his death. The account of Jerom is, that as he was going to the Olympic games, a fever seized him; upon which he lay down under a tree, and refused the assistance of those who accompanied him. 'Go you to the games,' said he, 'and leave me to contend with my illness. If I conquer, I will follow you; if I am conquered, I shall go to the shades below.' He despatched himself that very night; saying, that 'he did not so properly die, as get rid of his fever.' He had for his disciples Onesicritus, Phocion, Stilpo of Megara, and several other great men. His works are all lost.

DIODEGENES, surnamed Laertius, from Laerta in Cilicia, his birth place, an ancient Greek author, who wrote ten books of the Lives of the Philosophers, still extant. In what age he flourished is not determined. The oldest writers who mention him are Soter of Alexandria, who lived in the time of Constantine the Great, and Hesychius Milesius, who lived under Justinian. Diogenes often mentions Plutarch and Phavorinus; and Menage has fixed the period of his appearance at the time of Severus, or about A. A. C. 200. He divided his Lives into books, and inscribed them to a learned lady of the Platonic school, as he himself intimates in his Life of Plato. There have been several editions of his Lives of the Philosophers; but the best is that printed in 2 vols. 4to., at Amsterdam, 1693.

DIOMEDES, in fabulous history, a tyrant of Thrace, who is said to have fed his horses with the flesh of men. Hercules killed him, and threw him to be eaten by his own carnivorous horses; Hyginus says there were four of them, and that the hero afterwards killed them, along with Abderus, their groom.

DIOMEDES, king of Aetolia, the son of Tydeus and Deiphyle, one of the bravest of the Grecian chiefs in the Trojan war. He went with Ulysses to steal the Palladium from the temple of Minerva in Troy; and assisted in murdering Rhesus king of Thrace, and carrying off his horses. At his return from the siege of Troy, he lost his way in the darkness of the night, and landed in Attica, where his companions plundered the country, and lost the Trojan Palladium. During his long absence, his wife Aegiale had prostituted herself to Cometes, one of her servants. This was attributed to the resentment of Venus, whom Diomedes had wounded in a battle before Troy. He resolved to abandon his native country, which was the seat of his disgrace; and the attempts of his wife to take away his life, hastened his departure. He came to that part of Italy which has been called Magna Græcia, where he built a city, which he called Argyrippa, and married the daughter of Daunus, the king of the country. He died there in extreme old age; or, according to a certain tradition, he perished by the hand of his father-in-law. His death was greatly lamented by his companions, who, in the excess of their grief, were changed into birds resembling swans. These birds took flight into a neighbouring island in the Adriatic, and became remarkable for the tameness with which they ap-

proached the Greeks, and for the horror with which they shunned all other nations. They were called the birds of Diomedes. Altars were raised to Diomedes, as to a god, one of which Strabo mentions at Timavus.

DIOMEDIA, in ornithology, a genus belonging to the order of auseres. The bill is small; the superior mandible is crooked at the point, and the lower one is truncated; the nostrils are oval, open, a little prominent, and placed on the sides. There are four species: the principal are—

1. *D. demersa*, has no quill-feathers on the wings; and the feet have four toes, connected together by a membrane. It is the black peapod of Edwards, about the size of a goose, and is found at the Cape of Good Hope. It is an excellent swimmer and diver; but hops and tatters in a strange awkward manner on the land, and, if hurried, stumbles perpetually, and frequently runs for some distance like a quadruped, making use of the wings till it can recover an upright posture, crying out at the same time like a goose, but in a much hoarser voice. It is said to clamber some way up the rocks in order to make the nest; in doing which, it has been observed to assist with the bill. The eggs are two in number, white, as large as those of a duck, and reckoned delicious eating, at least are thought so at the Cape, where they are brought in great numbers for that purpose. At this place the birds are often seen kept tame; but in general they do not survive the confinement many months.

2. *D. exulans*, has pennated wings, and three toes on each foot. It is the albatross of Edwards; and is about the size of a pelican. Two birds are found in the ocean betwixt the tropics, and at the Cape of Good Hope. They are often seen in vast flocks in Kamtschatka, and the adjacent islands, about the end of June, when they are called great gulls; but it is chiefly in the bay of Penshinensi, the whole inner sea of Kamtschatka, the Kurile Isles, and that of Hering; for on the eastern coasts of the first they are scarce, a single straggler only appearing now and then. Their chief motive for frequenting these places seems to be plenty of food; and their arrival is a sure presage of shoals of fish following. At their first coming they are very lean, but soon grow immensely fat. They are very voracious, and will often swallow a salmon of four or five pounds weight; but as they cannot take the whole of it into their stomach at once, part of the tail end will often remain out of the mouth, and the natives, finding the bird in this situation, easily knock it on the head on the spot. Before the middle of August they migrate elsewhere. They are often taken by a hook baited with fish, not for the sake of their flesh (it being hard and unsavory) but on account of the intestines, a particular part of which is blown up as a bladder, and serves as a float to buoy up nets in fishing. Of the bones, tobacco-pipes, needle-cases, &c., are made. When caught they defend themselves stoutly with the bill. Their cry is harsh and disagreeable, not unlike the braying of an ass. The breeding places of the albatross, if all in the northern hemisphere, have not yet been pointed out; but we are certain of their multiplying in the southern, viz. Patagonia and Falk-



Islands; to this last place they come about the end of September or beginning of October, among other birds, in great abundance. The eggs are made on the ground with earth, are round in shape, a foot in height, indented at top. The egg is larger than that of a goose, four inches in length, white, marked with dull spots at the bigger end, and is thought to be good food, though it is never growing hard with boiling. While the female is sitting, the male is constantly on the wing, and supplies her with food: during this time they are so tame as to suffer themselves to be shoved off the nest while their eggs are taken from them; but their chief destruction arises from the hawk, which, the moment the female gets off the nest, darts thereon, and carries away with the egg. The albatross itself likewise has its enemy, being greatly persecuted by the gull on the wing by the dark gray gull, called *ma*. This bird attacks it on all sides, but particularly endeavours to get beneath, which is only prevented by the first settling on the water; and indeed they do not frequently fly at a great distance from the surface, except obliged so to do by high winds or other causes. As soon as the egg is able to remove from the nest, the parents take possession, and hatch their young in it. It is probable that they pass from one part of the globe to another according to the seasons; being now and then met with by different navigators at various times in intermediate places. Their food is supposed to be chiefly small marine animals, especially of the molluscæ or blubber class, as well as flying fish.

**DION**, the son of Hipparchus, a Syracusan, famous for his power and abilities. He was related to Dionysius, and often joined with the philosopher Plato (who at his request had come to reside at the tyrant's court), in advising him to lay aside the supreme power. His great popularity rendered him odious in the eyes of the tyrant, who banished him to Greece. There he collected a numerous force, and resolved to free his country from tyranny. This he easily effected on account of his popularity. He entered the port of Syracuse with only two ships; and in three days reduced under his power an empire which had already subsisted for fifty years, and which was guarded by 500 ships of war, and above 100,000 troops. The tyrant fled to Corinth, and Dion kept the power in his own hands, fearful of the aspiring ambition of some of the friends of Dionysius; but he was shamefully betrayed and murdered by one of his familiar friends called Callicrates, or Callippus, 34 years before the Christian era.

**DION CASSIUS**, a native of Nicæa in Bithynia. His father's name was Apronianus. He was raised to the greatest offices of state in the Roman empire by Pertinax, and his three successors. He was naturally fond of study, and he improved himself by unwearied application. He was ten years in collecting materials for a history of Rome, which he published in eighty books, after laborious employment of twelve years in composing it. This valuable history began with the rival of Æneas in Italy, and was carried down to the reign of Alexander Severus. The first thirty-four books are totally lost; the twenty fol-

lowing, that is from the thirty-fifth to the fifty-fourth, remain entire; the six following are mutilated; and fragments are all that we possess of the last twenty. In the compilation of this extensive history, Dion proposed Thucydides for a model, but he is not perfectly happy in his imitation. His style is pure and elegant, and his narrations are judiciously managed, and his reflections learned; but, upon the whole, he is credulous, and the bigoted slave of partiality, satire, and flattery. He inveighs against the republican principles of Brutus and Cicero, and extols the cause of Cæsar. Seneca is the object of his satire, and he represents him as debauched and licentious in his morals.

**DIONEÆA**, in botany, a genus of sensitive plants lately discovered. It belongs to the order monogynia, in the decandria class. There is but one genus as yet known: viz. *D. muscipula*, or Venus's fly-trap. Every one skilled in natural history knows, that the sensitive plants close their leaves, and bend their joints, upon the least touch (see *MIMOSA*); but no design of nature has yet appeared to us from these surprising motions: they soon recover themselves again, and their leaves are expanded as before. But the *dioneæa* shows that nature may have some view towards its nourishment, in forming the upper joint of its leaf like a machine to catch food; upon the middle of this lies the bait for the unhappy insect that becomes its prey. Many minute red glands that cover its inner surface, and which discharge a smell of carrion, tempt the poor animal to taste them; and the instant these tender parts are irritated by its feet, the two lobes rise up, grasp it fast, lock the two rows of spines together, and squeeze it to death. And lest the strong efforts for life, in the creature thus taken, should serve to disengage it, three small erect spines are fixed near the middle of each lobe among the glands, that effectually put an end to all its struggles. Nor do the lobes ever open again, while the dead animal continues there. The plant, however, cannot distinguish an animal from a general substance; for, if we introduce a straw or a pin between the lobes, it will grasp it full as fast as if it was an insect. It grows in North America, in about 35° lat. N., in wet shady places, and flowers in July and August. The largest leaves are about three inches long, and an inch and a half across the lobes, the glands of those exposed to the sun are of a beautiful red color; but those in the shade are pale, and inclining to green. The roots are squamous, sending forth but few fibres, and are perennial. The leaves are numerous, inclining to bend downwards, and are placed in a circular order; they are jointed and succulent; the lower joint, which is a kind of stalk, is flat, longish, two edged, and inclining to heart-shaped. In some varieties they are serrated on the edges near the top. The upper joint consists of two lobes; each lobe is of a semi-oval form, with its margins furnished with stiff hairs like eye-brows, which embrace or lock in each other when they close. The upper surfaces of the lobes are covered with small red glands; each of which appears, when highly magnified, like a compressed arbutus-berry. If the fly, enclosed in



these lobes, can be forced out so as not to strain the lobes, they expand again; but if force is used to open them, so strong has nature formed the spring of their fibres, that one of the lobes will generally snap off rather than yield. The stalk is about six inches high, round, smooth, and without leaves; ending in a spike of flowers. The flowers are milk-white, and stand on foot-stalks, at the bottom of which is a little painted bractea or flower leaf. The soil in which it grows, as appears from what comes about the roots of the plants when they are brought over, is a black, light mould, intermixed with white sand, such as is usually found in our moorish heaths. Being a swamp plant, a northern aspect will be properest for it at first, to keep it from the direct rays of the sun; and in winter, till we are acquainted with what cold weather it can endure, it will be necessary to shelter it with a bell glass, such as is used for melons. This should be covered with straw or a mat in hard frosts. By this means several of these plants have been preserved through the winter in a very vigorous state. Its sensitive quality will be found in proportion to the heat of the weather, as well as the vigor of the plant. Our summers are not warm enough to ripen the seed; or possibly we are not yet sufficiently acquainted with the culture of it. To try further experiments on its sensitive powers, some of the plants might be placed in pots of light moorish earth, set in pans of water, in an airy stove in summer; where the heat of such a situation, being like that of its native country, will make it surprisingly active.

**DIONYSIA**, in Grecian antiquity, solemnities in honor of Bacchus, sometimes called by the general name of Orgia; and by the Romans Bacchanalia and Liberalia.

**DIONYSIACA**, in antiquity, a designation given to plays and all manner of sports acted on the stage: because play-houses were dedicated to Dionysius, or Bacchus, one of the deities of sports.

**DIONYSIUS I.** from a private secretary became general and tyrant of Syracuse and all Sicily. He patronised learning and men of letters, and made his court the resort of many of the greatest philosophers of Greece. He was also himself a poet; and having, by bribes, gained the prize for tragedy at Athens, he indulged himself so immoderately at table from excess of joy that he died of the debauch, A. A. C. 386. Some authors, however, say he was poisoned by his physicians.

**DIONYSIUS II.**, his son and successor, was a greater tyrant than his father: his subjects were obliged to fly to the Corinthians for succour; and Timoleon their general having conquered the tyrant, he fled to Athens, where he was obliged to keep a school for subsistence. He died A. A. C. 343.

**DIONYSIUS**, surnamed Halicarnassus, or the Halicarnassian, a celebrated historian, and one of the most judicious critics of antiquity. He was born at Halicarnassus; and went to Rome after the battle of Actium, where he staid twenty-two years in the reign of Augustus. He there composed in Greek his History of the Roman Antiquities, in twenty books of which the first eleven

only are now remaining. There are also extant several of his critical works. The edition of the works of this author is that of Ford, in 1704, in Greek and Latin, by Dr. son.

**DIONYSIUS**, surnamed Periegetes, a le geographer, to whom is attributed a *Periegesis* or Survey of the Earth, in Greek verse. Suppose that he lived in the time of Augustus but Scaliger and Saumaisius place him under reign of Severus, or Marcus Aurelius. He has many other works, but his *Periegesis* is the one we have remaining; the best and most edition of which is that improved with new illustrations by Hill.

**DIONYSIUS**, the Areopagite, was born educated at Athens. He went afterwards to Heliopolis in Egypt; where, if we may believe some writers of his life, he saw that extraordinary eclipse which happened at our Saviour's passion, and was urged by some uncommon impression, *Aut Deus Naturæ patitur, aut cunctis dolet: 'Either the God of Nature is affected, or condescends with him who does.'* At his return to Athens he was elected into the court of pagus, whence his title. About A. D. 335 he embraced Christianity (Acts xvii. 34) and some say, was appointed first bishop of Athens by St. Paul. He is supposed to have suffered martyrdom; but whether under Domitian, or Adrian, is uncertain. We have no certain remaining under his name, but what is a great reason to believe spurious.

**DIOOJOCARTA**, a considerable town of the European settlement of the island of Java, situated on a navigable stream. It is the capital of the sultan of Mataram, who has a palace three miles in circuit, surrounded by a deep wet ditch with draw-bridges, and defended by 100 pieces of cannon. Within its precincts is a lake, on which stands an ancient mansion entered by a long and spacious passage under the water. A guard of 300 Amazons, and of petty chieftains, are said to be trained both to a military and domestic life. The place is armed with spears, and are excellent engineers. This place was taken by a coup de main by the British, in 1812.

**DIOPHANTINE PROBLEMS**, in mathematics, certain questions relating to square numbers, and right-angled triangles, the nature of which was determined by Diophantus.

**DIOP'TRIC**, *adj.* } *Gr. διοπτρικός*  
**DIOP'TRICAL**, *adj.* } forming a medium  
**DIOP'TRICS**, *n. s.* } sight; assisting in the view of distant objects; a branch of the science of optics.

Being excellently well furnished with glasses, he had not been able to see the sun.

View the asperities of the moon through a glass, and venture at the proportion of their shadows. *More's Antid. against*

**DIOPTRICS**; of *δια*, through, and *τρος*, see; sometimes called also *Anaclastics* from the trine of refracted vision. A branch of the science of optics. The ancients treated distinctly of direct and reflected vision; but of refrac-



their knowledge was very imperfect. An early rise on refraction, in nine books, was written by J. Baptista Porta; but Kepler was the first who elucidated this subject in any great degree, having demonstrated the properties of spherical lenses very accurately, in a treatise published in 1611. After Kepler, Galileo introduced the doctrine into his Letters; as also an Examination of the Preface of Johannes Pena upon Child's Optics, concerning the use of Optics in economy. Des Cartes also wrote a treatise on Optics, commonly annexed to his Principles of Philosophy, one of his best works: in which the true doctrine of vision is more distinctly explained than by any former writer, and in which contained the law of refraction, discovered by him, though the name of the inventor is suppressed. Here are also laid down the properties of elliptical and hyperbolic lenses, with the practice of grinding glasses. Dr. Barrow has treated on Dioptrics in a brief but very elegant manner, in his Optical Lectures, read at Cambridge. There are also Huygens's Dioptrics, an excellent work of its kind. Molyneux's Dioptrics, a heavy and dull work. Hartsoeker's Essai de Dioptrique, Cherubin's Dioptrique Oculaire, et De Vision Parfaite, David Gregory's Elements of Dioptrics, Traber's Nervus Opticus, Zahn's Oculus Artificialis Teledioptricus. Smith's Optics is a complete work of its kind. Wolfius's Dioptrics are contained in his Elementa Matheseos Universalis. Harris's Optics, Bouguer's Optics, and the second volume of Haüy's Natural Philosophy, may also be advantageously consulted. The Treatise on Optics, and the Optical Lectures of Newton, contain an account of inestimable experiments and reasonings in this science; and Mr. Dollond's discovery of achromatic glasses, by which colors are obviated in refracting telescopes, has been of great importance to this branch of optics. See OPTICS.

**DIORTHO'SIS**, *n.s.* Gr. *διορθωσις*, of *διορθωω* to make straight. A surgical operation, by which crooked or distorted members are restored to their primitive and regular shape.

**DIOSCOREA**, in botany, a genus of the hexandria order and diœcia class of plants; natural order eleventh, samentaceæ. Male CAL. tripartite: COR. none. Female CAL. sexpartite: STYL. three: CAPS. trilobular and compressed; and there are two membranaceous seeds. There are fifteen species, of which the only remarkable one is the *D. bulbifera*, or the yam. It has triangular winged stalks, which trail upon the ground, extend far, and frequently put out roots from their joints as they lie upon the ground, by which the plants are multiplied. The roots are eaten by the inhabitants of both the Indies; and, in the West India islands, make the greatest part of the negroes' food. The plant is supposed to have been brought from the East to the West Indies; for it has never been observed to grow wild in any part of America; but, in the island of Ceylon, and on the coast of Malabar, it grows in the woods, and there are in those places many different species. It is propagated by cutting the root in pieces, observing to preserve an eye in each, as in planting pota-

toes. One plant will produce three or four large roots. The skin of these roots is pretty thick, rough, unequal, covered with many stringy fibres or filaments, and of a violet color, approaching to black. The inside is white and of the consistence of red beet. It resembles the potatoe in its mealiness, but is of a closer texture. When raw, the yams are viscous and clammy; when roasted, or boiled, they afford very nourishing food; and are often preferred to bread by the inhabitants of the West Indies, on account of their lightness and facility of digestion. When first dug out of the ground, the roots are placed in the sun to dry; after which, they are either put in sand, dry garrets, or casks; where, if kept from moisture, they may be preserved whole years without being spoiled or diminished in their goodness. The root commonly weighs two or three pounds; though some yams have been found upwards of twenty pounds weight.

**DIOSCORIDES**, a physician of Anazarba, in Cilicia, who lived in the reign of Nero. He was originally a soldier; but afterwards he applied himself to study, and wrote a book upon Medicinal Herbs. See BOTANY.

**DIOSCURI**, in antiquity, a name given to Castor and Pollux, as *καστοί*, the children, *Διοί*, of Jupiter. They are often borne on the medals of the Roman consuls, and generally appear, as in the annexed diagram, on horse-back, armed with spears, and with helmets surmounted with stars.



**DIOSCURIA**, *διοσκουρία*, in antiquity, a festival in honor of Castor and Pollux. It was observed by the Cyreneans, but more especially by the people of Sparta, the birth-place of these heroes. The solemnity was full of mirth, being at a time wherein they shared plentifully of the gifts of Bacchus, and diverted themselves with sports, of which wrestling matches made a part.

**DIOSMA**, African spiræa, a genus of the monogynia order and pentandria class of plants: cor. pentapetalous; nectarium crown-shaped, above the germen: CAPS. five, coalited: SEEDS hooded. There are nine species, of which the most remarkable are,

1. *D. hirsuta*, with narrow hairy leaves; a very handsome shrub, growing to the height of five or six feet. The stalks are of a fine coral color, the leaves come out alternately on every side of the branches; the flowers are produced in small clusters at the end of the shoots, and are of a white color. They are succeeded by starry seed-vessels, having five corners; in each of which corners is a cell, containing one smooth, shining, oblong, black seed; these seed-vessels abound with a resin which emits a grateful scent, as does also the whole plant.

2. *D. oppositifolia*, with leaves in the form of a cross. It rises to the height of three or four feet; the branches are slender, and produced from the stem very irregularly; the flowers are produced at the ends of the branches, between the leaves; the plants continue long in flower, and make a fine appearance, intermixed with other exotics in the open air.



**DIOS NOMBRE DE**, a town of Mexico, on the road from the mines of Sombrerete to Durango. It contains 6800 inhabitants.

**DIOSZEGH**, a large market town of Hungary, in the county of Bihar, thirty miles S. S. W. of Zathmar.

**DIOSPOLITES NOMOS**, a division of Thebais, or the Higher Egypt, to distinguish it from another of the Lower Egypt, or the Delta; south of the Nomos Thinites, on the west side of the Nile.

**DIOSPYROS**, the Indian date-plum, a genus of the diæcia order and polygamia class of plants; natural order eighteenth, bicornes. *CAL.* hermaphrodite and quadrifid: *COR.* urceolated and quadrifid: *STAM.* eight: *STYL.* quadrifid: *BERRY* octospermous. There are two species, viz.

1. *D. lotus*, which is supposed to be a native of Africa, from whence it was transplanted into several parts of Italy, and also into the south of France. The fruit of this tree is supposed to be the lotus with which Ulysses and his companions were said to have been enchanted, and which made those who eat of it forget their country and relations. In the warm parts of Europe this tree grows to the height of thirty feet.

2. *D. Virginiana*, pinshamin, persimon, or pichumon plum, is a native of America, but particularly of Virginia and Carolina. The seeds of this sort have been frequently imported into Britain, and the trees are common in many nurseries about London. It rises to twelve or fourteen feet; but generally divides into many irregular trunks near the ground, so that it is very rare to see a handsome tree of this sort. Though plenty of fruit is produced on these trees, it never comes to perfection in this country. In America the inhabitants preserve the fruit till it is rotten, as is practised with medlars in England, when they are esteemed very pleasant. Both species are propagated by seeds, and the plants require to be treated tenderly while young; but when they are grown up, they resist the greatest cold of this country.

**DIP**, *v. a.*, *v. n.* & *n. s.* } Goth. *dopen*; Sax.

**DIP'CHICK**, *n. s.* } *dopen*; Dutch *doo-pene*; Teut. *tauffen*; Hindoo *duba*, from Gr. *δύπω*. To immerse; put into a liquid; wet; and, figuratively, to be deeply involved in any affair, and to engage as a pledge. As a neuter verb to sink; enter; immerse: as a substantive it is applied by miners to the direction of coal-shafts and minerals (see p. 268), and by scientific men to the depression of a part of the horizon, the needle of the compass, &c. Dip-chick the example explains.

Who, dipping all his faults in their affection,  
Work like the spring that turneth wood to stone,  
Convert his gyves to graces. *Shakespeare.*

*Dipchick* is so named of his diving and luteness. *Farwe.*

And though not mortal, yet a cold shuddering dew  
Dips me all o'er, as when the wrath of Jove  
Speaks thunder. *Milton.*

To be baptized, is to be dipped in water; metaphorically, to be plunged in afflictions.

*Poole's Continuations.*

In Richard's time, I doubt, he was a fair die in the rebellion of the commons. *Dryden. Felt.*

Be careful still of the main chance, my wa;  
Put out the principal in trusty hands,  
Live on the use, and never dip thy lands. *Id. Fern.*

When men are once *dip't*, what with the encroachments of sense, custom, facility, and shame of departing from what they have given themselves up to, they go on till they are stifled. *L'Estrange.*

So fishes, rising from the main,

Can soar with moistened wings on high;

The moisture dried, they sink again,

And dip their wings again to fly. *Swift.*

The kindred arts shall in their praise conspire,  
One dip the pencil, and one string the lyre. *Pope.*

The vulture dipping in Prometheus' side,  
His bloody beak with his torn liver dyed. *Gravina.*

The persons to be baptised may be dipped in water, and such an immersion or dipping ought to be thrice, according to the canon. *Ayliffe's Paragon.*

Crowd round her baths, and, bending o'er the side,  
Unclassed their sandals, and their zones untied,  
Dip with gay fear the shuddering foot undressed,  
And quick retract it to the fringed vest. *Daven.*

In nautical observations it is necessary to know the depression or dip of the sea, to correct the apparent altitude of an observed object. *Dr. A. Lee.*

**DIPET'ALOUS**, *adj.*  $\Delta\epsilon\varsigma$  and  $\pi\alpha\lambda\alpha$ . Having two flower leaves.

**DIPH'THONG**, *n. s.* Fr. *diphthongue*; Ital. and Span. *diſtongo*; Lat. *diphthongus*; Gr.  $\delta\iota\phi\theta\alpha\gamma\gamma\omicron\varsigma$ , from  $\delta\iota\varsigma$ , double, and  $\phi\theta\alpha\gamma\gamma\alpha$ , a sound.

We see how many disputes the simple and analogous nature of vowels created among grammarians, and now it has begot the mistake concerning *diphthongs*; all that are properly so are syllables, and all *diphthongs*, as is intended to be signified by that word. *Holder's Elements of Speech.*

Make a *diphthong* of the second eta and iota, instead of their being two syllables, and the objection is gone. *Pope.*

**DIPH'THONGS** are distinguished by some authors into those that regard the eye, and those that regard the ear; but a more accurate distinction was long ago made by that eminent grammarian, Mr. Ruddiman, into proper and improper. A third class, however, seems to exist in the English language, which may be styled neutral. 1. Improper diphthongs, are those wherein only one of the vowels is sounded, the other being sunk; as *ae* and *oe* in the Latin, and *ea*, *ei*, *eo*, *ie*, *ou*, *oe*, *ue*, and *ui*, in the English language. The Latins pronounced these two vowels in their diphthongs *ae* or *oe*, or *eo* or *eo* as much as we do; only that the one was heard much weaker than the other, though the distinction was made with all the delicacy imaginable. Neutral diphthongs are those combinations of vowels, wherein either a new sound, different from that of both, takes place, or neither of them is sounded; for instance, the sound of *eo* in people, is quite different from that of *eo* in jeopardy, or of either of the vowels separate; and the apparent diphthong, or diphthong of the eye, as others style it, *ue*, in rogue, vague, &c.



together. Among the former of these may be ranked *ee* and *oo*, wherein the sound of the vowels, instead of being like that of *aa*, is changed to that of *a*. The diphthong *oe*, in *shoe*, also belongs to this class, with many others. 3. *Diphthongs*, are such as include the sound of both the component vowels, though still syllable; such as *au*, *eu*, and *ei*, in *du*, *eu*, *ay*, *eu*, *ey*, *oi*, and *ou*, in

*E*, *n. s.* The inner plate or lamina of the skull.

*M*, *n. s.* In anatomy, the soft medullary substance, which lies between the plates of the bones of the cranium.

*DIPLOMA*, *n. s.* Fr. *diplome*; from Gr. *diplōō*. See the article following.

He received from Edinburgh and Aberdeen the diploma. Academical honours would value, if they were always bestowed with liberality.

*Johnson's Life of Watts.*

*Diploma* is peculiarly used for an instrument given by colleges, societies, &c., to students or physicians, to exercise their professions, after passing examination, and admitted to a degree.

**DIPLOMATICS**, the science of diplomas, or ancient literary monuments, public documents. It does not, however, nor can it, extend its researches to antiquity; but is confined to the middle age, and the diplomas of modern times. For though the ancients were accustomed to reduce their laws and treaties into writing, yet they wrote them on tables, or covered them over with brass, copper, stone, or wood, &c. and in the first ages were not traced on parchment, have perished by the length of time, and the destructive events, that have taken place. The word *diploma* signifies, properly, a folded epistle, folded in the middle, and used in the middle age, and in the diplomas of modern times.

But, in more modern times, the diplomas were given to all ancient epistles, letters, literary monuments, and public documents, and those pieces of writing which the ancients called *syngrapha*, *chirographa*, *codicilli*, in the middle age, and in the diplomas of modern times, these writings are called *literæ*, *placita*, *chartæ indiculæ*, *sigilla*, and also *panchartæ*, *pantochartæ*, *tractationes*, &c. The originals of these were named *exemplaria*, or *autographa*, *thenticæ*, *originalia*, &c.; and the copies, *copiæ*, *particulæ*, &c. Those that have been made of them, are called *retractæ* and *chartæ*. The place where the originals and documents were kept, the ancient *scrinia*, *tabularium*, or *ærarium*, were derived from the tables of brass, and from the Greek idiom, *archeion*, or

To understand the nature of these papers, diplomas, and MSS., and to distinguish the authentic from the counterfeit, it is necessary to observe, that the paper of the ancients came from Egypt, and was formed of the papyrus, or membranes, taken from the stem of a tree named *Papyrus*, or *Bibulum*

*Ægyptiacum*, and which were pasted one over the other with the slime of the Nile, and were pressed and polished with a pumice stone. This paper was very scarce; and it was of various qualities, forms, and prices, which they distinguished by the names of *charta hieratica*, *luria*, *augusta*, *amphitheatrica*, *saitica*, *tanirica*, *emporetica*, &c. They cut it into square leaves, which they pasted one to the other, in order to make rolls of them; from whence an entire book was called *volumen*, from *volvere*; and the leaves of which it consisted, *paginae*. Sometimes, also, they pasted the leaves all together by one of their extremities, as is now practised in binding; by this method they formed the back of a book, and these the learned called *codices*. They rolled the volume round a stick, which they named *umbilicus*; and the two ends which came out beyond the paper, *cornua*. The title, written on parchment, in purple characters, was joined to the last sheet, and served it as a cover. They made use of all sorts of strings or ribands, and even sometimes of locks, to close the book; sometimes, also, it was put into a case. It is easy for those, who apply themselves to this study, to distinguish the parchment of the ancients from that of the moderns, as well as their ink and various exterior characters; but that which best distinguishes the original from the counterfeit, is the writing or character itself; which is, in most cases, very distinctly different from one century to another. There are two works which furnish the best lights on this matter, and which may serve as sure guides in judging of what are called ancient diplomas. The one is the celebrated *Treatise on the Diplomatic*, by F. Mabillon; and the other, the first volume of the *Chronicon Gotvicense*. We shall here only add, that all the diplomas are written in Latin, and consequently the letters and characters have a resemblance to each other; but there are certain strokes of the pen which distinguish not only the ages, but also the different nations; as the writings of the Lombards, French, Saxons, &c. The letters in the diplomas are usually longer, and not so strong as those of MSS. There has been also introduced a kind of court hand, of a very disproportionate length, and the letters of which are called, *Exiles litteræ*, *crispæ* ac *protractiores*. The first line of the diploma, the signature of the sovereign, that of the chancellor, notary, &c., are usually written in this character. The signature of the diploma consists either of the sign of the cross, or of a monogram, or cipher, composed of the letters of the names of those who subscribed it. The initial letters of the name, and sometimes also the titles, were placed about this cross. By degrees, the custom changed, and they invented other marks. They sometimes added also the date and epoch of the signature, the feasts of the church, the days of the calendar, &c. The successive corruption of the Latin language, the style, and orthography of each age, as well as their different titles and forms; the abbreviations, accentuations, and punctuation, and the various methods of writing the diphthongs; all these matters united, form so many characters and marks, by which the authenticity of a diploma



is to be known. The seal annexed to a diploma was anciently of white wax, and artfully imprinted on the parchment itself. It was afterwards pendent from the paper, and enclosed in a box or case, which they called *bullæ*. There are some also that are stamped on metal, and even on pure gold.

DIPONDIIUS, a coin, of very little value, mentioned by St. Luke, xii. 6. Our translation of the passage is, Are not five sparrows sold for two farthings? In St. Matthew, x. 29, it runs, Are not two sparrows sold for a farthing? The Greek has *assarion* instead of *as*, which some say was worth half an *as*, i. e. four French deniers and one-eighth; and, according to others, two deniers and five-sixteenths. Dipondius seems rather to signify half an *as*.—Calmet. Dr. Arbuthnot, however, says, that this coin was at first *libralis*, or of a pound weight; and, even when diminished, it retained the name of *libella*; so that dipondius denotes two *asses*.

DIPPÉL (John Conrad), a German physician, born at Darmstadt in 1672. He studied theology at Giessen, and afterwards read medical lectures at Strasburgh, but took his doctor's degree at Leyden in 1711. He was much addicted to the study of alchemy, and, among other secrets, pretended to have discovered the philosopher's stone. After rambling from place to place, he at last settled at Hamburgh; but having used some indiscreet freedoms with the administration of Denmark, he was given up to the government of that country, by whom he was sentenced to perpetual imprisonment in the island of Bornholm. He, however, obtained his liberty at the end of seven years; and about the same time was invited to Sweden, to attend the king, who was dangerously ill, but through the influence of the clergy, whom he had ridiculed, he was obliged to leave the kingdom in 1727. He afterwards went to Germany, and in 1733 gave out publicly that he should not die till 1808, but next year he was found dead in his bed. He denied the inspiration of the Scriptures, and wrote a number of wild enthusiastic books, under the name of Christianus Democritus. His works were published in 5 vols. 4to. 1747. We are indebted to him for the discovery of the Prussian blue, and he invented a useful oil, which is called after him.

DIPPING, among miners, signifies the interruption, or breaking off the veins of ore; an accident that gives them a great deal of trouble before they can discover the ore again. A great part of the skill of the miners consists in the understanding of this dipping of the veins. In Cornwall they have this general rule to guide them in this respect: most of their tin-loads, which run from east to west, constantly dip towards the north. Sometimes they underlie; that is, they slope down towards the north three feet in height perpendicular. This must carefully be observed by the miners, that they may exactly know where to make their air-shafts when occasion requires; yet, in the higher mountains of Dartmoor, there are some considerable loads which run north and south; these always underlie towards the east. Four or five loads may run nearly parallel to each other in the same hill;

and yet, which is rare, they may meet all together in one hatch, as it were a knot, and so separate again, and keep their former distances.

The DIPPING NEEDLE, or ISCLINATOR NEEDLE, is defined, by Dr. Hutton, 'a magnetical needle, so hung, as that, instead of playing horizontally, and pointing out N. and S. one end dips or inclines to the horizon, and the other points to a certain degree of elevation above it. It is used for observing the quantity of inclination towards the earth assumed by the magnetic needle. The inventor of the dipping needle was Robert Norman, a compass-maker at Ratcliffe, about 1580. This is not only testified by his own account, in his *New Attraction*, but also by Mr. Whiston, Dr. Gilbert, Mr. William Burrowes, Mr. Henry Bosd, and other writers of that period. The occasion of the discovery he himself relates, viz. that it being his custom to finish, and hang the needles of his compasses, before he touched them, he always found that, immediately after the touch, the N. point would dip or decline downwards, pointing in a direction under the horizon; so that, to balance the needle again, he was always forced to put a piece of wax on the S. end, as a counterpoise. The constancy of this effect led him at length to observe the precise quantity of the dip, or to measure the greatest angle which the needle would make with the horizon. This, in 1586, he found at London to be  $71^{\circ} 50'$ .

It is not quite certain, however, whether the dip varies, as well as the horizontal direction, in the same place. Mr. Graham made many experiments with the dipping needle in 1721, and found the dip between  $74^{\circ}$  and  $75^{\circ}$ . Mr. Nairne, in 1772, found it somewhat above  $72^{\circ}$ . And, by many observations made since that time at the Royal Society, the medium quantity is  $74^{\circ}$ . The trifling difference between the first observations of Norman, and the last of Mr. Nairne and the Royal Society, has led some philosophers to the opinion that the dip is unalterable; and yet it may be difficult to account for the great difference between these and Mr. Graham's numbers, considering the well-known accuracy of that ingenious gentleman. Philosophical Transactions, vol. xlv. p. 279; vol. lxii. p. 476; vol. lxix. lxx. lxxi. From a comparison of Mr. Gilpin's observations of the dip in August, 1803, when he found it  $70^{\circ} 20'$ , with those of Mr. Crundish, in 1775, its annual decrease, on a mean, appears to have been  $4.3'$ ; and its progressive annual decrease, on a mean, in the above-mentioned period of thirty years, to have been  $1.6'$ . It is certain, from many experiments and observations, that the dip is different in different latitudes, and that it increases in going northward. It appears from a table of observations, made with a marine dipping needle of Mr. Nairne's, in a voyage towards the north pole in 1773, that

in lat.  $60^{\circ} 18'$  the dip was  $75^{\circ} 0'$ ,  
in lat.  $70^{\circ} 45'$  the dip was  $77^{\circ} 52'$ ,  
in lat.  $80^{\circ} 12'$  the dip was  $81^{\circ} 52'$ , and  
in lat.  $80^{\circ} 27'$  the dip was  $82^{\circ} 21'$ .

See Phipps's Voyage, p. 122. See also the Observations of Mr. Hutchins, made in Hudson's Bay and Straits, Philosophical Transactions, vol. lxxv. p. 129. Messrs Burrowes, Gilbert, Ridley



and, &c. endeavoured to apply this discovery to the dip to the finding of the latitude; and first proposed finding the longitude by it; for want of observations and experiments, he did not conduct his reasoning to any length.

Whiston, being furnished with the farther observations of colonel Windham, Dr. Halley, Pond, Mr. Cunningham, M. Noel, M. de la Hire, and his own, made great improvements in the doctrine and use of the dipping needle, brought it to more certain rules, and endeavoured to find the longitude by it. For this purpose, he observes: 1. That the true tendency of the N. S. end of every magnetic needle is not to that part of the horizon to which the horizontal needle points, but towards another directly under it in the same vertical, and in different degrees, according to the different ages, and at different places.

That the power by which the horizontal needle is governed, and all our navigation usually directed, is proved, is only one quarter of the power by which the dipping needle is moved; which should render the latter by far the more exact and accurate instrument. 3. That a dipping needle of a foot long will plainly show alteration of the angle of inclination, in these parts of the world, in one-eighth of a degree, or even and a half geographical miles; and a needle of four feet, in two or three miles; i. e. supposing these distances taken along, or near a meridian. 4. A dipping needle four feet long, in these parts of the world, will show an equal alteration along a parallel, as another of a foot long will show along a meridian, i. e. that will, with equal exactness, show the longitude, as this the latitude.

This depends on the position of the lines of equal dip, in these parts of the world, which, it is found, do lie about  $14^{\circ}$  or  $15^{\circ}$  from the parallels. Hence he argues, that as we can have needles of five, six, seven, eight, or more feet long, which will move with strength sufficient for exact observation; and since microscopes may be applied for viewing the smallest divisions of degrees on the limb of the instrument, it is evident that the longitude at land may thus be found to be less than four miles. And as there have been many observations made at sea with the same instrument by Noel, Feuille, &c., which have determined the dip usually within a degree, sometimes within a half, or one-third of a degree, and this with small needles of five or six, or, at the most, nine inches long; it is inferred that the longitude may be found even at sea, within less than one-eighth of a degree.

The phenomena of the dipping needle are:—That about the equatorial parts of the earth it remains in an horizontal position, but depresses one end as we recede from these; the north end, if we go towards the north, and the south end, if we proceed towards the south pole. The farther north or south that we go, the inclination becomes the greater; but there is no place of the globe hitherto discovered where it points directly downwards, though it is supposed that it would do so in some part of it very near the pole. Its inclination is likewise found to vary very considerably at different times in different places of the earth, and by some changes of situation, in such a manner as must appear at first sight very unac-

countable. Of all those who have attempted the investigation of this obscure subject, none have been more successful than M. Cavallo, who, in his Treatise on Magnetism, has given particular attention to all the phenomena, and accounts for them upon plain and rational principles, in the following manner:—The dip of the magnetical needle, in general, may be understood from the following easy experiment: Lay an oblong magnet horizontally upon a table, and over it suspend another smaller magnet (a sewing needle to which the magnetic virtue has been communicated will answer the purpose), in such a manner as to remain in an horizontal position when not disturbed by another magnet. Now, if this last small magnet or sewing needle, suspended by the middle, be brought just over the middle of the large one, it will turn itself in such a manner that the south pole of the small magnet will point towards the north pole of the large one; and if at an equal distance from both, will remain in an horizontal position. But if we move it nearer to one of the poles than the other, it will be readily understood that the corresponding end of the needle will be attracted by the pole to which it approaches, and of consequence inclined downwards; the contrary end being proportionably elevated. It is likewise evident, that this inclination will be greater or less according to the distance at which the small magnet is placed from the pole of the large one; the attraction of the nearest pole having always the greatest effect upon it. And it is equally plain that, when brought directly over one of the poles of the large magnet, it will turn its own contrary one directly towards it, and thus lie exactly in the axis of the large one. The application of this experiment to the phenomena of the dipping needle is obvious, as nothing more is requisite for solving the whole mystery, than to suppose the earth itself to be the large magnet, and the magnetic needle, or any other magnetic body, the small magnet in the experiments: for admitting that the north pole of the earth possesses a south magnetism, and that the opposite pole is possessed of a north magnetical polarity; it appears, and the theory is confirmed by experiment, that when a magnet is suspended properly in the equatorial parts of the world, it must remain in an horizontal position; but when removed nearer to one of the poles, it must incline one of its extremities, viz. that which is possessed of the contrary magnetic polarity; and that this inclination must increase in proportion as the magnet or magnetic needle recedes from the equator of the earth; and, lastly, when brought exactly upon either of the poles of the earth, it must stand perpendicular to the ground, or in the same direction with the axis of the earth. The only difficulty in this explanation arises from the attributing a south magnetism to the north pole of the earth; but by this our author means only that its magnetism is contrary to that end of the magnetic needle which turns towards it; and in the same sense it must be understood, that the south pole of the earth has a north magnetic polarity. If the extremities of the axis of the earth, or the poles about which it performs its diurnal revolution, coincided with its magnetic poles, or even if the magnetic poles



were always at a certain distance from them, the inclination of the needle would be always the same at equal distances from the equator, and might be very useful for determining the latitudes. But it would seem, that these poles are perpetually shifting their places, since both the inclination and horizontal direction of the needle are continually varying even in the same place: so that its quantity of inclination cannot be exactly calculated. Two general remarks may be made upon this subject. 1. That the inclination of the needle does not alter regularly in going from N. to S. or from S. to N. in any meridian. 2. That its alteration in the same place, and at different times, is but small. Thus, in London, about the year 1576, the dip was  $70^{\circ} 50'$  below the horizon, and in 1775 it stood at  $72^{\circ} 3'$ ; the alteration in nearly 200 years, scarce amounting to three quarters of a degree, which may be attributed to the errors of the instruments; as these were at first exceedingly erroneous, and even yet are far from being perfect.

The general method of constructing dipping needles is, to pass an axis quite through the needle itself, and to let the extremities of the axis rest upon two supports, like the beam of a pair of scales, that the needle may move vertically round; and hence, when placed in the magnetic meridian, it will naturally assume that position which is called the magnetic line, viz. the two ends nearly north and south, and one of them inclined considerably to the horizon. The degrees of this inclination are shown upon a graduated circle; and when the instrument is made use of at land it has a stand, but at sea a ring is necessary to suspend it. When furnished with a stand, it has also a spirit-level; and the stand has three screws, by which the whole is adjusted in such a manner as to let the centre of motion in the needle, and the mark of  $90^{\circ}$  on the lower part of the divided circle, be exactly in the same line perpendicular to the horizon. The greatest imperfections attending this instrument are the balancing of the needle itself, and the difficulty of knowing whether, after being made magnetic, it be properly balanced or not. The inaccuracy here indeed can be but very small, as arising only from dust or moisture. The method recommended by Mr. Cavallo, to obviate these inconveniences, is first to observe the dip of the needle, then to reverse its magnetism by the application of magnets, so that the end of it which before was elevated above the horizon may now be below it; and, lastly, to observe its dip again; for a mean of the two observations will be pretty near the truth, though the needle may not be perfectly balanced. See MAGNETISM, and MAGNETICAL NEEDLE.

In order to determine the law that regulates the inclination or dip of the needle, Biot, in a memoir delivered by himself and Humboldt to the French National Institute, on the Variations of the Terrestrial Magnetism in different Latitudes, supposed in the axis of the magnetic equator, and at equal distances from the centre of the earth, two centres of attractive forces, the one austral and the other boreal, so as to represent the two opposite magnetic poles of the earth; he then calculated the

effect which ought to result from the action of these centres upon any point of the earth's surface, assuming the attractive force in the reciprocal ratio of the squares of the distances; he found that his results approximated more and more to the truth in proportion as the distance between the magnetic poles was assumed less; and, indeed, by supposing those two poles or centres to coincide, or the inclination of the magnetic needle to be produced by an indefinitely small magnet placed in the centre of the earth, his theorem gave the same numbers as had been observed by Humboldt both in Europe and America, as well as what had been observed in Russia, Lapland, and various other places in both hemispheres: the results of theory being classed with those of observations in a comparative table, which clearly evinces their near coincidence. Let  $u$  be the angle included between a radius drawn from the earth's centre to any assumed point on its surface and the magnetic axis,  $\beta$ , the angle comprehended between the line coinciding with the real position of the needle and the said magnetic axis, and  $I$  the inclination of the needle with the horizon of the place; then we have

$$I. \quad \tan \beta = \frac{\sin. 2u}{\cos. 2u + \frac{1}{2}}$$

whence  $\beta$  is readily determined; and then we shall have the inclination by means of the following:

$$II. \quad I = 90^{\circ} + u - \beta.$$

Still it must be observed, that though these formulae, given by Biot, furnished in general results very near the truth; yet when he attempted to represent the inclinations in different latitudes by the supposition of a magnet infinitely small, very near the centre of the earth, and perpendicular to the magnetic equator, he did not pretend to consider the hypothesis as any thing real, but solely as a mathematical abstraction.

DIPSACUS, teal, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, and tetrandria class of plants: CAL. is polyphillous, proper above; the receptacle paleaceous. There are four species: the most remarkable is the *D. carduus fullonum*, which grows wild in many parts of England. It is of singular use in raising the knap upon woollen cloth. For this purpose the heads are fixed round the circumference of a large broad wheel, which is made to turn round, and the cloth is held against them. In the west of England, great quantities of the plant are cultivated for this use. It is propagated by sowing the seed in March, upon a well prepared soil. About one peck of seed is sufficient for an acre, as the plants must have room to grow; otherwise the heads will not be large enough, nor in great quantity. When the plants come up, they must be hoed in the same manner as is practised for turnips, cutting down all the weeds, and thinning the plants to about eight inches distant; and as they advance, and the weeds begin to grow again, they must be hoed a second time, cutting out the plants to a wider distance, so that they may finally stand a foot distant from each other. The second year they will shoot up heads which may be cut about the beginning of August. They are then to be tied up in bunches, and set in the sun



ther is fair: or, if not, in rooms to dry the common produce is about 160 bunnies upon an acre, which are sold for 10g each. The leaves of the common l, dried, and given in powder or infused, a very powerful remedy against flatulencies in the stomach. There is also another somewhat whimsical, use for which is famous among the country people in If the heads are opened longitudinally, tember or October, there is generally small worm in them: one of these only in each head, whence naturalists have the vermis solitarius dipsaci. They collect, five, or seven of these, always obmake an odd number; and sealing them in oil, give them to be worn as an amulet against ague. This superstitious remedy is in her repute than the bark, in many parts d.

AS. n. s. Lat. from *διψαω*, to thirst. whose bite produces the sensation of a terrible thirst.

ion, and asp, and amphibiaena dire, thorned, hydrus, and ellops drear, &c.

Milton.

ERA, from *δις* and *πτερον*, wing, in an order of insects, which have only two, and under each wing a style or oblong, terminated by a protuberance, and a lancet.

OTE, n. s. *Διπτωτα*. A noun consisting of two cases only.

YCH, n. s. Lat. *diptychu* (two leaves together). A register of bishops and

memoration of saints was made out of the the church, as appears by multitudes of t. Austin.

Stillingsfleet.

Η, or DIPTYCHA, in antiquity, was a register, wherein were written the names of the rulers, and other magistrates, among the

and of bishops, and living as well as dead, among the Christians. The word *διπτωχα*, the plural of *διπτωχον*, q. d. a leaf in two leaves; though there were three, and others in four or five leaves. It is supposed to have been first given to distinguish them from the books that were called volumina. There were profane books in the Greek empire, as well as sacred in the Greek church.

Δ, Gr. *διπας*, i. e. two-footed, in zoology, is a genus of quadrupeds, belonging to the class of glires, in the class mammalia. These were ranked by Linnæus under the genus *Gmelin* has, with great propriety, divided the numerous and very different species of this genus, into nine new divisions, forming distinct genera, of which the *dipus* The characters are these: there are two toes in each jaw; the tail is long, and tufted at the end; but the most striking characteristic is the enormous length of the hind foot, and the extreme shortness of the fore paws. In its conformation, instead of walking on all fours, they leap or hop on the hind legs like birds, making prodigious bounds, and use the fore paws for burrowing, or for

carrying their food to the mouth like squirrels.

1. *D. cafer*, or the Cape jerboa, has four toes on the hind feet and five on the paws; the tail is very hairy, and tipped with black. This species inhabits the Cape of Good Hope, and is fourteen inches long; the tail fifteen, the ears three. It is called *aerdmannetje*, or little earth man, and *springen haas*, or leaping hare, by the Dutch at the Cape. It has a grunting voice; is very strong, and leaps twenty or thirty feet at one bound. It burrows with its fore feet; and sleeps sitting on its hind legs, with the knees separated, the head between, and holding its ears with the fore paws over its eyes. It is eaten by the natives; and is caught by pouring water into its hole, which compels it to come out. 2. *D. jaculus*, the common jerboa, or leaping mouse of Linnæus, has four toes on all the feet, and a claw in place of a thumb or fifth toe on each fore foot. The body is somewhat more than seven inches long, and the hind legs and thighs are longer than the body. The upper parts are of a pale tawny color, and the under parts white: the ears and feet are flesh-colored. The female has eight teats distantly placed. These animals inhabit Egypt, Arabia, Calmuck Tartary, and southern Siberia. They frequent firm hard ground, and fields covered with grass and herbs, where they form burrows of several yards long in a winding direction, leading to a large chamber about half a yard below the surface; and from this a second passage is dug to within a very little of the surface; by which they can escape when threatened with danger. When at rest, they sit with their hind legs bent under their belly, and keep the fore legs so near the throat as hardly to be perceptible. They eat grain and herbage like the hare. Their dispositions are mild, and yet they can never be perfectly tamed. This animal is roasted and eaten by the Arabs, who call it the lamb of the children of Israel. It has been particularly described by Mr. Bruce in his Abyssinian Travels. 3. *D. sagitta*, the Arabian jerboa, the *mus διπας* of the Greeks, and *mus bipes* of the Romans, has three toes on the hind feet, and no thumb or fifth toe on the fore paws. It is only about six inches long, and the tail rather shorter than the body; the soles of the hind feet and bottom of the toes are covered with a very thick coat of hair; the head is more rounded than that of the *jaculus*, and the ears are much longer than the head. It inhabits Arabia, and near the Irtysh in Siberia, where it frequents the sandy plains. 4. *D. Canadensis*, or Canadian jerboa, is thus described by general Davies: 'As I conceive there are very few persons, however conversant in natural history, who may have seen or known that there was an animal existing in the coldest parts of Canada of the same genus with the jerboa, hitherto confined to the warmest climates of Africa, I take the liberty of stating the following particulars. With respect to the food, or the mode of feeding, of this animal, I have it not in my power to speak with any degree of certainty, as I could by no means procure any kind of sustenance that could induce it to eat; therefore, when caught, it lived only a day and a half. The first I was so fortunate as to catch, was taken in a large field near the Falls of Montmorenci, and, by its having



strayed too far from the skirts of the wood, allowed myself, assisted by three other gentlemen, to surround it, and after an hour's hard chase, to get it unhurt, though not before it was thoroughly fatigued, which might in a great measure accelerate its death. During the time the animal remained in its usual vigor, its agility was incredible for so small a creature. It always took progressive leaps of from three to four, and sometimes of five yards, although seldom above twelve or fourteen inches from the surface of the grass; but I have observed others in shrubby places, and in the woods, among plants, where they chiefly reside, leap considerably higher. When found in such places it is impossible to take them, from their wonderful agility, and their evading all pursuit, by bounding into the thickest part of the covert they can find. With respect to the figure given of it, in its dormant state, I have to observe, that the specimen was found by some workmen, in digging the foundation for a summer-house in a gentleman's garden, about two miles from Quebec, in the end of May, 1787. It was discovered enclosed in a ball of clay, about the size of a cricket-ball, nearly an inch in thickness, perfectly smooth within, and about twenty inches under ground. The man who first discovered it not knowing what it was, struck the ball with his spade, by which means it was broken to pieces, or the ball would have been presented to me. How long it had been under ground it is impossible to say; but, as I could never observe these animals in any part of the country after the beginning of September, I conceive they lay themselves up some time in that month, or beginning of October, when the frost becomes sharp. Nor did I ever see them again before the last week in May or beginning of June. From their being enveloped in balls of clay, without any appearance of food, I conceive they sleep during the winter, and remain for that term without sustenance. As soon as I conveyed this specimen to my house, I deposited it as it was, in a small chip box in some cotton, waiting with great anxiety for its waking, but that not taking place at the season they generally appear, I kept it until they found it begin to smelt; I then stuffed it, and preserved it in its torpid position. I am led to believe its not recovering from that state arose from the heat of my room during the time it was in the box, a fire having been constantly burning in the stove, and which in all probability was too great for its respiration.

**DIRÆ**, the general name of the three furies in the Pagan mythology. They were so called as being quasi Deorum iræ, the ministers of Divine vengeance in punishing guilty souls after death. They were the daughters of Acheron and Night.

**DIRCA**, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order and octandria class of plants: **CAL.** none: **CON.** tubular, with the limb indistinct: **STAM.** longer than the tube: **BER.** monospermous. Species one, a Virginian shrub.

**DIRE**, *adj.* } **Lat.** *dirus*. Dreadful;  
**DIREFUL**, } terrible; dismal; extremely  
**DIRE'NESS**, *n. s.* } evil.

But yet at last, whereas the *direful* fiend  
She saw not stir, off shaking vain affright,

She nigher drew, and saw that joyous en  
Then God she prayed, and thanked her  
knight. *Færie Q.*

*Direful* hap betide that hated ven  
That makes us wretched by the death of the  
Shak.

*Direness*, familiar to my slaughterous de  
Cannot once start me. *Shakespeare. M.*

Hydras, and gorgons, and chimæras &c.

Or what the cross *dire-looking* planet sm  
Or hurtful worm with cankered venom bite

The voice of God himself speaks in the  
men, whether they understand it or no; and  
intimations gives the sinner a foretaste of the  
cup, which he is like to drink more deeply of b

Discord! *dire* sister of the slaughtered pow  
Small at her birth, but rising every hour;  
While scarce the skies her horrid head can  
She stalks on earth, and shakes the world.

Achilles' wrath, to Greeks the *direful* sprin  
Of woes unnumbered, heavenly goddess! sing

Ah me! the *dire* effect

Of loitering here, of death defrauded long;  
Of old so gracious, and let that suffice.  
My very master knows me not.

I've been so long remembered I'm forgot.

Unnumbered maladies his joints invade,  
Lay siege to life, and press the *dire* blockade  
But unextinguished avarice still remains  
And dreaded losses aggravate his pains.

*Johnson. Vanity of Human*

A brave man knows no malice, but at on  
Forgets in peace the injuries of war,  
And gives his *direst* foe a friend's embrace.

**DIRECT'**, *v. a. & adj.* } **Fr.** *diriger*;  
**DIRECT'ER**, *n. s.* } and **Ital.** *dir.*  
**DIRECT'OR**, } **Port.** *dirigir*.  
**DIRECT'ION**, } **Lat.** *dirigo*, &  
**DIRECTIVE**, *adj.* } à *de* and *re*  
**DIRECT'LY**, *adv.* } govern. To  
**DIRECT'NESS**, *n. s.* } project in a  
**DIRECTORY**. } line; to order.

late, prescribe: a director, or director, is  
orders or commands; also a rule or ordin  
well as any instrument that guides an op  
as in surgery: direction is having the  
to guide or rule; directly is, rectilinearly  
straight course or line; apparently; immed  
Directness, straightness; plainness of co  
See the following articles for particular  
directory.

The nobles of the people digged it, by the  
of the lawgiver. *Numb. x.*

It is not in man that walketh to *direct* his  
*Job*

Infidels, being clean without the church, &  
*rectly*, and utterly reject, the very principles of  
tianity, which hereticks embrace erroneously  
construction. *A*

They are glad to use counsellors and *direct*  
their dealings of weight, as contracts, testame

A law, therefore, generally taken, as a *direct*  
unto goodness of operation.

Even now

I put myself to thy *direction*. *Shakespeare. M.*



, that are in nature faithful and sincere,  
and direct, not crafty and involved.

Bacon.

visions and God's directions seldom agree.

King Charles.

any thing is to wisdom, if it be not plainly  
self, the more directly it becomes its oppo-

Shaftesbury.

geomantick figures were displayed  
his head, a warrior and a maid,  
then direct, and one when retrograde.

Dryden's Fables.

er flew hissing thro' the middle space,  
his throat, directed at his face.

Id. Æneid.

director and her guide in spiritual affairs.

Dryden.

does this, will be able to cast off all that is  
; he will see what is pertinent, what co-  
at is direct to, what slides by, the question.

Locke.

s in a man's power, is to mind what the  
at take their turns in his understanding ;  
rect and sort, and call in such as he de-

Id.

as then the state of the king, as it was no  
er means to seek her. And such was the  
captivated will, as he would delay no time  
er.

Sidney.

eracies powers of the former, and the re-  
ne latter, whereby it is capable of direction,  
generation of all bodies.

Greuv.

directly tends to raise sentiments of ho-  
rtue in his readers. Addison. Freeholder.

acted ray be returned directly back to the  
edence, it shall be refracted by the incident

Newton's Optics.

tion of good works to a good end, is the

le that distinguishes charity. Smalridge.

ner of opening with a knife, is by sliding  
ter, the groove of which prevents its being

Sharp's Surgery.

sed from celestial causes only, the constant  
he sun, and the directness of his rays ; ne-  
g that the body of the earth had so great  
in the changes of the air. Bentley.

le of matter, nor any combination of par-  
is, no body, can either move of itself, or  
er the direction of its motion. Cheyne.

mon forms were not designed

ers to a noble mind.

Swift.

n can be assigned, why it is best for the  
od Almighty hath absolute power, which  
rectly prove that no mortal man should  
e.

Id.

es from a mountain's height,  
ummand, direct their rapid flight. Pope.

ure is but art unknown to thee,

er, direction which thou canst not see.

Id.

ited by one directive ray,

age streaming, or from airy hall.

Thomson.

elation, which God hath been pleased to  
e will to mankind, was designed rather to  
e future happiness, and direct our way  
open to us the particular glories of it, or  
ow us what it is. Mason.

er to fail, if fail we must, in the paths of  
anly, than of low and crooked wisdom.

Burke.

r. VII.

Call your light legions, tread the swampy heath,  
Pierce with sharp spades the tremulous peat beneath ;  
With colters bright the rushy sward bisect,  
And in new veins the gushing rills direct. Darwin.

DIRECTION, in mechanics, signifies the line or  
path of a body's motion, along which it endeavours  
to proceed according to the force impressed  
upon it.

DIRECTION, ISLANDS OF, four small islands at  
the west entrance of the straits of Magellan, in  
the South Pacific Ocean. Long. 77° 19' W.,  
lat. 52° 27' S.

DIRECTORS, in commercial polity, are considerable  
proprietors in the stocks of their respective  
companies, being chosen by plurality of votes  
from among the body of proprietors. The Dutch  
East India Company has sixty such directors ;  
that of France, twenty-one ; the British East  
India Company has twenty-four, including the  
chairman, who may be re-elected for four years  
successively. These last have salaries of £150  
a year each, and the chairman £200. They  
meet at least once a week, and commonly oftener,  
being summoned as occasion requires. The di-  
rectors of the Bank of England are twenty-four  
in number, including the governor and deputy-  
governor.

DIRECTOR, in surgery, a grooved probe, to  
direct the edge of the knife or scissors, in open-  
ing sinuses or fistulæ, that the adjacent vessel,  
nerves, and tendons, may not be hurt.

The DIRECTORY OF PUBLIC WORSHIP was a  
celebrated book drawn up by the assembly of  
divines at Westminster, and established by an  
ordinance of parliament in 1644, repealing the  
statutes of Edward VI. and of Elizabeth, for  
uniformity in the common prayer. The Direc-  
tory set aside the use of the liturgy, and allowed  
of no church-music besides that of singing the  
Psalms. The Directory was so called, in part,  
because it only points out certain topics of  
prayer, on which the minister might enlarge.  
The whole apocrypha was rejected ; and both  
private baptism and lay baptism, with the use of  
godfathers and godmothers, and the sign of the  
cross. In the sacrament of the Lord's supper,  
no mention is made of private communion or  
administering it to the sick. The altar with rails  
was changed into a communion table, about  
which the people might stand or sit ; kneeling  
not being thought so proper a posture. Light-  
foot, Selden, and others, were for open com-  
munion, to which the parliament also most  
inclined, in opposition to those presbyterians  
who were for granting powers of admission or  
rejection to the ministers and elders, and to the  
independents who were for committing them to  
the whole brotherhood ; but it was agreed, that  
the minister, before the communion, should  
'warn, in the name of Christ, all such as are  
ignorant, scandalous, profane, or that live in any  
sin or offence against their knowledge or con-  
science, that they presume not to come to that  
holy table, showing them, that he that eateth and  
drinketh unworthily, eateth and drinketh judg-  
ment to himself.' The prohibition of marriage  
in Lent, and the use of the ring, were laid aside.  
In the visitation of the sick no mention is made  
of private confession, or authoritative absolution.

T



No service is appointed for the burial of the dead. All particular vestments for priests or ministers, and all saints'-days, were discarded. It has been remarked, as a considerable omission, that the Directory does not enjoin the reading of the apostles' creed, and the ten commandments. However, these were added to the assembly's confession of faith, which was published a year or two afterwards. This Directory continued in use till the restoration of king Charles II., when, the constitution being restored, the old liturgy took place again; the ordinance for its repeal having never obtained the royal assent. The revolution, thus occasioned in the form of public worship, did not take place for a considerable time over the whole kingdom. In some parts of the country the churchwardens could not procure a Directory; and in others they despised it, and continued the old common prayer book; some would read no form, and others used one of their own. In order to enforce the use of the Directory, the parliament, by an ordinance, dated August 23rd, 1645, called in all common prayer books, and imposed a fine upon those ministers who should read any other form than that contained in the Directory. By the same ordinance, which continued till the Restoration, to preach, write, or print any thing in derogation or depraving of the Directory, subjected the offender, upon indictment, to a discretionary fine, not exceeding £50.

DIRECTORY, in a more modern sense, was used as the title of the supreme executive power, according to the new constitution, formed by the French convention after the fall of Robespierre, and presented to the primary assemblies for acceptance in August, 1795. By this constitution the legislative body was composed of what they called a Council of Ancients and a Council of Five Hundred. The whole of this fabric, it is well known, was overturned by the successful ambition of Napoleon: but as it directed the energies of a numerous, if not a great, people for a considerable period, we may here perpetuate its forms. The executive power was entrusted to a Directory of five members, nominated by the legislative body as follows:—1. The Council of Five Hundred formed a list by ballot of three times the number to be nominated, and presented it to the Council of Ancients, which chose out of this list by ballot. 2. The members of the Directory were to be forty years of age at least. 3. After the ninth year of the republic, they were to be chosen only from among those citizens who had been members of the Legislative Body, or the Administration, or General Agents of Execution. 4. Members of the legislative body could not be elected members of the Directory, either during the continuance of their legislative functions, or during the first year after their expiration. 5. The Directory was partially renewed by the annual election of a new member. 6. No incumbent director could be re-elected till after an interval of five years. 7. The ascendant and descendant in the direct line; the brother, uncle, and nephew; connexions by marriage in the same degrees, and cousins in the first degree, could not be members of the Directory at the

same time, nor succeed one another in it, till after an interval of five years. 8. In case of death, removal, or resignation of a member of the Directory, his successor was elected within ten days. The Council of Five Hundred was obliged to propose the candidates within the first five days, and the Council of Ancients to complete the election within the last five. The new member could only continue in office for the remaining period of the person he succeeded, unless it did not exceed six months, in which case he continued five years and a half in office. 9. Each director was to preside in rotation for three months only. 10. The president was to sign and keep the seal. 11. The laws and acts of the legislative body were addressed to the Directory, in the person of its president. 12. The Directory could not deliberate unless three members were present. 13. A secretary was chosen (not one of its members), who countersigned despatches, and drew up deliberations, in a register, wherein each member might also enter his opinion, with his reasons. 14. The Directory could deliberate without the aid of the secretary, and one of the directors might record its resolutions in a particular register. 15. The Directory provided for the security of the public according to the laws, issued proclamations; &c. It disposed of the armed force; but none of its members could command it, either while they continued in office, or for two years after. 16. The Directory, upon hearing of any conspiracy against the republic, might order the supposed authors or accomplices to be apprehended, and interrogate them; but were bound, under the penalty of arbitrary imprisonment, to submit them to an officer of police, within two days, to proceed with them according to law. 17. The Directory nominated the generals, but could not choose them among the relations of its members, within the degrees above-mentioned. 18. It superintended the execution of the laws by commissaries of its nomination. 19. It nominated the general agents of execution, but not of more than five members, and recalled them at pleasure. 20. It determined their number and functions. 21. It nominated all receivers of direct taxes. 22. As well as the superintendants of indirect contributions, and the administration of national domains. 23. It superintended the coinage of money, and nominated the officers charged with it. 24. No Director could go out of the territory of the republic, till two years after he was out of office; but was obliged to certify his place of residence during that interval to the legislative body. 25. The Directory was responsible for the non-execution of laws, and for the abuses which it did not denounce. 26. Its agents were respectively responsible for the non-execution of the laws, and orders of the directory. 27. Its members might be tried by the legislative body for acts of treason, corruption, embezzlement of public money, and all capital crimes as to their official conduct. 28. They were subject to the jurisdiction of the tribunals for ordinary and private offences; but they could not be arrested except in the case of flagrant delictum, or brought to trial without the authority of the legislative body.

Every denunciation against the Directory,



members, was addressed to the Council Hundred. If, after deliberation, the Council admitted the denunciation, it declared terms: the denunciation against—for f—dated—signed by—is admitted. was then cited, and heard in the interior of the Council of Five Hundred; who whether there was ground for examining it. He was then heard by the Council at the bar; and, if he was deemed by the Council proceeded to accusation, followed by suspension, when the accused before the High Court of Justice, to proceed to trial without delay. If was acquitted, he resumed his func-

the Legislative Body could not cite the Director any of its members, except in the specified. The accounts and information of the Directory by the Legislature were furnished in writing. On the session of the Legislative Body, the members were obliged to present to it an estimate of the state of the finances, pensions, &c., and those that had come to its knowledge, invite the Legislative Body to take a consideration; but could not propose any other dispositions, except with regard to war. No member of the Directory absent more than five days, nor receive four myriamètres, or ten leagues, of residence, without being authorized by the Legislative Body. The members of the Directory could only appear in an appointment. They had a constant guard of 120 and 120 cavalry, who attended them in sessions, in which they had always the presence. Each member was attended out of two guards; and was entitled to the military honors from every post of the Republic. The Directory resided in the same with the Legislative Body, at the executive republic. The salary of each was value of 50,000 myriagrammes, about 1000 lbs. of wheat.

**DIRT**, *n. s.* Lat. *direptio*. The act of robbing.

**DIRTY**, *n. s.* This is from the Teutonic *diran*, to praise and extol, says Dr. Verstegan, 'whence it is possible, and our dirge, was a laudatory song to eulogize and applaud the dead. Bacon derives it from *dirige*.' A mournful song of lamentation.

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Betrothed beauty bending o'er his bier  
Breathes the loud sob, and sheds the incessant tear;  
Pursues the sad procession, as it moves  
Through winding avenues and waving groves;  
Hears the slow dirge amid the echoing aisles,  
And mingles with her sighs discordant smiles.

Darwin.

**DIRIBITORES**, among the Romans, officers appointed to distribute tablets to the people at the comitia. See **COMITIA**.

**DIRIGENT**, *adj.* Lat. *dirigens*.

The *dirigent* line in geometry is that along which the line described is carried in the generation of any figure.

Harris.

**DIRK**, *n. s.* Goth. *dorg*; Sax. *dork*; Isl. *turric*. A kind of dagger used in the Highlands of Scotland.

In vain thy hungry mountaineers  
Come forth in all their warlike geers,  
The shield, the pistol, dirk, and dagger,  
In which they daily went to swagger.

Tickell.

And in the fire his recent rags they scattered,  
And dress'd him, for the present, like a Turk,  
Or Greek—that is, although it not much mattered,  
Omitting turban, slippers, pistols, dirk.

Byron. Don Juan.

**DIRKE**, *v. a.* To spoil; to ruin. Obsolete.

Thy waste bigness but cumpers the ground,  
And dirkes the beauties of my blossoms round.

Spenser.

**DIRT**, *n. s.* Dut. *an*. Goth. *dyrt*;  
**DIRTILY**, *adv.* } Islandic, *dirrt*. Mud;  
**DIRTINESS**, *n. s.* } filth; mire; any thing  
**DIRTY**, *v. a. & adj.* } that sticks to the clothes  
or body; any thing mean.

For whom I made all things payement and I  
deeme as *dyrt*, that I wyne Crist.

Wiclif. Filipensis, 3.

Their fell contention still increased more,  
And more thereby increased furor's myght,  
That he his foe has hurt and wounded sore,  
And him in blood and dirt deformed quight.

Spenser. Faerie Queene.

Or were it such gold as that wherewithal  
Almighty chimiques from each mineral,  
Having by subtle fire a soul out-pulled,  
Are dirtily and desperately gulled,

Donne.

Thy Dol and Helen of thy noble thoughts  
Is in base durance, and contagious prison,  
Hauled thither by mechanic, dirty hands.

Shakespeare.

Such employments are the diseases of labour, and  
the rust of time, which it contracts not by lying still,  
but by dirty employment.

Taylor's Holy Living.

Marriages would be made up upon more natural  
motives than mere dirty interests, and increase of  
riches without measure or end.

Temple.

Numbers engage their lives and labours to heap  
together a little dirt that shall bury them in the end.

Wake.

Pound an almond, and the clear white colour will  
be altered into a dirty one, and the sweet taste into an  
oily one.

Loche.

They come at length to grow sots and epicures,  
mean in their discourses, and dirty in their practices.

South.

Is yellow dirt the passion of thy life,

Look but on Gripus, or on Gripus' wife.

Pope.

Ill company is like a dog, who dirties those most  
whom he loves best.

Swift.



The god of day

A tripod gives, amid the crowded way,  
To raise the *dirty* foot, and ease his toil. *Gay.*

The lords Strutts lived generously, and never used  
to *dirty* their fingers with pen, ink, and counters.

*Arbuthnot.*

**DIRUPTION**, *n. s.* Lat. *diruptio*. The act  
or state of bursting or breaking.

**DIS**, in mythology, a god of the Gauls, the  
same as Pluto, the god of hell. The ancient  
inhabitants of Gaul supposed themselves de-  
scended from that deity.

**DISA**, in botany, a genus of the diandria  
order and gynandria class of plants. The spatha  
is univalvular; the petals three; the third  
smaller than the rest, bifid, and gibbous, at the  
base. Species four, all Cape plants.

**DISA'BLED**, *v. a.* } Of *dis*, and **ABLE**,  
**DISA'BILITY**, *n. s.* } which see. To deprive  
of force or power; to disqualify; impair; to  
declare deficient. Disability is the want of  
power, aptitude, or legal right to do a thing.

Our consideration of creatures, and attention unto  
scriptures, are not in themselves things of like *disa-*  
*bility* to breed or beget faith. *Hooker.*

Many withdrew themselves out of pure faintness,  
and *disability* to attend the conclusion. *Raleigh.*

I have *disabled* mine estate,

By shewing something a more swelling port  
Than my faint means would grant continuance.  
*Shakspeare.*

Farewell, Monsieur Traveller; look you lisp, and  
wear strange suits; *disable* all the benefits of your own  
country. *Id.*

The invasion and rebellion did not only *disable*  
this king to be a conqueror, but deprived him both of  
his kingdom and life. *Davies's Ireland.*

I will not *disable* any for proving a scholar, nor yet  
dissemble that I have seen many happily forced  
upon the course to which by nature they seemed  
much indisposed. *Wotton.*

Nor so is overcome

Satan, whose fall from heaven, a deadlier bruise  
*Disabled* not to give thee thy death's wound.  
*Milton.*

A Christian's life is a perpetual exercise, a wrest-  
ling and warfare, for which sensual pleasure *disables*  
him, by yielding to that enemy with whom he must  
strive. *Taylor's Holy Living.*

I have known a great fleet *disabled* for two months,  
and thereby lose great occasions by an indisposition  
of the admiral. *Temple.*

Your days I will alarm, I'll haunt your nights,  
And worse than age *disable* your delights. *Dryden.*

He that knows most of himself, knows least of his  
knowledge, and the exercised understanding is con-  
scious of its *disability*. *Glanville.*

The ability of mankind does not lie in the impo-  
tency or *disabilities* of brutes. *Locke.*

This disadvantage which the dissenters at present  
lie under, of a *disability* to receive church prefer-  
ments, will be easily remedied by the repeal of the  
test. *Swift.*

A suit is commenced in a temporal court for an  
inheritance; and the defendant pleads, in *disability*,  
that the plaintiff is a bastard. *Ayliffe's Parergon.*

Foiled, bleeding, breathless, furious to the  
Fall in the centre stands the bull at bay,  
Mid wounds, and clinging darts, and lances  
And foes *disabled* in the brutal fray.

**DISABILITY**, in law, is when a man  
abled, or made incapable to inherit any  
take that benefit which otherwise he may  
done. This may happen four ways: 1. By  
act of an ancestor: 2d, of the party: 3d,  
act of God: or, 4th, of the law. 1. By  
by the act of the ancestor is where the  
is attained of high treason, &c., which  
the blood of his children, so that they  
inherit his estate. 2. Disability by the  
the party is where a man binds him-  
ligation, that, upon surrender of a lease  
grant a new estate to a lessee; and at  
he grants over the reversion to another  
puts it out of his power to perform it.  
ability by the act of God is where a man  
sanæ memoriæ, whereby he is incapable  
any grant, &c. So that, if he passes  
out of him, it may, after his death, be  
void; but it is a maxim in law, 'that  
full age shall never be received to dis-  
own person.' 4. Disability by the act  
is where a man, by the sole act of the law,  
out any thing by him done, is render-  
pable of the benefit of the law; as in  
born, &c.

**DISABUSE**, *v. a.* *Dis* and **ABUSE**  
see. To deliver from mistake or delusion.

The imposture and fallacy of our senses is  
only a common heads, but even more re-  
curious, who have the advantages of an im-  
son to *disabuse* you. *Glanville's*

Those teeth fair Lyce must not show,  
If she would bite: her lovers, though  
Like birds they stoop at seeming grapes  
Are *disabused* when first she gapes.

If by simplicity you meant a general defect  
that profess angling, I hope to *disabuse* you.  
*Wotton's*

Chaos of thought and passion, all confus'd  
Still by himself abused or *disabused*.

**DISACCOMMODATION**, *n. s.* A  
accommodation. The state of being un-  
prepared.

Devastations have happened in some pla-  
than in others, according to the accommo-  
*disaccommodation* of them to such calamities.  
*Hale's Origin of*

**DISACCUSTOM**, *v. a.* *Dis* and **AC-**  
To destroy the force of habit by disus-  
trary practice.

**DISACKNOWLEDGE**, *v. a.* *Dis*  
knowledge. Not to acknowledge.

The manner of denying Christ's deity  
hibited, was, by words and oral expression  
to deny and *disacknowledge* it.

**DISACQUAINTANCE**, *n. s.* *Dis*  
quaintance. Disuse of familiarity.

Conscience, by a long neglect of, and  
tance with itself, contracts an inveterate ru-

**DISADVANTAGE**, *v. a. & n. s.*

**DISADVANTAGEABLE**, *adj.*

**DISADVANTAGEOUS**, *adj.*

**DISADVANTAGEOUSLY**, *adv.*



y to interest; diminution of any thing  
a state of weak defence.

No fort can be so strong,  
ly breast can armed be so sound,  
will at last be won with battery long;  
squares at *disadvantage* found.

*Faerie Queene.*

g of a man's estate, he may as well hurt  
cing too sudden, as in letting it run on  
hasty selling is commonly as *disadvan-*  
terest.

*Bacon.*

a many things resembled Ovid, and that  
antage on the side of the modern author.

*Dryden.*

de of eyes will narrowly inspect every  
minent man, consider him nicely in all  
not be a little pleased when they have  
in the worst and most *disadvantageous*

*Addison's Spectator.*

mony will not be of much weight to its  
since they are liable to the common  
condemning what they did not under-

*Swift.*

ring nod or smile serves to drive you on,  
ou display yourselves more *disadvantage-*

*Government of the Tongue.*

s bodily *disadvantages* must incline him  
borious cultivation of his talent, without  
resaw that he must have languished in

*Shenstone.*

I am like a man who, having struck on  
, and having narrowly escaped shipwreck  
small firth, has yet the temerity to put  
a the same leaky weather-beaten vessel,  
tries his ambition so far as to think of  
the globe under these *disadvantageous* cir-

*Hume on Human Nature.*

VENTUROUS *adj.* Dis and adven-  
happy; unprosperous.

Now he hath left you here,  
the record of his rueful loss,  
of my doleful *disadvantageous* death.

*Faerie Queene.*

ECT, *v. a.* } Dis and affect.  
TED, *part. adj.* } To fill with discon-  
TEDLY, *adv.* } tent; to discontent;  
TEDNESS, *n. s.* } to make less faithful  
TION. } or zealous.

attempted to *disaffect* and discontent his  
army.

*Clarendon.*

laws, princes must have regard to the  
ations, to the affections and *disaffections*  
; and must not introduce a law with  
and displeasure.

*Taylor's Rule of Holy Living.*

civil worship to the emperor's statues,  
om then was to give, they were pro-  
as *disaffected* to the emperor.

*Stillingfleet.*

took its original merely from the *dis-*  
ic part, and not from the peccancy of

*Wiceman.*

RMANCE, *n. s.* Dis and affirm.  
negation.

of reasoning which reduceth the oppo-  
a to something that is apparently absurd,  
ation in *disaffirmance* of any thing that

*Hale.*

To DISAFFOR'EST, *v. a.* Dis and forest.  
To throw open to common purposes; to reduce  
from the privileges of a forest.

The commissioners of the treasury moved the king  
to *disafforest* some forests of his, explaining them-  
selves of such forests as lay out of the way, not near  
any of the king's houses.

*Bacon.*

How happy's he, which hath due place assigned  
To his beasts; and *disafforested* his mind!

*Donne.*

DISAGREE', *v. n.*

DISAGREE'ABLE, *adj.*

DISAGREE'ABLY, *adv.*

DISAGREE'ABLENESS, *n. s.*

DISAGREEMENT.

Dis and agree.  
To differ; to be  
in opposition: *dis-*  
agreeable is, un-  
suitable; displea-

sing. Disagreement, dissimilitude; diversity  
of sentiment; quarrel.

They seemed one to cross another, as touching their  
several opinions about the necessity of sacraments,  
whereas in truth their *disagreement* is not great.

*Hooker.*

It containeth many improprieties, *disagreeing* almost  
in all things from the true and proper description.

*Browne.*

Why both the bands in worship *disagree*,

And some adore the flower, and some the tree.

*Dryden.*

A father will hug and embrace his beloved son, for  
all the dirt and foulness of his cloaths; the dearness

of the person easily apologizing for the *disagreeable-*  
ness of the habit.

*South.*

The mind clearly and infallibly perceives all distinct  
ideas to *disagree*; that is, the one not to be the other.

*Locke.*

To make the sense of esteem or disgrace sink the  
deeper, and be of the more weight, either agreeable  
or *disagreeable* things should constantly accompany  
these different states.

*Id.*

Strange it is, that they reject the plainest sense of  
scripture, because it seems to *disagree* with what they  
call reason.

*Atterbury.*

Some demon, an enemy to the Greeks, had forced  
her to a conduct *disagreeable* to her sincerity.

*Broome.*

Do you not sometimes find dull *disagreeable* ideas  
annexed to certain places, seasons, or employments,  
which give you a secret aversion to them?

*Mason.*

DISALLOW', *v. a. & n. s.*

DISALLOW'ABLE, *adj.*

DISALLOW'ANCE, *n. s.*

Dis and allow.

To deny in res-  
pect to authority,  
legality, or propriety; to refuse permission. *Dis-*  
allowance is prohibition.

God doth in converts, being married, allow con-  
tinuance with infidels, and yet *disallow* that the faith-  
ful, when they are free, should enter into bonds of  
wedlock with such.

*Hooker.*

Neutrality is always a thing dangerous, and *disal-*  
lowable.

*Raleigh.*

When, said she,

Were those first councils *disallowed* by me?

Or where did I at sure tradition strike,

Provided still it were apostolic?

*Dryden's Hind und Panther.*

God accepts of a thing suitable for him to receive,  
and for us to give, where he does not declare his refusal  
and *disallowance* of it.

*South.*

It was known that the most eminent of those who  
professed his own principles, publicly *disallowed* his  
proceedings.

*Swift.*

DISANCHOR, *v. a.* From *dis* and anchor.  
To drive a ship from its anchor.



**DISANIMATE**, *v. a.* } *Dis* and *animate*.  
**DISANIMATE**, *n. s.* } To deprive of life;  
 to discourage; deject.

The presence of a king engenders love amongst his subjects and his loyal friends, as it *disanimates* his enemies.

*Shakespeare, Henry VI.*

They cannot in reason retain that apprehension after death, as being affections which depend on life, and depart upon *disanimation*.

*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

To call the pearly drops from Pity's eye,  
 Or stay Despair's *disanimating* sigh,  
 Whether, O friend of art! the gem you mould  
 Rich with new taste, with ancient virtue bold.

*Darwin.*

**DISANNUL**, *v. a.* } *Dis* and *annul*. This  
**DISANNUL'LING**, *n. s.* } word, as Dr. Johnson  
 observes, is formed, contrarily to analogy and by  
 the needless use of the negative particle. It  
 ought therefore to be rejected, as ungrammatical  
 and barbarous. To annul; to deprive of au-  
 thority; to vacate; to make void.

The covenant that was confirmed before of God in Christ, the law which was four hundred and thirty years after, cannot *disannul*, that it should make the promise of none effect.

*Gal. iii. 17.*

The Jews ordinances for us to resume, were to check our Lord himself, which hath *disannulled* them.

*Hooker,*

That gave him power of *disannulling* of laws, and disposing of men's fortunes and estates, and the like points of absolute power, being in themselves harsh and odious.

*Bacon.*

Wilt thou my judgments *disannul*? Defame  
 My equal rule, to clear thyself of blame?

*Sandys.*

**DISAPPEAR**, *v. n.* Fr. *disparoitre*. To be lost to view; to vanish out of sight; to fly; to go away.

She *disappeared*, and left me dark! I waked  
 To find her, or for ever to deplore.

*Milton.*

When the night and winter *disappear*,  
 The purple morning rising with the year  
 Salutes the spring.

*Dryden.*

If at your coming princes *disappear*,  
 Comets! come every day—and stay a year.

*Dr. Johnson's Poems.*

**DISAPPOINT**, *v. a.* } Old Fr. *desa-*  
**DISAPPOINTMENT**, *n. s.* } *pointer*. To defeat  
 expectation; to delude; cheat; deprive; taking  
 of before the thing lost by disappointment.

Our comfortable expectations in earthly things do not seldom *disappoint* us.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

The superior Being can defeat all his designs, and *disappoint* all his hopes.

*Tillotson.*

If we are *disappointed*, we are still no worse than the rest of our fellow mortals; and if we succeed in our expectations, are eternally happy.

*Burnet.*

How many *disappointments* have, in their consequences, saved a man from ruin!

*Spectator.*

Whilst the champion, with redoubled might,  
 Strikes home the javelin, his retiring foe  
 Shrinks from the wound, and *disappoints* the blow.

*Addison.*

There's nothing like surprising the rogues! How  
 wall they be *disappointed*, when they hear that thou  
 hast prevented their revenge!

*Arbuthnot's Hist. of John Bull.*

**DISAPPOINTMENT ISLANDS**, a cluster of small islands in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered by commodore Byron in 1765, who gave them this name from the shores affording no anchorage to his ships. This obliged him to quit them without landing, or procuring any refreshment for his crew. The inhabitants appeared on the beach armed with spears full sixteen feet long; and they every where discovered hostile intentions. These islands abound with cocoa trees, and turtles are plentiful on the coast. Long. 147° W. lat. from 14° 5' to 14° S.

**DISAPPOINTMENT ISLAND** is also a name given by captain Wilson in 1797 to an island in the South Sea, one of the Duff's group, in E. long. 167°, and S. lat. 9° 57'. See *DUFF*.

**DISAPPROVE**, *v. a.* } Fr. *desapprouver*.  
**DISAPPROBATION**, *n. s.* } To dislike; to censure; expressive of dislike.

I reasoned much, alas! but more I loved;  
 Sent and recalled, ordained, and *disapproved*.

*Pope.*

Without good breeding truth is *disapproved*;  
 That only makes superior sense beloved.  
 He was obliged to publish his letters, to show his *disapprobation* of the publishing of others.

*ii.*

**DISARM**, *v. a.* Fr. *desarmer*. To strip or divest of arms; to deprive of arms.

An order was made by both houses, for *disarming* all the papists in England.

*Clarendon.*

I am still the same,  
 By different ways still moving to one fame;  
 And by *disarming* you I now do more  
 To save the town, than arming you before.

*Dryden.*

Then, where Nemea's howling forests war,  
 He drives the lion to his dusky cave;  
 Seized by the throat the growling fiend *disarms*,  
 And tears his gaping jaws with sinewy arms.

*Darwin.*

**DISARMING**, in law, the prohibiting people to wear arms. It is an offence by the common law of England for persons to go or ride armed with dangerous and uncommon weapons: though gentlemen may wear common armour, according to their quality. It is also ordained by statute, that no persons shall come before the king's justices with force of arms, on pain of imprisonment, &c. We have noticed the introduction of the celebrated disarming act of Scotland into the Highlands, under the article *CLAN*.

**DISARRAY**, *v. a. & n. s.* *Dis* and *array*.  
 To undress any one; to divest of clothes; to dress; disorder.

So, as she bad, the witch they *disarrayed*.

*Faerie Que.*

He returned towards the river, to prevent such danger as the *disarray*, occasioned by the narrowness of the bridge, might cast upon them.

*Hogarth.*

*Disarray* and shameful rout ensue,  
 And force is added to the fainting crew.

*Dryden's Fables.*

Phrase that time hath flung away,  
 Uncouth words in *disarray*,  
 Tricked in antique ruff and bonnet,  
 Ode, and elegy, and sonnet.

*Dr. Johnson's Poems.*



**DUTTY**, *n. s.* Absence of care or

was kept him back; as very well knowing  
a little absence or *disaffection*, he should  
take cold at his back. *Wotton.*

**DISASTER**, *v. a. & n. s.* } Fr. and Span. *desas-*  
 } *tre*; Ital. *desastro*;  
 *adj.* } from Lat. *dis*, ad-

**DISASTROUS**, *adv.* } *stru*, the stars, under adverse stars.  
grief, calamity: disastrous is, unfor-  
warding disaster.

with trains of fire, dews of blood fall;  
and the sun; and the moist star,  
influence Neptune's empire stands,  
lost to doomsday with eclipse.

*Shakespeare.*

the holes where eyes should be, which  
are the cheeks. *Id.*

The moon,  
pale, disastrous twilight sheds  
on nations. *Milton.*

bed of mine, said she, which never  
couldst accuse me of one defiled thought,  
how now receive that *disaster*ed changeling?

*Sidney.*

after his return from this very expedi-  
tious calamities befel his family, that  
of his children himself. *South.*

black omens threat the brightest fair,  
served a watchful spirit's care;  
aster, or by force or slight;  
where, the fates have wrapt in night.

*Pope.*

In his own fields, the swain  
stands. *Thomson.*

**DISAVOW**, *v. a.* } *Dis* and *avow*. To dis-  
 } *avow*, to deny knowledge  
 *AL*, *n. s.* } of; to deny concurrence  
 **MENT**. } or with any person: denial.

aged now, and weary too,  
delight and worlds contentious toyle,  
of knighthood he did *disavow*.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

acts below his rank, doth but *disavow*  
seemeth to be conscious of his own want  
doth but teach others to envy him

*Bacon.*

g the Tridentine history, his holiness  
you to any *disavowment* thereof.

*Wotton.*

does his conquest *disavow*,  
too little what they found too much.

*Dryden.*

induced by the ceremony of taking an  
is a part of that obedience which we  
the gospel, expressly to *disavow* all evasions  
servations whatsoever.

*Addison's Freeholder.*

*disavowal* of fear often proceeds from  
Clarissa.

**DISAUTHORIZE**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *authori-*  
-ize of credit or authority.

on of such particular instances as these,  
it to *disauthorize* a note grounded upon  
tion of nature. *Wotton.*

**DISBAND**, *v. a. & v. n.* Old Fr. *desbander*.  
from military service; to retire; be  
roke up.

was upon the point of *disbanding*, and  
men come ashore.

*Bacon. War with Spain.*

The ranged powers

*Disband*, and wandering each his several way  
Pursues. *Milton.*

The common soldiers, and inferior officers, should  
be fully paid upon their *disbanding*. *Clarendon.*

Pythagoras bids us in our station stand,

Till God, our general, shall us *disband*. *Denham.*

I am content to lead a private life;

*Disband* my army to secure the state.

*Dryden's Aurengzebe.*

Were it not for some small remainders of piety and  
virtue which are yet left scattered among mankind,  
human society would in a short space *disband* and run  
into confusion, and the earth would grow wild and  
become a forest. *Tillotson.*

Bid him *disband* his legions. *Addison's Cato.*

Some imagine that a quantity of water, sufficient  
to make such a deluge, was created upon that occa-  
sion; and, when the business was done, all *disbanded*  
again, and annihilated. *Woodward.*

**DISBARK**, *v. a.* Fr. *debarquer*. To land  
from a ship; to put on shore.

Together sailed they, fraught with all the things  
To service done by land that might belong,  
And, when occasion served, *disbarked* them.

*Fairfax*

The ship we moor on these obscure abodes;

*Disbark* the sheep an offering to the gods.

*Pope's Odyssey.*

**DISBELIEVE**, *v. a.* } From *dis* and *be-*  
 } *lieve*. Not to credit;  
 **DISBELIEV'ER**, *n. s.* } one who refuses belief; one who denies any po-  
 } sition to be true.

The thinking it impossible his sins should be for-  
given, though he should be truly penitent, is a sin,  
but rather of infidelity than despair; it being the *dis-*  
*believing* of an eternal truth of God's.

*Hammond's Practical Catechism.*

Our belief or *disbelief* of a thing does not alter the  
nature of the thing. *Tillotson.*

Such who profess to *disbelieve* a future state, are not  
always equally satisfied with their own reasonings.

*Atterbury.*

An humble soul is frightened into sentiments, be-  
cause a man of great name pronounces heresy upon  
the contrary sentiments, and casts the *disbeliever* out  
of the church. *Watts.*

**DISBENCH**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *bench*. To drive  
from a seat.

Sir, I hope

My words *disbenced* you not?

—No, Sir; yet oft,

When blows have made me stay, I fled from words.

*Shakespeare.*

**DISBRANCH**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *branch*. To  
separate, or break off, as a branch from a tree.

She that herself will sliver and *disbranch*

From her maternal sap, perforce must wither,

And come to deadly use. *Shakespeare. King Lear.*

Such as are newly planted need not be *disbranched*  
till the sap begins to stir, that so the wound may be  
healed without a scar.  *Evelyn's Kalender.*

**DISBUD**, *v. a.* With gardeners. To take  
away the branches or sprigs newly put forth,  
that are ill placed.

**DISBURDEN**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *burden*. To  
ease of a burden; to unload.

The river, with ten branches or streams, *disburdens*  
himself within the Persian Sea.

*Peacham on Draining.*



We shall *disburden* the piece of those hard shadowings, which are always ungraceful.

*Dryden's Dufresnoy.*

They removed either by casualty and tempest, or by intention and design, either out of lucre of gold, or for the *disburdening* of the countries surcharged with multitudes of inhabitants.

*Hale's Origin of Mankind.*

*Disburdened* Heaven rejoiced. *Milton.*

Lucia, *disburden* all thy cares on me,  
And let me share thy most retired distress.

*Addison's Cato.*

To *DISBURSE'*, *v. a.* Fr. *debourser*; *dis* and *burse*. To spend or lay out money.

The queen's treasure, in so great occasions of *disbursements*, is not always so ready, nor so plentiful, as it can spare so great a sum together.

*Spenser's Ireland.*

Nor would we deign him burial for his men,  
Till he *disbursed* ten thousand dollars. *Shakespeare.*

As Alexander received great sums, he was no less generous and liberal in *disbursing* of them.

*Arbutnot on Coins.*

**DISC**, in antiquity, a quoit made of stone, iron, or copper, five or six fingers broad, and above a foot long, somewhat of an oval figure. It was nurl'd like a bowl to a vast distance, by the help of a leathern thong, tied round the thrower's hand and put through a hole in the middle. According to Ovid, Met. 10, Apollo laid down his divinity, and abandoned the charge of his oracle at Delphi, to go to Sparta to play at the discus, where he mortally wounded his favorite Hyacinthus. Pausanias gives the invention of the game to Perseus, the son of Jupiter and Danae, who had the misfortune to kill his maternal grandfather Acrisius with his disc.

The game of discus was in practice at the time of the Trojan war. The myrmidons of Achilles practised it, during their leader's inaction, on the sea-shore, while burning with ire against Agamemnon. Homer also records it as among the gymnastic sports given at the funeral obsequies of Patroclus, with an iron discus.

**Disc**, in astronomy, the face of the sun and moon, as they appear to us on the earth; or the face of the earth as it appears to a spectator in the moon.

**Disc**, in optics, the wideness of the aperture of a telescopic glass, whether plain, convex, concave, or of any other form.

**DISCALCEATED**, *adj.* } Lat. *discalceatus*.

**DISCALCEATION**, *n. s.* } Stripped of shoes: the act of pulling off the shoes.

The custom of *discalceation*, or putting off their shoes at meals, is conceived to have been done, as by that means keeping their beds clean.

*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

**DISCANDY**, *v. n.* From *dis* and *candy*. To dissolve; to melt.

The hearts

That spaniel'd me at heels, to whom I gave  
Their wishes, do *discandy*, melt their sweets  
On blossoming Cæsar. *Shakespeare.*

**DISCARD**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *card*. To throw out of the hand such cards as are useless: hence to dismiss or eject from service or employment.

Their captains, if they list, *discard* whom they please, and send away such as will perhaps willingly be rid of that dangerous and hard service.

*Spenser's State of Ireland.*

These men being certainly jewels to a considering what wonders they were able to yet were *discarded* by that unworthy prize worthy the holding.

And laughter where it reigns unshak'd  
*Discards* and dissipates respect. *Shakespeare.*

Should we own that we have a very idea of substance, would it not be hard us with *discarding* substance out of the world?

Justice *discards* party, friendship, kindness always therefore represented as blind.

*Addison's Cato.*

**DISCARDNATE**, *adj.* *Dis* and *card* flesh; Ital. *scarnato*. Stripped of flesh.

'Tis better to own a judgment, though but curta supplest of coherent notions; than like a sepulchre, furnished with a load of *discarnate* bones.

To **DISCASE**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *case*. To undress.

Fetch me the hat and rapier in my  
I will *discase* me, and myself present.

*Shakespeare.*

**DISCERN**, *v. a. & v. n.* } Fr. *discernir* and *Portuguese*  
**DISCERN'ER**, *n. s.* } and *Portuguese*  
**DISCERN'IBLE**, *adj.* } *nir*; Ital.  
**DISCERN'IBLENESS**, } *discernere*  
**DISCERN'IBLY**, } *cernere*; *discernere*  
**DISCERN'ING**, *part. adj.* } to judge  
**DISCERN'INGLY**, *adv.* } mine. *discernere*  
**DISCERN'MENT**. } discover;

guish; judge: as a neuter verb to mention. Discerning is knowing; discern. The meaning of the other derivative plain.

And behold among the simple ones,  
among the youths a young man void of *discerning*. *Psalm.*

You shall be ruled and led

By some discretion, that *discerns* your state  
Better than you yourself. *Shakespeare.*

Does any here know me? This is not I  
Does Lear walk thus, speak thus? Who  
eyes?

Either his motion weakens, or his *discerning*  
Are lethargied.

'Twas said they saw but one; and now  
Durst wag his tongue in censure. *Id. Henry IV.*

They follow virtue for reward to-day  
To-morrow vice, if she give better pay  
We are so good, or bad, just at a price  
For nothing else *discerns* the virtue of

It *discerneth* of forces, frauds, crimes  
stellionate, and the inchoations towards  
pity, not actually perpetrated.

Consider what doctrines are infused  
amongst Christians, most apt to obstruct  
the christian life.

He was a great observer and *discerns*  
natures and humours, and was very dextrous  
pliancy, where he found it useful.

All this is easily *discernible* by the  
courses of the understanding.

To *discern* such buds as are fit to produce  
from such as will display themselves but  
no difficult matter.



What doth better become wisdom than to discern  
that is worthy the loving? *Sidney.*

The custom of arguing on any side, even against  
persuasions, dims the understanding, and makes  
by degrees lose the faculty of discerning between  
truth and falsehood. *Locke.*

These two errors Ovid has most discerningly  
avoided. *Garth.*

It is indeed a sin of so gross, so formidable a bulk,  
that there needs no help of optics to render it dis-  
cernible, and therefore I need not farther expatiate on  
*Government of the Tongue.*

A reader that wants discernment, loves and admires  
the characters and actions of men in a wrong place.  
*Freholder.*

Safe in his power, whose eyes discern afar  
The secret ambush of a specious prayer;  
Implore his aid, in his decisions rest,  
Secure, whate'er he gives, he gives the best.  
*Johnson. Vanity of Human Wishes.*

DISCERN', *v. a.* } Lat. *discerpo*. To  
DISCERN'THLE, *adj.* } tear in pieces; to break;  
to destroy by separation of its parts.

What is most dense, and least porous, will be  
most coherent and least discernible.

*Glanville's Scepis.*  
Matter is moveable, this immovable; matter dis-  
cernible, this indiscernible. *More.*

DISCHARGE', *v. a., v., n., & n. s.* } Dis and  
DISCHARGE'ER, *n. s.* } charge, or  
*Fr. descharger.* To disburden, throw off, deliver  
from a load, a debt, crime, or obligation; hence  
to perform duty, as well as to dismiss from office,  
or employ; to emit. As a neuter verb, to ex-  
plode. As a substantive, discharge is emission,  
or explosion; matter emitted; disruption; dis-  
mission, or release, from duty or punishment.  
Performance of duty.

There is no discharge in that war, neither shall  
wickedness deliver those that are given to it.

*Eccles. viii. 8.*  
They wanted not reasons to be discharged of all  
sins, who are confessed to have no great fault, even  
by their very word and testimony, in whose eyes no  
fault of ours hath ever hitherto been esteemed to be  
small. *Hooker.*

Infected minds  
To their deaf pillows will discharge their secrets.  
*Shakespeare. Macbeth.*

If he had  
The present money to discharge the Jew,  
He would not take it. *Id. Merchant of Venice.*

Trial would also be made in herbs poisonous and  
purgative, whose ill quality perhaps may be discharged,  
or attempered, by setting stronger poisons or purga-  
tives by them. *Bacon.*

The cloud, if it were oily or fatty, would not dis-  
charge. *Bacon's Natural History.*

The galleys also did oftentimes, out of their prows,  
discharge their great pieces against the city.  
*Knoller's History.*

A grateful mind  
By owing owes not, but still pays; at once  
Indebted and discharged. *Milton.*

He warns  
Us, haply too secure of our discharge  
From penalty, because from death released  
Some days. *Id.*

To abate the bombilation of powder, a way is  
promised by Porta, by borax and butter, which he says

will make it so go off, as scarcely to be heard by the  
discharger. *Broune.*

They are imprudent enough to discharge themselves  
of this blunder, by laying the contradiction at Virgil's  
door. *Dryden.*

Had I a hundred tongues, a wit so large  
As could their hundred offices discharge.

*Dryden's Fables.*

The text expresses the sound estate of the con-  
science, not barely by its not accusing, but by its not  
condemning us; which word imports properly an  
acquittance or discharge of a man upon some prece-  
dent accusation, and a full trial and cognizance of his  
cause. *South.*

If one man's fault could discharge another man of  
his duty, there would be no place left for the common  
offices of society. *L'Estrange.*

When foreign trade imports more than our com-  
modities will pay for, we contract debts beyond sea; and  
those are paid with money, when they will not take  
our goods to discharge them. *Locke.*

As the heat of all springs is owing to subterraneous  
fire, so wherever there are any extraordinary discharges  
of this fire, there also are the neighbouring springs  
hotter than ordinary. *Woodward.*

The man who builds, and wants wherewith to pay,  
Provides a house from which to run away.

In Britain what is many a lordly seat  
But a discharge in full for an estate? *Young.*

We discharged a pistol, and had the sound returned  
upon us fifty-six times, though the air was foggy.

*Addison on Italy.*

Soon may kind heaven a sure relief provide;  
Soon may your sire discharge the vengeance due,  
And all your wrongs the proud oppressors rue.

*Pope's Odyssey.*  
The matter being suppurated, I opened an inflamed  
tubercle in the great angle of the left eye, and dis-  
charged a well concocted matter. *Wiseman's Surgery.*

The hæmorrhage being stopped, the next occurrence  
is a thin serous discharge. *Sharp's Surgery.*

DISCINCT', *adj.* Lat. *discinctus*. Ungirded;  
loosely dressed.

DISCIND', *v. a.* Lat. *discindo*. To divide;  
to cut in pieces.

We found several concretions so soft, that we could  
easily discind them betwixt our fingers. *Boyle.*

DISCIPLE, *v. a. & n. s.* } *Fr. disciple*;  
DISCIPLESHIP. } *Span. and Port.*  
*discipulo*; Lat. *discipulus*, from *disciplina*. One  
who submits himself to discipline as a scholar.  
See DISCIPLINE. Discipleship is the state of  
being a disciple.

So that the *discipulis* were named at Antioche cris-  
ten men. *Wiclif. Dedis. 11.*

She, bitter penance! with an iron whip  
Was wont him to discipl every day. *Spenser.*

He did look far  
Into the service of the time, and was  
Discipl'd of the bravest. *Shakespeare*

That to which justification is promised, is the giving  
up of the whole soul intirely unto Christ, undertaking  
discipleship upon Christ's terms.

*Hammond's Pract. Catech.*

He rebuked disciples who would call for fire from  
heaven upon whole cities, for the neglect of a few.  
*King Charles.*

A young disciple should behave himself so well, as  
to gain the affection and the ear of his instructor  
*Watts.*



For, as Christians, we are the *disciples*, the followers, and the servants of Christ, redeemed by him.

Mason.

Yea, a *disciple*, that would make the Founder Of your belief renounce it, could he see Such proselytes.

Byron.

DISCIPLE, in a more restrained sense, is the designation applied to those who were the immediate followers and attendants on Christ's person, of whom there were seventy or seventy-one. The terms disciple and apostle are often used synonymously in the gospel history; but sometimes the apostles are distinguished from disciples, as persons selected out of the number of disciples, to be the principal ministers of his religion: of these there were only twelve. The Latins kept the festival of the seventy or seventy-two disciples on July 15th, and the Greeks on January 4th.

DISCIPLINE, *v. a. & n. s.*

DISCIPLINABLE, *adj.*

DISCIPLINABLENESS, *n. s.*

DISCIPLINARIAN, *n. s. & adj.*

DISCIPLINARY.

*disco*, to learn, because discipline is necessary to teaching. To educate, instruct, with power to punish; to advance by instruction. As a substantive discipline is, instruction; rule; any thing taught; system of government; mortification; punishment. Disciplinable is, docile; capable of discipline. Disciplinarian, relating to, and as a substantive one zealous for, discipline. Disciplinary, pertaining to discipline.

If any virtue, if any preising of *discipline*, thenke ghe these thingis, that also ghe han lerned.

Wiclif. *Filipensis* 4.

He had charge my *discipline* to frame,

And tutors nouriture to oversee.

Spenser.

As we are to believe for ever the articles of evangelical doctrine, so the precepts of *discipline*, we are, in like sort, bound for ever to observe.

Hooker.

The cold of the northern parts is that which, without aid of *discipline*, doth make the bodies hardest, and the courage warmest.

Bacon.

This opens all your victories in Scotland, Your *discipline* in war, wisdom in peace.

Shakespeare.

The law appeared imperfect, and but given With purpose to resign them in full time

Up to a better covenant, *disciplined*

From shadowy types to truth, from flesh to spirit.

Milton.

These are the studies wherein our noble and gentle youth ought to bestow their time in a *disciplinary* way.

Id.

The love of God makes a man chaste without the laborious arts of fasting and exterior *discipline*; he reaches at glory without any other arms but those of love.

Taylor.

Art may be said to overcome and advance nature in these mechanical *disciplines*, which, in this respect, are much to be preferred.

Wilkins.

We find in animals, especially some of them, as foxes, dogs, apes, horses, and elephants, not only perception, phantasy, and memory, common to most, if not all animals, but something of sagacity, providence, and *disciplinableness*.

Hale.

Let crooked steel invade The lawless troops which *discipline* disclaim, And their superfluous growth with rigour tame.

Dryden.

What eagerness in *disciplinarians* when the love of God and our neighbour, even unquestionables, are neglected!

Giles.

The most perfect, who have their passions best *discipline*, are yet obliged to be constantly guard.

They look to us, as we should judge of as well-disciplined soldiers at a distance.

Derham's *Astro-Th*

They were with care prepared and *disciplined* confirmation, which they could not arrive at were found, upon examination, to have made great progress in the knowledge of *Christianity*.

Addison on the *Christian R*

They draw those that dissent into *discipline* state, as puritans, or *disciplinarians*.

Sanders. *Pa*

Those canons in behalf of marriage were *disciplinary*, grounded on prudential motives.

Bp.

It is by the assistance of the eye, and the *discipline*, which are called the senses of *discipline*, minds are furnished with various parts of *discipline*.

The passions may be humoured till they our master, as a horse may be pampered till the better of his rider; but early *discipline* vent mutiny, and keep the helm in the hands of the master.

Cam

In colleges and halls in ancient days,

When learning, virtue, piety, and truth,

Were precious and inculcated with care,

There dwelt a sage called *Discipline*.

DISCIPLINE, ECCLESIASTICAL, consists in putting those laws in execution by which the church is governed, and inflicting the penalties enjoined by them against the several offenders. The primitive church never pretended to exercise discipline upon any but those who were within her pale in the largest sense, act of their own profession: and even these she never pretended to exercise discipline so far as to cancel or disannul baptism: all that she pretended to was, to men of the benefits of external communion as public prayer, receiving the eucharist, and other acts of divine worship. The church discipline was confined to the admonition party, and to the lesser and greater excommunication. As to the objects of ecclesiastical discipline, they were all such delinquents as committed great and scandalous crimes after baptism, in a more peculiar sense, is used to signify bodily punishments inflicted on a reprobate the Romish church who has been found guilty; or even for that which the religiously undergo or inflict on themselves of mortification.

DISCIPLINE, THE BOOK OF, in the church of Scotland, is a common law drawn up by the assembly of ministers for the reformation and uniformity to be in the discipline and policy of the church. This book the government of the church is set aside, kirk sessions are established, observation of fast days and saints' days is demanded, and other regulations for the government of the church are determined. This book is approved by the privy council, and is the First Book of Discipline.

DISCLAIM, *v. a.* } *Dis* and *claim*. To  
 REE, *n. s.* } disown; to deny any  
 if; to retract any union with; to ab-  
 disclaimer is both one that disclaims,  
 renounces, and a legal or other plea  
 to express denial or refusal.

How dly rascal! nature *disclaims* all share in  
 it made thee. *Shakespeare. King Lear.*  
 the gods to witness their offence;  
 the war, asserts his innocence.

*Dryden's Æneid.*  
 our Lord, on all occasions, *disclaiming* all  
 a temporal kingdom. *Rogers.*

among those who profess themselves  
*disclaim* all concern for their souls, disown  
 or renounce the expectations, of the  
 Id.

DISCLOSE, *v. a.* } Lat. *discludo*, *dis* and  
 ER, *n. s.* } close. To uncover; to  
 URE, } produce to open view.  
 IONS, *n. s.* } Disclusion is emission.

be a reconciliation, except for upbraiding,  
*disclosing* of secrets, or a treacherous  
 from these things every friend will depart.

*Ecclesi.*  
 cing of cold is a thing very worthy the  
 oth for the use and *disclosure* of causes.

*Bacon.*  
 oportioned wonders can *disclose*,  
 fancy and his judgment shows. *Waller.*

at a ridiculous thing it were, that the con-  
 w of the earth should be broken by sud-  
 den eruptions and *disclosures* of light, to  
 art of the lantern-maker. *More.*

and ocean various forms *disclose*.  
*Dryden.*

If I *disclose* my passion,  
 ndship's at an end; If I conceal it,  
 Id will call me false. *Addison's Cato.*

r-youths with light umbrellas shade,  
 busy hands the panting maid;  
 ver locks, *disclosing*, as they break,  
 som and averted cheek. *Darwin.*

Ah! why  
 keep apart, and walk alone,  
 strong emotions stamp your brow,  
 ing their full import, yet  
 such?

*Disclose* too much!—of what?  
 to *disclose*. *Byron.*

DISCOLOR, *v. a.* } Lat. *decoloro*. To  
 URATION, *n. s.* } change from the natu-  
 stain. The change produced, or art  
 is discoloration.

a kirtle of *discoloured* say  
 ed was, ypaynted full of eyes.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*  
 widow's husband grovelling lies,  
 tracing the *discoloured* earth.

*Shakespeare. King John.*  
 er, either pure, or but *discoloured* with  
 Temple.

sions, and fantastical surmise,  
 lousy, with jaundice in her eyes,  
 ing all she viewed. *Dryden.*

at least some beloved notion, or some dar-  
 so prevail over your mind as to *discolour*  
 Watts.

variation of the humours from a sound state  
 physicians call by a general name of a  
 spots and *discolorations* of the skin are  
 fibres. *Arbushnot.*

DISCOMFIT, *v. a. & n. s.* } Fr. *desconfire*;  
 DISCOMFUTURE, *n. s.* } Ital. *sconfiggere*,  
 from Lat. *disconfigere*. To defeat; to conquer;  
 overpower; subdue.

Joshua *disconfited* Amalek and his people with the  
 edge of the sword. *Exodus.*

The pillowes hide hir business: and cure,  
 After the bataille and *discomfiture*.  
*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

For in this world there ne is no creture  
 Walking, alas! in more *discomfiture*  
 Than I, ne that more sorrowe doth endure. *Donne.*

Fight against that monstrous rebel, Cade,  
 Whom, since, I heard to be *discomfited*.  
*Shakespeare.*

Fly you must: incurable *discomfit*  
 Reigns in the hearts of all our present party. *Id.*

Dagon must stoop, and shall ere long receive  
 Such a *discomfit*; as shall quite despoil him  
 Of all these boasted trophies. *Milton's Agonistes.*

While my gallant countrymen are employed in pur-  
 suing rebels half *discomfited* through the consciousness  
 of their guilt, I shall improve those victories to the  
 good of my fellow subjects. *Addison.*

DISCOMFORT, *v. a. & n. s.* } *Dis* and *com-*  
 DISCOMFORTABLE, *adj.* } fort. To grieve;  
 sadden; deject: as a substantive, uneasiness;  
 sorrow; melancholy.

Therefore whanne ye seen the abomynacioun of  
*discomfort*, that is seid of Danyel the profete ston-  
 dyng in the hooly place, he that redith undirstonde  
 he. *Wiclif. Matt. 24.*

This himself did foresee, and therefore armed his  
 church, to the end they might sustain it without *dis-*  
 comfort. *Hooker.*

*Discomfort* guides my tongue,  
 And bids me speak of nothing but despair.  
*Shakespeare.*

*Discomfortable* cousin, knowest thou not  
 That when the searching eye of Heaven is hid  
 Behind the globe, it lights the lower world? *Id.*

It is no *discomfort* for a man to flee, when his  
 conscience pursues him not.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*  
 What! did that help poor Dorus, whose eyes could  
 carry unto him no other news but *discomfortable*?

In solitude there is not only *discomfort*, but weak-  
 ness also. *Sidney.*  
*South.*

DISCOMMEND, *v. a.* } *Dis* and *com-*  
 DISCOMMENDABLE, *adj.* } mend. To  
 DISCOMMENDABLENESS, *n. s.* } blame; to cen-  
 DISCOMMENDATION, *n. s.* } sure: *discom-*  
 DISCOMMENDER. } mendable is  
 blameable, deserving censure: *discommendation*,  
 censure: *discommender*, he who expresses or  
 bestows it.

Absolutely we cannot *discommend*, we cannot abso-  
 lutely approve, either willingness to live, or forward-  
 ness to die. *Hooker.*

Now you will all be wits: and he, I pray,  
 And you, that *discommend* it, mend the play.  
*Denham.*

Neither do I *discommend* the lofty style in tragedy,  
 which is naturally pompous and magnificent.  
*Dryden.*

Pusillanimity is, according to Aristotle's morality  
 a vice very *discommendable*. *Ayliffe's Parergon.*



Tully assigns three motions, whereby, without any *discommendation*, a man might be drawn to become an accuser of others. *Id.*

**DISCOMMODE'**, *v. a.* } *Fr. dis and com-*  
**DISCOMMODOUS**, *adj.* } *mode.* To put to  
**DISCOMMO'DITY**, *n. s.* } inconvenience; to  
molest; to incommode. The adjective and substantive follow this meaning.

So many thousand soldiers, unfit for any labour, or other trade, must either seek service and employment abroad, which may be dangerous; or else employ themselves here at home, which may be *discommodious*.

*Spenser's State of Ireland.*

We speak now of usury, how the *discommodities* of it may be best avoided, and the commodities retained: or how, in the balance of commodities and *discommodities*, the qualities of usury are to be reconciled.

*Bacon.*

It is better that a ship should be preserved with some *discommodity* to the sailors, than that, the sailors being in health, the ship should perish. *Hayward.*

**DISCOMPOSE'**, *v. a.* } *Fr. décomposer.*  
**DISCOMPOSURE**, *n. s.* } To disorder; to un-  
settle: hence to offend; vex; irritate. *Dis-*  
*composure* is the effect thus produced.

Though he was a dark prince, and infinitely suspicious, he never put down or *discomposed* a counsellor or near servant. *Bacon.*

He threw himself upon his bed, lamenting with much passion, and with abundance of tears; and continued in this melancholick *discomposure* of mind many days. *Clarendon.*

No more, dear mother: ill in death it shows,  
Your peace of mind by rage to *discompose*. *Dryden.*

Men who possess all the advantages of life, are in a state where there are many accidents to disorder and *discompose*, but few to please them. *Swift.*

**DISCONCERT**, *v. a.* *Dis* and concert. To unsettle; *discompose*; disturb a scheme.

You need not provoke their spirits by outrages: a careless gesture, a word, or a look, is enough to *disconcert* them. *Collier.*

**DISCONFORMITY**, *n. s.* *Dis* and conformity. Want of agreement; inconsistency.

Lies arise from error and mistake, or malice and forgery; they consist in the disagreement and *disconformity* betwixt the speech and the conception of the mind, or the conceptions of the mind and the things themselves, or the speech and the things.

*Hakewill on Providence.*

**DISCONGRUITY**, *n. s.* *Dis* and congruity. Disagreement; inconsistency.

There is want of capacity in the thing, to sustain such a duration, from the intrinsical *discongruity* of the one to the other.

*Hale's Origin of Mankind.*

**DISCONSOLATE**, *adj.* } *Dis* and console.  
**DISCONSOLATELY**, *adv.* } Void of comfort;  
**DISCONSOLATENESS**, *n. s.* } hopeless; sorrow-  
ful; melancholy.

See Cassius all *disconsolate*,  
With Pindarus his bondman on this hill.

*Shakespeare.*

In his [God's] absence, there is nothing but *dolour*, *disconsolateness*, and despair. *Bp. Hall.*

If patiently thy bidding they obey,  
Dismiss them not *disconsolate*. *Milton.*

The ladies and the knights, no shelter nigh,

Were dropping wet, *disconsolate* and wan,  
And through their thin array received the rain. *Dryden.*

The moon reflects the sunbeams to us, and so, in illuminating the air, takes away in some measure the *disconsolate* darkness of our winter nights. *Bp.*

I am first affrighted and confounded with that lorn solitude in which I am placed by my philosophy, and fancy myself some strange uncouth monster, who, not being able to unite and mingle in society, has been expelled all human commerce, and left utterly abandoned and *disconsolate*.

*Hume. On the Human Understanding.*

**DISCONTENT'**, *n. s. & adj.* } *Dis* and Con-  
**DISCONTENT'ED**, *part. adj.* } TEST, which  
**DISCONTENT'EDLY**, *adv.* } see. Un-  
**DISCONTENTEDNESS**, *n. s.* } ness; discon-  
**DISCONTENT'MENT**. } faction with

one's present state. *Discontentment* is an old word, expressing the same meaning.

These are the vices that fill them with general *discontentment*, as though the bosom of that famous death, wherein they live, were more noisome than any *discontent*. *Howe.*

I see your brows full of *discontent*,  
Your hearts of sorrows, and your eyes of tears. *Shakespeare.*

The politick and artificial nourishing and sustaining of hopes, and carrying men from hope to hopes, is one of the best antidotes against the pain of *discontentment*. *Bacon.*

The misery which is supposed to follow poverty, arises, not from want, but from peevishness and *discontent*. *Bacon.*

Pride is ever *discontented*, and still seeks rest of boasting in her own works.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplation.*

The rest were seized with sullen *discontent*,  
And a deaf murmur through the squadrons went. *Dryden.*

These are, beyond comparison, the two greatest evils in this world; a diseased body, and a *discontented* mind. *Tulcan.*

A beautiful bust of Alexander the Great cast up his face to heaven with a noble air of grief, or *discontentedness*, in his looks. *Addison's Travels.*

As a man inebriated only by vapours, soon recovers in the open air; a nation *discontented* to madness, without any adequate cause, will return to its wisdom and allegiance, when a little pause has cooled it to reflection. *Johnson.*

**DISCONTINUE**, *v. a. & v. n.* } *Fr. dé-*  
**DISCONTINU'ITY**, *n. s.* } continuer.

To leave off; to cease; break off; interrupt; as a neuter verb, to lose cohesion, or any established right.

Thyself shall *discontinue* from thine heritage that I give thee, and I will cause thee to serve thine enemies. *Jer.*

Twenty puny lies I'll tell,  
That men shall swear I have *discontinued* school  
Above a twelvemonth. *Shakespeare.*

Examine thy customs of diet, sleep, exercise, apparel, and the like; and try, in any thou shalt judge hurtful, to *discontinue* it by little and little; but so, as if thou find any inconvenience by the change, thou come back to it again. *Bacon.*

There is that property, in all letters, of aptness to be conjoined in syllables and words, through the valuable motions of the organs from one stop or figure to another, that they modify and discriminate the voice, without appearing to *discontinue* it.

*Holder's Elements of Speech.*



ider whether our approaches to him refreshing, and if we are uneasy under *tinuance* of our conversation with him.

*Atterbury.*

continuation of parts, made either by shaking the glass, the whole mercury

*Newton.*

unity of parts is the principal cause of bodies, will appear by considering that ices become transparent by filling their substance of equal, or almost equal, air parts.

*Id.*

discontinuance of possession is, that a enter upon his own land or tenement tosoever his right be unto it, or by his ; but must seek to recover possession effect of *discontinuance* of plea is, that ay not be taken up again, but by a new he suit afresh.

*Conwell.*

VENIENCE, *n. s.* Dis and con-  
congruity; disagreement; opposi-

many times out of natural antipathies  
t, in these *disconveniences* of nature,  
th no place at all.

*Bramhall's Answer to Hobbes.*

D, *v. n. & n. s.* } Fr. *discord*; Sp.  
NCE, *n. s.* } Ital. and Lat. *dis-*  
NCY, *n. s.* } cordia; from *dis*  
NT, *adj.* } and *cors*, *cordis*,  
NTLY, *adv.* } the heart; an ad-  
To disagree; not to accord with.  
ntive, disagreement; opposition;  
ntrariety of, or ill agreement be-  
ls. Discordance and discordancy  
nonymous with discord.

doth the Lord hate, the false witness  
lies, and he that soweth *discord* among

*Proverbs.*

scourge is laid upon your hate,  
nds means to kill your joys with love!  
sling at your *discords* too,  
ace of kinsmen.

*Shakespeare. Romeo and Juliet.*

alone that doth immediately and incor-  
most; this is most manifest in music,  
and *discords* in music: for all sounds,  
be sharp or flat, if they be sweet, have  
ad equality; and if they be harsh, are  
a *discord* itself is but a harshness of  
meeting.

*Bacon.*

slowest, yet the daintiest sense;  
e ears of such as have no skill  
a *discord*, and conceive offence;  
ng not what's good, yet find the ill.

*Davies.*

music amaze us, when of *discords* she  
eetest harmony!

*Peacham.*

science is to be referred; if by a com-  
gs done with the rule there be a con-  
follows the sentence of approbation; if  
a it, the sentence of condemnation.

*Hale's Origin of Mankind.*

of a musical instrument being struck  
ing two noises that arrive at the ear at  
as to sense, yield a sound differing  
them, and as it were compounded of  
ch, that if they be *discordantly* tuned,  
f them struck apart would yield a pleas-

ing sound, yet being struck together they make  
harsh and troublesome noise.

*Boyle on Colours.*

*Discord*, like that of music's various parts,

*Discord* that makes the harmony of hearts;

*Discord* that only this dispute shall bring,

Who best shall love the duke and serve the king.

*Dryden.*

All nature is but art unknown to thee;

All chance, direction which thou canst not see;

All *discord*, harmony not understood;

All partial evil, universal good.

*Pope.*

DISCORD, in music, every sound which, joined  
with another, forms an assemblage disagreeable  
to the ear; or, rather, every interval whose ex-  
tremes do not coalesce. Now, as there are no  
other concords, or consonances, except those  
which form amongst themselves, and with their  
fundamental sound, perfect chords, it follows that  
every other interval must be a real dissonance or  
discord: even the third and sixth were reckoned  
such among the ancients, who excluded them  
from the number of consonant chords. The term  
dissonance, which is synonymous with discord  
both in a literal and metaphorical sense, signifies  
disagreement or disunion. In reality, that which  
renders dissonances grating is, that the sounds  
which form them, far from uniting in the ear,  
seem to repel each other, and are heard each by  
itself as two distinct sounds though produced at  
the same time. This repulsion or violent oscilla-  
tion of sounds is heard more or less as the  
vibrations which produce it are more or less fre-  
quently coincident. When two vocal strings are  
gradually tuned, till they approach a consonant  
interval, the pulsations become slower as the  
chord grows more just, till at last they are  
scarcely heard, if heard at all; whence it appears  
certain that the pleasure, produced in us by har-  
mony, results from the more or less exact and  
frequent coincidence of vibrations; though the  
reason why this coincidence should give pleasure,  
more than any other modification or combination  
of sounds, appears to us inscrutable. The agree-  
able effects of dissonance, in harmony, are no  
objection to this theory: since it is allowed that  
the sensations excited by discord are not in them-  
selves immediately and necessarily pleasing, but  
only please by auricular deception. The ear is  
surprised with the shock it receives; and, in  
proportion as it is harsh and grating, we feel the  
pleasure of returning harmony enhanced, and the  
disappointment of being artfully and insensibly  
extricated more agreeable. The name of disso-  
nance is given sometimes to the interval, and  
sometimes to each of the sounds which form it.  
But, though two sounds equally form a disso-  
nance between themselves, the name is most fre-  
quently given to that sound in particular which  
is most extraneous to the chord. The number  
of possible dissonances is indefinite; but as in  
music we exclude all intervals which are not  
found in the system received, the number of dis-  
sonances is reduced to a very few: besides, in  
practice, we can only select from those few such  
as are agreeable to the species, and the mode, in  
which we compose; and from this last number  
we must exclude such as cannot be used consis-  
tently with the rules prescribed. But what are  
these rules? Have they any foundation in nature



or are they merely arbitrary? This is what Rousseau has endeavoured to investigate and to deduce, with more ingenuity than success, from principles purely mechanical.

DISCOVER, *v. a.* } Fr. *découvrir*; *dis*  
DISCOVERABLE, *adj.* } and cover. To see or  
DISCOVERER, *n. s.* } explore; to show;  
DISCOVERY. } disclose; bring to  
light; make plain or visible.

He *discovereth* deep things out of darkness, and bringeth out to light the shadow of death.

*Job xii. 22.*

When we had *discovered* Cyprus, we left it on the left hand. *Acts.*

Let that man with better sense advise,  
That of the world least part to us is read;  
And daily how through hardy enterprize  
Many great regions are *discovered*.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

The utter wauls of it yet stond. The kepe is exceeding fair and strong; and in the waulles be certain strong towers. The lodgings that were within the area of the castelle be *discovered* and faul to ruine.

*Leland.*

Here stand my lords, and send *discoverers* forth,  
To know the numbers of our enemies. *Shakespeare.*  
What, must I hold a candle to my shame?  
They in themselves, good sooth, are too, too light.  
Why 'tis an office of *discovery*, love,  
And I should be obscured. *Id. Merchant of Venice.*

Some high climbing hill,

Which to his eye *discovers* unaware  
The goodly prospect of some foreign land,  
First seen, or some renowned metropolis  
With glistering spires and battlements adorned.

*Milton.*

Man with strength and free will armed  
Complete, to have *discovered* and repulsed  
Whatever wiles of foe or seeming friend. *Id.*  
They were deceived by Satan, and that not in an invisible situation, but in an open and *discoverable* apparition, that is, in the form of a serpent.

*Broune's Vulgar Errors.*

If more be found out, they will not recompense the *discoverer's* pains, but will be fitter to be cast out.

*Holder.*

The cover of the coach was made with such joints, that as they might, to avoid the weather, pull it up lose, so they might put each end down, and remain as *discovered* and open-sighted as on horseback.

*Sidney.*

Of all who since have used the open sea,  
Than the bold English none more fame have won;  
Beyond the year, and out of heaven's high way,  
They make *discoveries* where they see no sun.

*Dryden.*

Things that appeared amiable by the light of this world, appear of a different odious hue in the clear *discoveries* of the next. *South.*

An old maiden gentlewoman is the greatest *discoverer* of judgments; she can tell you what sin it was that set such a man's house on fire.

*Addison's Spectator.*

It is concluded by astronomers, that the atmosphere of the moon hath no clouds nor rains, but a perpetual and uniform serenity; because nothing *discoverable* in the lunar surface is ever covered and absconded by the interposition of any clouds or mists.

*Bentley.*

Places receive appellations, according to the language of the *discoverer*, from observations made upon the people. *Broune.*

Revelation may assert two things to be joined, whose connection or agreement is not *discoverable* by reason. *Watts.*

DISCOUNSEL, *v. a.* *Dis* and counsel. To dissuade; to give contrary advice. *Obsol.*

But him that palmer from that vanity  
With temperate advice *discounsell'd*. *Spenser.*

DISCOUNT, *v. a. & n. s.* From *dis* and count. To count back; to pay back again. Interest so counted after a principal given.

My father's, mother's, brother's death I *perjure*:  
My prayers and penance shall *discount* for them.  
And beg of heaven to charge the bill on me.

*Dryden.*

The farmers, spitefully combined,  
Force him to take his tithes in kind;  
And Parvisol *discounts* arrears  
By bills for taxes and repairs. *South.*

His whole intention was, to buy a certain quantity of copper money from Wood, at a large *discount*, and sell them as well as he could. *Id.*

DISCOUNT, in commerce, a term among traders, merchants, and bankers. It is used by the two former on occasion of their buying commodities on the usual time of credit, with a condition that the seller shall allow the buyer a certain discount, at the rate of so much per cent. per annum, for the time for which the credit is generally given, upon condition that the buyer pays ready money for such commodities, instead of taking the time of credit. Traders and merchants also frequently taking promissory notes for moneys due, payable to them or order at a certain time, and sometimes having occasion for money before the time is elapsed, procure these notes to be discounted by bankers before the time of payment. Bills of exchange are also discounted by bankers; and in this consists one article of the profits of banking. See BANK.

DISCOURTENANCE, *v. a. & n. s.* From *dis* and DISCOURTENER, *n. s.* [n. s.] and *discourten*. To discourage by cold treatment: one who discourages.

Rumours of scandal and murmurs against the king and his government, taxed him for a great taxer of his people, and *discourtenance* of his nobility. *Bacon.*

He thought a little *discourtenance* upon those persons would suppress that spirit. *Clarendon.*

He came, and with him Eve, more loth, tho' first  
To offend; *discourtenanced* both, and discompos'd. *Milton.*

The truly upright judge will always *discourtenance* right, and *discourtenance* wrong. *Atterbury.*

In expectation of the hour of judgment, he patiently bears all the difficulties of duty, and the *discourtenance* he meets with from a wicked and perjured world. *Rogers.*

Present time and future may be considered as rivals; and he who solicits the one, must expect to be *discourtenanced* by the other. *Sir Joshua Reynolds.*

DISCOURAGE, *v. a.* } Fr. *décourager*.  
DISCOURAGER, *n. s.* } *Dis* and courage.  
DISCOURAGEMENT. } To depress; deprive of confidence; dastardise; deter; taking from; discouragement is the cause of depression, or fear.

Wherefore *discourage* ye the heart of the children of Israel from going over into the land? *Numb.*

I might neither encourage the rebels' insurrection nor *discourage* the protestants' loyalty and patience. *King Charles.*



p your beauty and your health, unless  
in yourself, or *discourage* them to stay  
ing them ill. *Temple.*

would have them learn, the great and  
new is, that they are called to them.

*Locke.*

with great zeal *discourages* too unreas-  
onment. *Rogers.*

ad at schools and colleges are full of  
virtue, and *discouragement* from vice.

*Swift.*

years, as they are generally *discour-*  
ed, are like old trees, which, being past  
lives, will suffer no young plants to  
them. *Pope.*

y of the prophecies, great as it is in  
not such as should *discourage* the  
from the study of them, nor such as  
under the neglect of it.

*Bp. Horsley.*

SE', v. a., v. n. & } Span. and  
E', n. s. } Fr. *discourir*;  
VE, adj. } It. *discorrere*;

e, *dis* and *curro*, to wander about ;  
scourse the mind travels from ob-  
To treat of by speech or writing ;  
s a neuter verb, to talk ; relate ;  
son.

that original weakness in the instrum-  
ent which the understanding part is not  
aid by *discourse* to work, the very con-  
cess is a bridle to stay us. *Hosher.*

made us with such large *discourse*,  
and after, gave us not  
and godlike reason  
used. *Shakespeare.*

ith us into the abbey here,  
re at large *discourse* all our fortunes.

*Id.*

e tract of every thing  
good *discourser* lose some life,  
n's self was tongue to.

*Id.*

riser than himself, more by an hour's  
by a day's meditation. *Bacon.*

ant that quick *discouraging* power.

*Davies.*

*course*, if thou desire to please,  
artuous, useful, new, or witty ;  
s comes by labour, wit by ease,  
ws in court, news in the city.

*Herbert.*

The soul

ceives, and reason is her being,  
e, or intuitive ; *discourse*  
ours, the latter is most ours. *Milton.*

and critical *discouragers*, who look be-  
s exterior of things, will not be angry  
e explorations. *Broune.*

he mind which connects propositions,  
conclusions from them, the schools call  
we shall not miscall it, if we name it  
*Glanville.*

hings *discouraging* as he passed,  
r bends. *Dryden.*

e here is about ideas, which, he says,  
and seen in God. *Locke.*

maxims we are *discouraging* of are not  
fren, ideots, and a great part of man-  
*Id.*

Flowers of rhetoric in sermons and serious *dis-*  
*courses* are like the blue and red flowers in en,  
pleasing to those who come only for amusement, but  
prejudicial to him who would reap profit from it.

*Pr.*

When a man's capacity does not enable him to en-  
tertain or animate the company, it is the best he can  
do to render himself inoffensive, and to keep his tech  
clean ; but the person who has talents for *discove*,  
and a passionate desire to enliven conversation, ought  
to have many improprieties excused, which in e  
other were unpardonable. *Shenston.*

DISCOURTEOUS, *adj.* *Dis* and *courteot*.  
Uncivil ; uncomplaisant ; defective in good  
manners.

DISCOURTESY, *n. s.* } *Dis* and *courtesy*.  
DISCOURTEOUS, *adj.* } Incivility ; rule-  
ness ; act of disrespect.

Be calm in arguing ; for fierceness makes

Error a fault, and truth *discourtesy*. *Herb.*

As if cheerfulness had been tediousness, and good  
entertainment had been turned to *discourtesy*, he would  
ever get himself alone. *Sidne.*

He made me visits, maundering as if I had de-  
him a *discourtesy*. *Wisema.*

He resolved to unhorse the first *discourteous* knight  
he should meet. *Mottoux's Don Quixote.*

DISCOUS, *adj.* From Lat. *discus*. Broa ;  
flat ; wide. Used by botanists to denote the  
middle, plain, and flat part of some flowers, such  
as the flos solis, &c.

DISCREDIT, *v. a. & n. s.* Fr. *décrédite*.  
To deprive of credibility ; to make not trust-  
ed ; disgrace ; distrust : as a substantive, reproach ;  
disgrace ; lower degree of infamy ; imputation of  
fault ; ignominy.

He, like a privileged spy, whom nothing can  
*Discredit*, libels now 'gainst each great man. *Donne.*

You had left unseen a wonderful piece of work  
which not to have been blest withal, would have *dis-*  
credited you. *Shakespeare.*

Had I been the finder out of this secret, it would  
not have relished among my other *discredits*.

*Shakespeare.*

Idlers will ever live like rogues, and not fall to  
work, but be lazy, and then certify over their country  
to the *discredit* of a plantation. *Bacon.*

He is commended that makes a saving voyage, and  
least *discredits* his travels, who returns the same man  
he went. *Wotton.*

'Tis the duty of every Christian to be concerned  
for the reputation or *discredit* his life may bring on his  
profession. *Rogers.*

Alas, the small *discredit* of a bribe

Scarce hurts the lawyer, but undoes the scribe.

*Pope.*

Reflect how glorious it would be to appear in coun-  
tenance of *discredited* duty, and by example of piety  
revive the declining spirit of religion. *Id.*

DISCREET, *adj.* } Fr. *discret* ; Span.  
DISCREETLY, *adv.* } Port. and Ital. *dis-*  
DISCREETNESS, *n. s.* } *creto* ; Lat. *discretus*,  
DISCRETION, } from *discerno*, to judge.

DISCRETIONARY, *adj.* } Prudent ; wary ; cauti-  
ous ; sober ; modest. Discretion and discreetness  
are synonymous substantives. Discretionary  
means unlimited, except by discretion.

But now parfournme ghe in dede, that as the *discre-*  
*cion* of wille is redi so be it also of parfournmyng of  
that that ghe han. *Wiclif. ii Cor. 8.*



The greatest parts without *discretion*, as observed by an elegant writer, may be fatal to their owner.

*Hume.*

onest, *discreet*, quiet, and godly learned men, will not be withdrawn by you.

*Whitgift.*

Nothing then was further thought upon for the manner of governing; but all permitted unto their wisdom at *discretion* which were to rule.

*Hooker.*

Less fearful than *discreet*,  
You love the fundamental part of state,  
More than you doubt the charge of 't. *Shakspeare.*

It is not good that children should know any wickedness: old folks have *discretion*, and know the world.

*Id.*

*Discretion* is the victor of the war,  
With lenity, and our directions followed  
With cheerfulness, a prosperous end must crown  
our works well undertaken.

*Masinger.*

Poets lose half the praise they should have got,  
Cold it be known what they *discreetly* blot.

*Waller.*

The labour of obedience, loyalty, and subjection, is no more but for a man honestly and *discreetly* to sit still.

*South.*

The major being a person of consummate experience, was invested with a *discretionary* power.

*Tatler.*

It is the *discreet* man, not the witty, nor the learned, nor the brave, who guides the conversation, and gives measures to society.

*Addison's Spectator.*

There is no talent so useful towards rising in the world, or which puts men more out of the reach of fortune, than *discretion*, a species of lower prudence.

*Swift.*

The dullest brain, if gently stirred,  
Perhaps may waken to a humming bird;  
The most recluse, *discreetly* opened, find  
Congenial object in the cockle kind.

*Pope's Dunciad.*

A deacon may have a dispensation for entering into orders before he is twenty-three years of age; and it is *discretionary* in the bishop to admit him to that order at what time he thinks fit.

*Ayliffe's Parergon.*

Dear youth, by fortune favored, but by love,  
Alas! not favoured less, be still as now  
*Discreet.*

*Thomson.*

To Jeffrey go, be silent and *discreet*,  
His pay is just ten sterling pounds per sheet:  
Fear not to lie, 'twill seem a lucky hit,  
Shrink not from blasphemy, 'twill pass for wit.

*Byron.*

**DISCREPANCE**, *v. a. & adj.* } Lat. *discrepantia*.  
**DISCREPANT**, *adj.* } Difference; contrariety; disagreement.

Diversity of education, and *discrepancy* of those principles wherewith men are at first imbued, and wherein all our after reasonings are founded.

*Lord Digby to K. Digby.*

**DISCRETE**, *v. a. & adj.* } Lat. *discretus*.  
**DISCRETIVE**, *adj.* } To separate; to discontinue; distinct; disjointed. For *discretive*, see the instance.

As for its diaphaneity, it enjoyeth that most eminently; as having its earthy and salinous parts so exactly resolved, that its body is left imporous, and not *discreted* by atomical terminations.

*Browne.*

*Discrete* quantity, or different individuals, are measured by number without any breaking continuity; that is, in things that have continuity, as continued quantity and motion.

*Hale's Origin of Mankind.*

*Discretive* propositions are such wherein variety or distinction is noted by the parties though, yet, &c. as, travellers may change their mate, but not their temper; Job was patient, his grief was great.

**DISCRETE, or DISJUNCT, PROPORTION** is in which the ratio between two or more numbers is the same, and yet the proportion not continued, as the ratio between 3 : 5 same as that between 8 : 16, and therefore numbers are proportional; but it is undiscrately or disjunctly, for 3 is not to 6 as 8 is to 16, that is, the proportion is broken off between 8 and 3, and is not continued as in the continuing continual proportionals:—

3 : 6 :: 12 : 24.

**DISCRIMINATE**, *v. a. & adj.*

**DISCRIMINABLE**, *adj.*

**DISCRIMINATELY**, *adv.*

**DISCRIMINATENESS**, *n. s.*

**DISCRIMINATION**,

**DISCRIMINATIVE**, *adj.*

**DISCRIMINOUS**.

tinguished by tokens; select; separate. adjective, distinguished by marks. Discriminable is distinguishable. Discriminous is a complete word for critical, hazardous.

Oysters and cockles and muscles, which have no *discriminate* sex.

Take heed of abetting any factions, or any publick *discriminations* in matters of religion.

*King.*

There are three sorts of it differing in themselves each other, and *discriminated* by the natives with peculiar names.

*Discriminative* Providence knew before the end and course of all things.

*More's Antidote against.*

There may be ways of *discriminating* the by acuteness and gravity, the several degrees of rising and falling from one tone or note to another.

Any kind of spitting of blood imports a *discriminous* state, unless it happens upon the great vein opened by a plethory.

There is a reverence to be shewed them, in account of their *discrimination* from other places of preparation for sacred uses.

The right hand is *discriminated* from the left, natural, necessary, and never to be confounded.

The only standing test and *discrimination* of the richness of any metal or mineral, must be sought in the constituent matter of it.

By that prudent *discrimination* made by the officers of different degrees, he obliges to him who has distinguished as objects of mercy.

**DISCROWN**, *v. a.* From *dis* and *crown*. To deprive of a crown.

Through storm and darkness yawns the ground,

The gulf is thick with phantoms, but the  
Seems royal still, though with her head  
And pale, but lovely, with maternal grief  
She clasps a babe, to whom her breast yields

**BITORY**, *adj.* Lat. *discubitorius*. Fitting posture of leaning.

When they retired to bed, and refreshed with a repast; and so that custom, by dejected their cubicular beds into *discubitory*.

*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

**MBENCY**, *n. s.* Lat. *discumbens*. The lying at meat, after the ancient manner.

The Greeks and Romans used the custom of *discumbals*, which was upon their left side; for so and was free and ready for all service.

*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

**MBER**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *cumber*. To form any troublesome weight; to dismember impeding.

He was dismembered of the clinging vest, the sacred cincture round his breast,

*Pope.*

**RE**, *v. a.* Fr. *decouvrir*. To discover;

will, if please you, it *discure*, assay  
also you of that ill.

*Faerie Queene.*

**RSIVE**, *adj.* } Fr. *discursif*; from  
**RSIVELY**, *adv.* } Lat. *discurro*. Moving  
**RSORY**, *adj.* } here and there; ro-  
tatory; as a corruption of discursive.  
g by gradation from premises to con-  
; and thus discursory is argumenta-

ises help sleep; as the blowing of the wind,  
ckling of water: they move a gentle atten-  
whatsoever moveth attention, without too  
er, stilleth the natural and *discursive* motion  
its.

*Bacon.*

a sanctity of soul and body, of more effi-  
receiving of divine truths, than the great-  
ness to *discursive* demonstration.

*More's Divine Dialogues.*

ath been much dispute touching the know-  
edges, whether they have a kind of *discursive*  
such some call reason.

*Hale's Origin of Mankind.*

is a principle within, whereby we think, and  
re think; whereby we do *discursively*, and  
ratiocination, deduce one thing from ano-  
Id.

**US**, *n. s.* Lat. A quoit; a heavy piece  
brown in the ancient sports. See *Disc*.

Elateus' strong arm the *discus* flies,  
ags with unmatched force along the skies.

*Pope.*

**USS**, *v. a.* } Fr. *discuter*; Span. and  
**SSER**, *n. s.* } Port. *discutir*; Ital. and  
**SSIVE**, *adj.* } Lat. *discutere*, *dis* and *qua-*  
**SSION**, *n. s.* } *tio*, to shake down or at-  
tattering. To examine, or clear by dis-  
; to ventilate; to clear up; to disperse  
humors of the body.

ris were used to *discuss* the beginnings of  
ion.

*Wotton.*

ion the threefold effect of Jupiter's trisulc,  
*lucius*, and terebrate.

*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

cannot be found without some labour and  
of the mind, and the thoughts dwelling a  
ble time upon the survey and *discussion* of  
cular.

*South.*

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His usage was to commit the *discussing* of causes  
privately to certain persons learned in the laws.

*Ayliffe's Parergon.*

If by the liberty of the press, we understand merely  
the liberty of *discussing* the propriety of public mea-  
sures and political opinions, let us have as much of  
it as you please.

*Franklin.*

**DISCUTIENT**, *n. s.* Lat. *discutiens*. A me-  
dicine that has power to repel or drive back the  
matter of tumors in the blood. It sometimes  
means the same as *carminative*.

The swellings arising from these require to be  
treated, in their beginning, with moderate repellents  
and *discutients*.

*Wiseman.*

*DISCUTIENTS*, in surgery, are such external  
remedies as, by their subtilty, dissolve or  
disperse a stagnating or coagulated fluid in any  
part of the body.

**DISDAIN**, *v. a.*, *v. n.* & *n. s.* } Fr. *dédaigner*;  
**DISDAINFUL**, *adj.* } Sp. *desdignar*;  
**DISDAINFULLY**, *adv.* } Lat. *dedignari*;  
**DISDAINFULNESS**, *n. s.* } (de privative,  
and *dignor*.) To esteem unworthy. As an ac-  
tive verb it signifies to scorn: as a substantive,  
contempt; scorn; indignation united with con-  
tempt. *Disdainfulness* is synonymous with  
*disdain*.

Children being haughty, through *disdain* and want  
of nurture, do stain the nobility of their kindred.

*Ecclesi.*

A proud *disdainfulness* of other men.

*Ascham.*

His angry steede did chide his foaming bitt,  
As much *disdayning* to the curb to yield:  
Full jolly knight he seemed and faire did sitt,  
As one for knightly giusts and fierce encounters fitt.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

There will come a time when three words, uttered  
with charity and meekness, shall receive a far more  
blessed reward, than three thousand volumes, written  
with *disdainful* sharpness of wit.

*Hooker.*

The queen is obstinate,

Stubborn to justice, apt to' accuse it,

*Disdainful* to be tried by 't.

*Shakespeare.*

Either greet him not,

Or else *disdainfully*, which shall shake him more.

*Id.*

Can I forget, when they in prison placing her,  
With swelling heart, in spite and due *disdainfulness*,  
She lay for dead, till I helped with unlacing her.

*Sidney.*

The *disdainful* soul came rushing through the  
wound.

*Dryden.*

It is not to insult and domineer, to look *disdain*  
*fully*, and revile imperiously, that procures esteem  
from any one.

*South.*

Tell him, Cato

*Disdains* a life which he has power to offer.

*Addison.*

But against you, ye Greeks, ye coward train,  
Gods? how my soul is moved with just *disdain*!

*Pope's Odyssey.*

But no one ever heard her speak or shriek,

Although her paroxysm drew towards its close:

Hers was a phrensy which *disdained* to rave,

Even when they smote her, in the hope to save.

*Bryon.*

U



**DISDIACLASTIC CRYSTAL**, in natural history, a name given by Bartholine and some others to the pellucid fossil substance, more usually called, from the place whence it was first brought, Iceland crystal; though properly it is no crystal at all, but a fine pellucid spar, called by Dr. Hill from its shape parallelepipedum.

**DISEASE** *v. a. & n. s.* } Dis and ease. To  
**DISEASEDNESS**, *n. s.* } afflict with illness;  
 to torment with pain or sorrow; to make morbid;  
 infect; as a substantive, the malady, sickness,  
 &c., endured.

In the world ghe schuler haue *disease*, but triste ghe,  
 I haue overcome the world. *Wiclif. Jon xvi.*

And Asa, in the thirty and ninth year of his reign,  
 was *diseased* in his feet, and his *disease* was exceeding  
 great; and in his *disease* he sought not to the Lord,  
 but to the physicians. *Chron.*

Full of *diseases* was his carcas blew,  
 And a dry dropie through his flesh did flow,  
 Which by misdiet daily greater grew.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*  
 We are all *diseased*,  
 And with our surfeiting and wanton hours  
 Have brought ourselves into a burning fever.

*Shakespeare.*  
 Food improperly taken, not only produces original  
*diseases*, but affords those that are already engendered  
 both matter and sustenance; so that, let the father of  
*disease* be what it may, intemperance is certainly its  
 mother. *Burton.*

A leazar-house it seemed, wherein were laid  
 Numbers of all *diseased*, all maladies  
 Of ghastly spasm, or racking torture. *Milton.*  
 Authority is a *disease* and cure,  
 Which men can neither want nor well endure.

*Butler.*  
 We cannot be too jealous, we cannot suspect our-  
 selves too much to labour under the *disease* of pride,  
 which cleaves the closer to us by our belief or confi-  
 dence that we are quite without it. *Clarendon.*

Though great light be insufferable to our eyes, yet  
 the highest degree of darkness does not at all *disease*  
 them. *Locke.*

This is a restoration to some former state; not that  
 state of indigency and *diseasedness*. *Burnet's Theory.*

Then wasteful forth  
 Walks the dire power of pestilent *disease*.  
*Thomson's Summer.*

But he was phrenzied,—wherefore, who may know?  
 Since cause might be which skill could never find;  
 But he was phrenzied by *disease* or woe,  
 To that worst pitch of all, which wears a reasoning  
 show. *Byron.*

**DISEASE** has been variously defined by physi-  
 cians, almost every founder of a new system  
 having given a definition of disease, differing  
 in some respects from his predecessors. See  
**MEDICINE** and **NOSOLOGY**. Of all animals, man  
 is subject to the most diseases; and of men, the  
 studious and speculative are most exposed to  
 them. Other animals have their diseases; but  
 they are in small number, because they live  
 more according to nature: nor are plants with-  
 out them; though their known maladies are few.  
 The ancient Hebrews, who were versed in the  
 study of natural philosophy, and not much ac-  
 customed to recur to physical causes, and con-

sult physicians, when they were sick, in  
 their diseases generally to evil spirits, or  
 cutioners of divine vengeance.

**DISEASES OF DOGS.** See **DOG** and  
**PHOBIA**.

**DISEASES OF HORSES.** SEE **FARRIERY**  
**DISEDED'ED**, *adj.* Dis and edge. B  
 obtunded; dulled

I grieve myself  
 To think, when thou shalt be *disedged* by h  
 Whom now thou tirest on, how thy mem  
 Will then be panged by me.

*Shakespeare. Cy*

**DISEMBARK**, *v. a. & v. n.* Dis a  
 bark. To carry to land; to go on land.  
 I must unto the road, to *disembark*  
 Some necessaries.

*Shakespeare. Two Gentlemen of*  
 There *disembarking* on the green sea-sh  
 We land our cattle, and the spoil divide  
*Pope's D*

**DISEMBITTER**, *v. a.* Dis and em  
 To sweeten; to free from bitterness; to  
 from acrimony: an unusual word.

Encourage such innocent amusements as  
 embitter the minds of men, and make them m  
 rejoice in the same agreeable satisfactions.

*Addison's Free*

**DISEMBODIED**, *adj.* Dis and emb  
 Divested of the body; discharged from s  
 service.

*Disembodied* spirits are generally creatures  
 imagination, and of old wondering wit. *T*

**DISEMBOGUE**, *v. a. & v. n.* Old Fr  
 boucher.—*Skinner.* To pour out at the m  
 a river; to vent: to gain vent; flow.

*Rivers*

In ample oceans *disembogued*, or lost.

*Dryden.*

By eminences placed up and down the gl  
 rivers make innumerable turnings and wind  
 at last *disembogue* in several mouths into the

Rolling down, the steep Timavus rates,  
 And through nine channels *disembogues* his w

**DISEMBOS'OMED**, *part. adj.* Dis  
 bosom. Taken from the bosom.

*He*

Who, *disembosomed* from the Father, bows  
 The heaven of heavens to kiss the distant

**DISEMBOW'ELLED**, *part. adj.*  
 embowel. Taken from out the bowels.  
 So her *disembowelled* web

Arachne in a hall or kitchen spreads.

Obvious to vagrant flies.

**DISEMBROIL**, *v. a.* Fr. *debrouiller*  
 disentangle; to free from perplexity; to  
 from confusion.

Then earth from air, and seas from ea  
 driven,

And grosser air sunk from ethereal heavens;  
 Thus *disembroiled*, they take their proper place

The system of his politicks is *disembro*  
 cleared of all those incoherences and in  
 matters that are woven into this motley piece  
*Addison's Whig K*

**DISENABLE**, *v. a.* Dis and ena  
 deprive of power; to disable; to  
 weakness; to weaken.

has overtaken me; and want, a more in-  
evil, through the change of the times, has  
mabled me. *Dryden.*

ENCHANT' *v. a.* Dis and enchant. To  
the force of an enchantment; to deliver  
power of charms or spells.

toop thy *disenchanted* wing to truth.

*Denham.*

et your own brain *disenchant* you. *Sidney.*

to thy work; a noble stroke or two

l the charms, and *disenchants* the grove.

*Dryden.*

NCUMBER, *v. a.* } Dis and encum-  
CUMBRANCE, *n. s.* } ber. To discharge  
umbrances; free from impediment or  
on; disburden.

ht had *disencumbered* heaven. *Milton.*

need the actual intention, the particular  
application of the whole soul, to *disencumber*  
free, to scour off its rust, and remove those  
s which would otherwise clog and check the  
f its operations. *Sprat.*

The *disencumbered* soul  
and left behind the clouds and starry pole.

*Dryden.*

look like the amusements of the soul, when  
*disencumbered* of her machine; her sports and  
s, when she has laid her charge asleep.

*Spectator.*

are many who make a figure below what  
me or merit entitles them to, out of mere  
d an elegant desire of ease and *disencum-*

*Id.*

arch of St. Justina, designed by Palladio,  
t handsome, luminous, *disencumbered* build-  
e inside, that I have ever seen.

*Addison on Italy.*

NGAGE', *v. a. & v. v.* } Dis and en-  
GAGED', *part. adj.* } gage. To re-  
GAGEDNESS, *n. s.* } lieve from duty  
GAGEMENT. } or obligation;  
raw from duty, obligation, or engage-  
Hence *disengagement*, and *disengaged-*  
applied to any state of freedom or va-

our mind's eyes are *disengaged* and free,  
rer, farther, and distinctly see. *Denham.*

thers, being very light, would float up and  
od while, before they could wholly *disengage*  
s and descend. *Burnet's Theory.*

mee gives us notice, by sensible declensions,  
ay *disengage* from the world by degrees.

*Collier on Thought.*

next paragraph, I found my author pretty  
nged from quotations. *Atterbury.*

consideration that should *disengage* our fond-  
worldly things, is, that they are uncertain  
undation; fading, transient, and corruptible  
ature. *Rogers.*

ry hard for the mind to *disengage* itself from  
m which it has been long employed.

*Addison.*

at use of light to vegetation would appear  
theory to be by *disengaging* vital air from  
which they perspire, and thence to facilitate  
with their blood exposed beneath the thin  
their leaves. *Darwin.*

A man purposes his schemes of life in a state of  
abstraction and *disengagement*, exempt from the en-  
ticements of hope, the solicitations of affection, the  
importunities of appetite, or the depressions of fear.

*Johnson.*

DISENTANGLE', *v. a.* Dis and entangle.  
To unfold or loosen the parts of a thing; to free  
from impediment or perplexity; separate; dis-  
tinguish

Though in concretions particles so entangle one  
another, that they cannot in a short time clear them-  
selves, yet they do incessantly strive to *disentangle*  
themselves, and get away. *Boyle.*

Till they could find some expedient to explicate and  
*disentangle* themselves out of this labyrinth, they made  
no advance towards supplying their armies.

*Clarendon.*

The welfare of their souls requires a better judg-  
men' than their own, either to guide them in their  
duty, or to *disentangle* them from a temptation.

*South.*

Neither can God himself be otherwise understood by  
us than as a mind free and *disentangled* from all cor-  
poreal mixtures. *Stillington.*

Wherever I turned my view, there was perplexity  
to be *disentangled*, and confusion to be regulated.

*Johnson. Preface to Dictionary.*

DISENTER', *v. a.* Dis and Fr. *enterrer*. To  
unbury; to take out of the grave.

Though the blindness of some fanaticks have  
savaged on the bodies of the dead, and have been  
so injurious unto worms as to *disenterre* the bodies of  
the deceased, yet had they therein no design upon the  
soul. *Broune's Vulgar Errors.*

DISENTHRAL', *v. a.* Dis and enthrall. To  
set free; to restore to liberty; to rescue from  
slavery.

If religion were false, bad men would set the ut-  
most force of their reason on work to discover that  
falsity, and thereby *disenthrall* themselves. *South.*

But God my soul shall *disenthrall*;

For I upon his name will call.

*Sandys.*

DISENTHRONE', *v. a.* Dis and enthrone.  
To depose from sovereignty; to dethrone.

Either to *disenthron*e the King of heave-

We war, if war be best; or to regain

Our own right lost.

*Milton.*

DISENTRANCE', *v. a.* Dis and entrance.  
To awaken from a trance, or deep sleep.

Ralpho, by this time *disentranced*,

Upon his bum himself advanced. *Hudibras.*

DISESPOUSE', *v. a.* Dis and espouse. To  
separate after faith plighted.

Such was the rage

Of Tacnus, for Lavinia *disespoused*.

*Milton.*

DISESTEEM', *v. a. & n. s.* } From *dis* and  
DISESTIMA'TION, *n. s.* } esteem. To dis-  
regard, or regard slightly: slight regard.

But if this sacred gift you *disesteem*,

Then cruel plagues shall fall on Priam's state.

*Denham.*

When any one, by miscarriage, falls into *dis-  
esteem*, he will fall under neglect and contempt.

*Locke.*

I would not be thought to *disesteem* or dissuade the  
study of nature. *Id.*

Should Mars see't,

That horrid hurrier of men, or she that betters him,  
Minerva, never so incensed, they could not *disesteem*.

*Chopman.*



**DISFAVOR**, *v. a. & n. s.* *Dis* and favor. To discountenance; withhold, or withdraw kindness: discountenance; slight regard; unfavorable circumstance; an unfavored state.

It was verily thought, that had it not been for four great *disfavourers* of that voyage, the enterprise had succeeded. *Bacon.*

While free from sacrilege, he was at peace, as it were, with God and man; but after his sacrilege he was in *disfavour* with both. *Spelman.*

Might not those of higher rank, and nearer access to her majesty, receive her own commands, and be countenanced or *disfavoured* according as they obey? *Swift.*

**DISFIGURE**, *v. a.* } *Dis* and figure. To  
**DISFIGURATION**, *n. s.* } deform; to change any  
**DISFIGUREMENT**. } thing to a worse form;  
to mangle.

You are but as a form in wax  
By him imprinted, and within his power  
To leave the figure, or *disfigure* it. *Shakespeare.*

Abject is their punishment,  
*Disfiguring* not God's likeness, but their own,  
Or, if his likeness, by themselves defaced. *Milton.*

A nose flatter, or a mouth wider, could have consisted, as well as the rest of his figure, with such a soul and such parts as made him, *disfigured* as he was, capable to be a dignitary in the church. *Locke.*

That understanding, in which, though little is written, yet nothing is blotted; that which is not *disfigured* by ill impressions, is a subject most capable of the best. *Sprat.*

Nor would his slaughtered army now have lain,  
On Afric's sands, *disfigured* with their wounds,  
To gorge the wolves and vultures of Numidia. *Addison's Cato.*

The *disfigurement* that travel or sickness has bestowed upon him, is not thought great by the lady of the isle. *Suchling.*

Our foot half sunk in hillocks green and soft,  
Raised by the mole, the miner of the soil.  
He, not unlike the great ones of mankind,  
*Disfigures* earth. *Cowper.*

**DISFOREST**, *v. a.* *Dis* and forest. To reduce land from the privileges of a forest to the state of common land.

**DISFRANCHISE**, *v. a.* } *Dis* and fran-  
**DISFRANCHISEMENT**, *n. s.* } chise. To deprive  
of privileges or immunities.

**DISFURNISH**, *v. a.* *Dis* and furnish. To deprive; to unfurnish; to strip.

My riches are these poor habiliments,  
Of which if you should here *disfurnish* me,  
You take the sum and substance that I have. *Shakespeare.*

He durst not *disfurnish* that country either of so great a commander, or of the wonted garrisons. *Knolles's History.*

**DISGARNISH**, *v. a.* *Dis* and garnish. To strip of ornaments; to take guns from a fortress.

**DISGLORIFY**, *v. a.* *Dis* and glorify. To deprive of glory; treat with indignity.

So Dagon shall be magnified, and God,  
Besides whom is no god, compared with idols,  
*Disglorified*, blasphemed, and had in scorn. *Milton.*

**DISGORGE**, *v. a.* *Fr. dégorger*, from *gorge* the throat. To discharge by the mouth; vomit out violently.

So, so, thou common dog, didst thou *disgorge*  
Thy glutton bosom of the royal Richard?  
And now thou wouldst eat thy dead vomit up. *Shakespeare.*

The deep-drawing barks do there *disgorge*  
Their warlike fraughtage. *Id.*

They move along the banks  
Of four infernal rivers that *disgorge*  
Into the burning lake their baleful streams. *Milton.*

Countries much annoyed with earthquakes and volcanoes; and these are constantly all in flames, whenever any earthquake happens; they *disgorge* that fire which was the cause of the disaster. *Darwin.*

From the distant shore they loudly laugh,  
To see his heaving breast *disgorge* the briny draught. *Dryden.*

**DISGRACE**, *v. a. & n. s.* } *Fr. disgracer*.  
**DISGRACE**, *n. s.* } To bring to  
**DISGRACEFUL**, *adj.* } reproach or dishonor upon; to  
**DISGRACEFULLY**, *adv.* } bring to shame,  
**DISGRACEFULNESS**, } or disfavor. *Dis-*  
**DISGRACIOUS**, } graceful is, shameful; dishonorable: *disgracious*,  
unpleasing.

We may not so in any one special kind admire her, that we *disgrace* her in any other; but let all her ways be according unto their place and degree. *Locke.*

Like a dull actor, now  
I have forgot my part, and I am out  
Even to a full *disgrace*. *Shakespeare.*

I do suspect I have done some offence,  
That seems *disgracious* in the city's eye. *Id.*

The senate have cast you forth  
*Disgracefully*, to be the common tale  
Of the whole city. *Ben Jonson's Catiline.*

Masters must correct their servants with gentleness, prudence, and mercy; not with upbraiding and *disgraceful* language, but with such only as may expose and reprove the fault, and amend the person. *Taylor's Rule of Living Holy.*

And he whose affluence disdained a place,  
Bribed by a title, makes it a *disgrace*. *Brown.*

To such bondage he was for so many courses led by her, whose *disgraces* to him were graced by his excellence. *Sedley.*

And is it not a foul *disgrace*,  
To lose the boltsprit of thy face? *Boydell.*

Men's passions will carry them far in misrepresenting an opinion which they have a mind to *disgrace*. *Barnet.*

I have given good advice to those infamous *disgracers* of the sex and calling. *Swift.*

To retire behind their chariots, was as little *disgraceful* then, as it is now to alight from one's horse in a battle. *Pope.*

Grant me, kind heaven, to find some happier place,  
Where honesty and sense are no *disgrace*. *Dr. Johnson's Poem.*

**DISGUISE**, *v. a. & n. s.* } *Fr. déguiser*;  
**DISGUISE**, *n. s.* } *dis* and guise. To  
**DISGUISEMENT**. } conceal by an unusual guise, or dress: the dress worn in disguise; *disguiser*, he who wears it.



How might we *disguise* him?

I know not: there is no woman's gown big  
for him. *Shaksp. Merry Wives of Windsor.*  
we've burnt our cheeks; and mine own  
ague

at it speaks: the wild *disguise* hath almost  
it. *Id. Antony and Cleopatra.*

h's a great *disguiser*. *Shakespeare.*

arquis thought best to dismask his beard,  
him, that he was going covertly to take a  
w of the forwardness of his majesty's fleet:  
somewhat handsomely heal the *disguisement*.

*Wotton.*

ed he came; but those his children dear

ent soon discerned through his *disguise*.

*Milton.*

that *disguisement* I should find opportunity to  
self to the owner of my heart. *Sidney.*

I in Arcite cannot Arcite find,  
rld may search in vain with all their eyes,  
ver penetrate through this *disguise*.

*Dryden's Fables.*

he is grown more disengaged from his intent  
his own affairs, which is quite the reverse to  
as 'you are a very dexterous *disguiser*.

*Swift.*

just left the right worshipful, and his myr-  
about a sneaker of five gallons; the whole  
was pretty well *disguised* before I gave  
slip. *Spectator.*

generally act in a *disguise* themselves, and  
mistake all outward show and appearances  
isy in others. *Addison.*

e guilty joys, distaste, surmises,  
aths, false tears, deccits, *disguises*. *Pope.*

covers ourselves to us; pierces into the in-  
esses of the mind; strips off every *disguise*;  
the inward part; makes a strict scrutiny  
ery soul and spirit. *Mason.*

is it thus Demetrius meets his friend,  
he mean *disguise* of Turkish robes?

*Johnson. Irene.*

pper is naturally open; and it ought, as-  
be without *disguise* to a man whom I wish no  
ook upon as an antagonist, but a friend.

*Bp. Watson.*

JUST, v. a. & n. s. } Fr. *degouter*; Lat.  
STFUL, adj. } *degusto*. To raise aver-  
ne stomach: hence, to cause distaste, or  
nerally. Disgustful is nauseous.

s is no rule of good; since, when we fol-  
are, merely, we are *disgusted*, and change  
ort to another; condemning that at one  
h at another we earnestly approve.

*Shaftesbury.*

anner of doing is of more consequence than  
lone, and upon that depends the satisfac-  
ust wherewith it is received. *Locke.*

were *disgusted* at marriage, he would never  
it to his friend. *Atterbury.*

ignats me from having to do with answer-  
that they have no conscience. *Swift.*

nished the most *disgustful* task that ever I

*Id.*

enlarged souls are *disgusted* with the wonders  
microscope has discovered. *Watts.*

se dark *disgust* and hatred, winding wiles,  
deceit, and ruffian violence. *Thomson.*

fection, strained allusions, and *disgusting*  
easily attained by those who chuse to

*Goldsmith.*

DISH, n. s. & v. a. } Saxon, *disch*; Goth.  
DISH-CLOUT, n. s. } *disk*; Erse. *dysc*; Wel.  
DI'SHING, part. adj. } *dyssel*; Teut. *tisch*, from  
DISH-WASHER. } Gr. *δισκος*; Lat. *discus*, (à

*δισσω*, to hurl) a round plate of iron, or other metal,  
hurled in the games. See DISCUS. A broad  
vessel used for setting food on a table, or to con-  
tain liquids: hence the food contained in a dish,  
and a measure of quantity; and, as a verb, to  
place in a dish, or dishes; to serve up. Dish-  
clout, the useful cloth for cleaning dishes. Dish-  
ing, of a hollow, dish-like shape. Dish-washer,  
the name of a bird; mergus.

And sche bfore warnid of hir modir seide give  
thou to me beere the head of Jon Baptist in a *dische*.

*Wiclif. Matt. 14.*

The earth's face is but a table; there are set  
Plants, cattle, men, *dishes*, for death to eat.

*Donne.*

Let 's kill him boldly, but not wrathfully;  
Let 's carve him as a *dish* fit for the gods,  
Not hew him as a carcass fit for hounds.

*Shakespeare.*

For conspiracy,

I know not how it tastes, though it be *dished*

For me to try. *Id.*

A *dish-clout* of Jaquenetta's he wears next hi's  
heart for a favor. *Id.*

They measure block-tin by the *dish*, which containeth  
a gallon. *Carew.*

Who would rob a hermit of his weeds,

His few books, or his beads, or maple *dish*;

Or do his grey hairs any violence? *Milton.*

Many people would, with reason, prefer the gripping  
of an hungry belly, to those *dishes* which are a feast  
to others. *Locke.*

A ladle for our silver *dish*,

Is what I want, is what I wish. *Prior.*

Send them up to their masters with a *dish-clout*  
pinned at their tails. *Swift's Directions to the Cook.*

For the form of the wheels, some make them more  
*dishing*, as they call it, than others; that is, more con-  
cave, by setting off the spokes and fellies more out-  
wards. *Mortimer.*

'Tis not the meat, but 'tis the appetite,

Makes eating a delight;

And if I like one *dish*

More than another, that a pheasant is. *Suckling.*

The same care and toil that raise a *dish* of peas at  
Christmas, would give bread to a whole family dur-  
ing six months. *Hume.*

Suppose the ancient luxury of a *dish* of peacocks\*  
brains were to be revived, how many carcasses would  
be left to the poor at a cheap rate! and as to the rout  
that is made about people who are ruined by extrava-  
gance, it is no matter to the nation tha some individ-  
uals suffer. *Johnson.*

DISHABILLE', n. s. & adj. Fr. *deshabillé*.  
Undress; loose, or negligently dressed.

Queens are not to be too negligently dressed or  
*dishabille*. *Dryden's Dufrenoy.*

A woman, who would preserve a lover's respect to  
her person, will be careful of her appearance before  
him when in *dishabille*. *Clarissa.*

DISHABIT, v. a. To throw out of place;  
to drive from their habitation.

But for our approach those sleeping stones  
By the compulsion of their ordinance,



By this time from their fixed beds of lime  
Had been *disabited*, and wide haycock made.

*Shakespeare. King Lear.*

**DISHARMONY**, *n. s.* *Dis* and *harmony*.  
Contrariety to harmony.

**DISHEARTEN**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *hearten*. To  
discourage; to deject; to terrify; to depress.

To *dishearten* with fearful sentences, as though sal-  
vation could hardly be hoped for, is not so consonant  
with Christian charity.

*Hooker.*

Be not *disheartened* then, nor cloud those looks  
That wont be more cheerful and serene.

*Milton.*

Yet neither thus *disheartened* nor dismayed,  
The time prepared I waited.

*Id.*

Shortly, some harsh and unpleasing answer so  
*disheartened* me, that I resolved to embrace the first op-  
portunity of my remove.

*Bp. Hall's Account of himself.*

It is a consideration that might *dishearten* those who  
are engaged against the common adversaries, that  
they promise themselves as much from the folly of  
enemies, as from the power of their friends.

*Stillingfleet.*

Men cannot say, that the greatness of an evil and  
danger is an encouragement to men to run upon it;  
and that the greatness of any good and happiness  
ought in reason to *dishearten* men from the pursuit of  
it.

*Tillotson.*

A true christian fervour is more than the alliances  
of our potent friends, or even the fears of our *dis-  
heartened* enemies.

*Atterbury.*

**DISHERTT**, *v. a.* } See **DISINHERIT**.  
**DISHER'ISON**, *n. s.* }

**DISHEVEL**, *v. a.* *Fr. deccheveler*. To spread  
the hair disorderly; to throw the hair of a  
woman negligently about her head.

A gentle lady all alone,  
With garments rent and hair *dishevelled*,  
Wringing her hands, and making piteous moan.

*Spenser.*

A troop of Trojans mixed with these appear,  
And mourning matrons with *dishevelled* hair.

*Dryden's Æneid.*

You this morn beheld his ardent eyes,  
Saw his arm locked in her *dishevelled* hair. *Smith.*  
Headlong he rushes through the affrighted air  
With limbs distorted, and *disheveled* hair,  
Whirls round and round, the flying crowd alarms,  
And death receives him in his sable arms!

*Darwin.*

Had you touched a hair  
Of those *dishevelled* locks, I would have thinned  
Your ranks more than the enemy.

*Byron.*

**DISHON'EST**, *adj.* } *Dis* and *honest*.  
**DISHON'ESTLY**, *adv.* } Void of probity: void  
of faith; faithless; wicked; fraudulent.

A wise daughter shall bring an inheritance to her  
husband; but she that liveth *dishonestly* is her father's  
heaviness.

*Ecc. xlii. 4.*

Mrs. Ford, the honest woman, the modest wife, the  
virtuous creature, that hath the jealous fool to her hus-  
band! I suspect without cause, mistress, do I!—  
Heaven be my witness you do, if you suspect me in  
any *dishonesty*.

*Shakespeare.*

I protest he had the chain of me,  
Tho' most *dishonestly* he doth deny it.

*Id.*

*Dishonest* with lopped arms the youth appears,  
Spoiled of his nose, and shortened of his ears.

*Dryden.*

He lays it down as a principle, that right and wrong,  
honest and *dishonest*, are defined only by laws, and  
not by nature.

*Locke.*

Justice then was neither blind to discern, nor lame  
to execute. It was not subject to be imposed upon  
by a deluded fancy, nor yet to be bribed by a glowing  
appetite, for an idle or jucundum to turn the balance  
to a false or *dishonest* sentence.

*Locke.*

Their fortune depends upon their credit, and a man  
of open public *dishonesty* must be to their disadvan-  
tage.

*Swift.*

She saw her sons with purple death expire,  
Her sacred domes involved in rolling fire;

A dreadful series of intestine wars,

Inglorious triumphs, and *dishonest* scars.

*Pope.*

**DISHON'OR**, *v. a. & n. s.* } *Dis* and *ho-*

**DISHON'ORER**. } *nor*. To dis-

grace; to bring shame upon; to blast with in-  
famy: a *dishonorer* is he who treats another with  
indignity.

He that is honoured in poverty, how much more is  
riches! and he that is *dishonourable* in riches, how  
much more in poverty!

*Eccles. i. 31.*

Let not my jealousies be your *dishonour*,  
But mine own safeties.

*Shakespeare. Much.*

It is no vicious blot, murder, or foulness,  
No unchaste action, or *dishonoured* step,  
That hath deprived me of your grace and love.

*Id.*

Preaching how meritorious with the gods  
It would be, to ensnare an irreligious  
*Dishonourer* of Dagon.

*Milton.*

Take him for your husband and your lord;  
'Tis no *dishonour* to confer your grace  
On one descended from a royal race.

*Dryden's Fables.*

He was pleased to own Lazarus even in the *dis-  
honours* of the grave, and vouchsafed him, in that  
despicable condition, the glorious title of his friend.

*Boyle's Seraphick Love.*

To pay for, personate, and keep in a man's hands a  
greater estate than he really has, is of all others, the  
most unpardonable vanity, and must in the end re-  
duce the man who is guilty of it to *dishonour*.

*Swift.*

It is a mighty shame and *dishonour* to employ ex-  
cellent faculties and abundance of wit, to humour and  
to please men in their vices and follies.

*Sir. R. Blackmore.*

But what is most *dishonourable* of all is, for a man  
at once to discover a great genius and an ungoverned  
mind.

*Mason.*

**DOGE**. Would'st thou repeat them?  
Would'st thou repeat them—thou, a *Fallero*,  
Harp on the deep *dishonour* of our house,  
*Dishonoured* in its chief—that chief the prince  
Of Venice, first of cities! To the sentence.

*Rymer.*

**DISHORN**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *horn*. To strip  
of horns.

We'll *dishorn* the spirit,  
And mock him home to Windsor.

*Shakespeare.*

**DISHU'MOR**, *n. s.* *Dis* and *humor*. Pee-  
vishness; ill humor; uneasy state of mind.

Speaking impatiently to servants, or any thing that  
betrays inattention or *dishumour*, are also criminal.

*Spectator.*



**IMPROVEMENT, n. s.** *Dis* and *im-*  
st. Reduction from a better to a worse  
e contrary to melioration; the contrary  
ement.

al issue of the matter would be, an utter  
d *disimprovement* of the earth. *Norris.*

ot see how this kingdom is at any height of  
ent, while four parts in five of the planta-  
thirty years past, have been real *disimproe-*  
*Swift.*

**INCARCERATE, v. a.** *Dis* and *incar-*  
To set at liberty; to free from prison.

enical bodies being now coagulated, and  
sto flaming atoms, require dry and warm air,  
e earth for to *disincarcerate* the same venene  
*Harvey.*

**INCLINE, v. a.** } *Dis* and *incline.*  
**CLINATION, n. s.** } To produce dislike to;  
disaffected; to alienate affection from.  
affection or alienation.

vere careful to keep up the fears and appre-  
hension in the people of dangers and designs, and to  
them from any reverence or affection to the  
hom they begun every day more implacably  
and consequently to disoblige. *Clarendon.*

ointment gave him a *disinclination* to the fair  
hom he does not express all the respect pos-  
*Arbuthnot and Pope.*

are those duties which we read or hear of  
word of God, to which we find ourselves  
*inclined*? This, in all likelihood, will help us  
some of our peculiar sins of omission.

*Mason.*

**INGENUITY, n. s.** From *disingenuous.*  
is of artifice; unfairness.

ontract a habit of ill-nature and *disingenuity*  
to their affairs, and the temper of those upon  
y are to work. *Clarendon.*

**INGENUOUS, adj.** } *Dis* and *ingenu-*  
**GENUOUSLY, adv.** } ous. Unfair; mean-  
**INGENUOUSNESS, n. s.** } ly artful; subtle;  
eral.

*disingenuous* to accuse our age  
ness, who all our powers engage  
same studies, the same course to hold,  
ink our reason for new arts too old.

*Denham.*

a *disingenuous* way of proceeding, to oppose a  
of charity concerning their church, to a  
of reason concerning the nature of actions.

*Stillingfleet.*

cannot be any thing so *disingenuous* and mis-  
any rational creature, as not to yield to  
on, and the conviction of clear arguments.

*Locke.*

t press them with the unreasonableness, the  
umness of embracing a profession to which  
hearts have an inward reluctance.

*Government of the Tongue.*

**INHERIT, v. a.** } All from *dis* and *in-*  
**INHERITSON, n. s.** } herit. To cut off he-  
**INHERIT, v. a.** } reditary succession or  
**INHERISON, n. s.** } inheritance. The last  
is are only the older mode of spelling.

as to restore to their rightful heritage such  
English words as have been long time out of  
at *disinherited*. *Spenser.*

If he stood upon his own title of the house of Lau-  
caster, inherent in his person, he knew it was a title  
condemned by parliament, and generally prejudged in  
the common opinion of the realm, that it tended di-  
rectly to the *disinherison* of the line of York.

*Bacon's Henry VII.*

The chief minister of the revenue was obliged to  
prevent, and even oppose, such *disinherison*.

*Clarendon.*

In respect of the effects and evil consequences, the  
adultery of the woman is worse, as bringing bastardy  
into a family, and *disinherisons* or great injuries to the  
lawful children.

*Taylor.*

Is it then just with us to *disinherit*

The unborn nephews for the father's fault?

*Davies.*

Unmuffle, ye faint stars; and thou, fair moon,  
Stoop thy pale visage through an amber cloud,  
And *disinherit* chaos that reigns here  
In double night of darkness, and of slander. *Milton.*

Of how fair a portion Adam *disinherited* his whole  
posterity by one single prevarication! *South.*

Nor how the Dryads and the woodland train,  
*Disinherited*, ran howling o'er the plain.

*Dryden's Fables.*

**DISINTER, v. a.** From *dis* and *inter.* To  
unbury; to take as out of the grave.

The philosopher, the saint, or the hero, the wise,  
the good, or the great man, very often lie hid and  
concealed in a plebeian, which a proper education  
might have *disinterred*.

*Addison.*

**DISINTERESTED, adj.** *Dis* and *Fr. intéressé.*  
Written *disinterested* generally, and more pro-  
perly. Without regard to private advantage;  
not biassed by particular views; impartial.

Not that tradition's parts are useless here,  
When general, old, *disinterested*, and clear.

*Dryden.*

**DISINTERESSMENT, n. s.** *Dis* and *Fr. inter-*  
*issement.* Disregard to private advantage;  
*disinterest*; *disinterestedness*. This word is  
merely a Gallicism.

He has managed some of the charges of the king-  
dom with known ability, and laid them down with en-  
tire *disinterestment*.

*Prior's Postscript.*

**DISINTEREST, n. s.** } *Dis* and *interest.*  
**DISINTERESTED, adj.** } What is contrary to  
**DISINTERESTEDLY, adv.** } one's interest, desire,  
**DISINTERESTEDNESS, n. s.** } or prosperity; that  
which any one is concerned to prevent: indiffer-  
ence to one's own advantage.

These expressions of selfishness and *disinterestedness*  
have been used in a very loose and indeterminate  
manner.

*Broune.*

They judge it the great *disinterest* to Rome.

*Glanville.*

As *disinterested* as you appear to the world, no man  
is more in the power of that prevailing favourite pas-  
sion than yourself.

*Swift.*

It is usual with persons who mount the stage for the  
cure or information of the crowd about them, to make  
solemn professions of their being wholly *disinterested*  
in the pains they take in public good.

*Steele.*

**DISINTITLED, part. adj.** *Dis* and *intitled.*  
Not entitled.

Yet J. S. and his little convention of four or five  
brothers of the tradition have clearly *disintitled* them-  
selves to any use of these (the Scriptures, &c.)

*Bp. Taylor.*



DISINTRICATE, *v. a.* *Dis* and intricate.  
To disentangle.

DISJOIN, *v. a.* *Fr. disjoindre*; *dis* and join.  
To separate; to part from each other; to dis-  
unite; to sunder.

Never shall my harp thy praise  
Forget, nor from thy father's praise *disjoin*.

*Milton.*

Lest different degree  
*Disjoin* us, and I then too late renounce  
Deity for thee, when fate will not permit. *Id.*

Happier for me, that all our hours assigned  
Together we had lived; even not in death *disjoined*.  
*Dryden.*

Never let us lay down our arms against France, till  
we have utterly *disjoined* her from the Spanish  
monarchy. *Addison.*

DISJOINT, *v. a., v., n., & part.* *Dis* and  
joint. To put out of joint. As a neuter verb,  
to fall in pieces.

Young Fontinbras,  
Holding a weak supposal of our worth,  
Thinks by our late dear brother's death  
Our state to be *disjoint* and out of frame.  
*Shakespeare. Hamlet.*

The constancy of your wit was not wont to bring  
forth such *disjointed* speeches. *Sidney.*

Be all their ligaments at once unbound,  
And their *disjointed* bones to powder ground.

*Sandys.*

Yet what could swords or poison, racks or flame,  
But mangle and *disjoint* the brittle frame?  
More fatal Henry's words: they murdered Emma's  
fame. *Prior.*

I asked a gentleman the other day that is famous  
for a good carver (at which acquisition he is out of  
countenance, imagining it may detract from some of  
his more essential qualifications) to help me to some-  
thing that was near him; but he excused himself, and  
blushing told me, of all things he could never carve  
in his life; though it can be proved upon him that he  
cut up, *disjointed*, and uncased, with incomparable dex-  
terity. *Spectator.*

Rotation must disperse in air  
All things which on the rapid orb appear;  
And if no power that motion should controul,  
It must *disjoint* and dissipate the whole. *Blackman.*

Mouldering arches, and *disjointed* columns. *Irene.*

Rocks reared on rocks in huge *disjointed* piles  
Form the tall turrets, and the lengthened aisles;  
Broad ponderous piers sustain the roof, and wide  
Branch the vast rainbow ribs from side to side.  
*Darwin.*

DISJUDICATION, *n. s.* *Lat. dijudicatio.*  
Judgment; determination: perhaps only mis-  
taken for *dijudication*.

The disposition of the organ is of great importance  
in the *disjudications* we make of colours.

*Boyle on Colours.*

DISJUNCT, *adj.* } *Lat. disjunctus.* Dis-  
DISJUNCTION, *n. s.* } joined; separate: dis-  
DISJUNCTIVE, *adj.* } union; incapable of  
union.

You may

Enjoy your mistress now, from whom you see  
There's no *disjunction* to be made, but by  
Your ruin. *Shakespeare. Winter's Tale.*

There is a great analogy between the body natural  
and politic, in which the ecclesiastical or spiritual

part justly supplies the part of the soul; and  
lent separation of this from the other, does not  
infer death and dissolution, as the *disjunctive*  
body and the soul in the natural.

Such principles, whose atoms are of that  
fine nature, as not to be united in a sufficient  
to make a visible mass.

A *disjunctive* proposition, in logic, is when  
are opposed to one another by *disjunctive*.  
The truth of *disjunctives* depends on the neces-  
sary immediate opposition of the parts. *Watts.*

There are such words as *disjunctive* con-  
junc-

What he observes of the numbers *disjunc-*  
apart, reason suggests to be applicable to a  
body united. *Causes of the Decay.*

DISK, *n. s.* *Lat. discus.* A quoit. The  
sun, or any planet, as it appears to

The *disk* of Phœbus, when he climbs  
Appears at first but as a blood-shot eye.

The crystal of the eye, which in a fish is  
any land animal is a *disk* or bowl; being he  
for the clearer sight of the object.

It is to be considered, that the rays,  
equally refrangible, do fall upon a circle as  
the sun's *disk*.

In areas varied with mosaic art,  
Some whirl the *disk*, and some the javelin

*Mercury's disk*

Can scarce be caught by philosophic eye,  
Lost in the near effulgence.

Where finds philosophy her eagle eye  
With which she gazes at yon burning *dis-*  
Undazzled, and detects and counts his

DISKIND'NESS, *n. s.* *Dis* and  
Want of kindness or benevolence; inju-  
diciousness.

This discourse is so far from doing any  
to the cause, that it does it a real service.

DISLIKE, *v. a. & n. s.* } *Dis* and  
DISLIKEFUL, *adj.* } disapprove  
garg without affection; to regard with  
disgust.

He then them took, and tempering good  
Their contrary *dislikes* with loved means,

Did place them all in order, and compel  
To keep themselves within their sundry re-  
Together linked with adamant chains.

I think it best, by an union of man-  
formity of minds, to bring them to be one;  
to put away the *dislikeful* conceit of the o-  
ther. *Id.*

What most he should *dislike*, seems  
him;

What like, offensive *Shakespeare. I.*

Your *dislikes*, to whom I would be pl-  
Do cloud my joys with danger and with

God's grace, that principle of his new  
him continual *dislike* to sin.

*Hammond's Practical.*

True love to the person cannot long  
*dislike* of the religion. *Bp. Hall's Cont.*

This said Aletes, and a murmur rose  
That shewed *dislike* among the Christian

Whosoever *dislikes* the digressions, or g-  
of them, may throw them away.

uld have been as silent as thought, as  
osophy. It would have rested in in-  
tacit dislikes.

South.

man is not angry if you dislike another;  
those faults which are in his own cha-  
racter discover not only your dislike of another,  
Addison.

point, which whoever can touch, will  
pleasing a majority, so great that the  
e forced to fall in with the herd.

Swift.

EN, v. a. Dis and liken. To make  
sual.

Muffle your face,  
e you; and, as you can, *dislike*  
of your own seeming.

Shakespeare. *Winter's Tale*.

NESS, n. s. Dis and likeness.  
; not resemblance; unlikeness.

is not designed to represent any thing  
never be capable of a wrong represen-  
tation of the true apprehension of  
its *dislike*ness to it; and such, excepting  
ideas, are all our own complex ideas.

Locke.

Y, v. a. Dis and limb. To dila-  
te limb from limb.

Y, v. a. Dis and limn. To unpaint;  
of a picture.

is now a horse, even with a thought  
ous, and makes it indistinct  
water.

Shakespeare. *Antony and Cleopatra*.

ATE, v. a. } Lat. *dis* and *locus*. To  
ION, n. s. } put out of the proper  
ition.

Were't my fitness  
se hands obey my boiling blood,  
apt enough to dislocate and tear  
and bones. Shakespeare. *King Lear*.

of rocks, often leaning or prostrate,  
y had some dislocation from their natu-  
Burnet.

o awry either within or without the  
as it is forcibly pulled to it, and so  
tion, or a strain. Grew's *Museum*.

time the strata on all sides of the globe  
it, and their situation varied, being  
ne places, and depressed in others.

Woodward.

broke nor dislocated any bones; but  
a contusion below the hip, as crippled  
Couper. *Private Correspondence*.

GE, v. a. & n. Dis and lodge. To  
a place; to go away.

The ladies have prevailed,  
as are *dislodged*, and Marcus gone.

Shakespeare.

night brought on the dusky hour,  
sleep, and silence, he resolved  
gions to *dislodge*.

Milton.

as lost, behold a new defeat,  
lodging from another seat.

Dryden's *Juvenal*.

h which are resident in the depths live  
and are never *dislodged* or removed by  
it upon the shores; which the litto-  
re

Woodward.

DISLOYAL, adj. } Fr. *desloyal*, *dis* and  
DISLOYALLY, adv. } loyal. Not true to alle-  
DISLOYALTY, n. s. } giance; faithless; false  
to a sovereign; disobedient.

When that tumultuous rage and fearfull deene  
Of northerne rebels ye did pacify,  
And their *disloyal* powere defaced clene,  
The record of enduring memory. Spenser. *Sonnets*.

The lady is *disloyal*.

— *Disloyal*! The word is too good to paint out  
her wickedness. Shakespeare.

There shall appear such seeming truths of Hero's  
*disloyalty*, that jealousy shall be called assurance.

Id.

Let the truth of that religion I profess be repre-  
sented to judgment, not in the disguises of levity  
schism, heresy, novelty, and *disloyalty*.

King Charles.

Foul distrust and breach

*Disloyal*; on the part of man, revolt  
And disobedience.

Milton.

*Disloyal* town!

Speak, didst not thou

Forsake thy faith, and break thy nuptial vow?

Dryden.

DISMAL, adj. } Lat. *dies malus*, an evil  
DISMALLY, adv. } day. Sorrowful; dire;  
DISMALNESS, n. s. } horrid; melancholy; un-  
comfortable; unhappy; dark.

The thane of Cawder 'gan a *dismal* conflict.

Shakespeare.

He hears

On all sides from innumerable tongues

A *dismal* universal hiss.

Milton.

Nor yet in horrid shade or *dismal* den,

Nor nocent yet; but on the grassy herb

Fearless, unfear'd, he slept.

Id.

The *dismal* situation waste and wild,

A dungeon horrible!

Id.

Such a variety of *dismal* accidents must have broken  
the spirits of any man.

Clarendon.

On the one hand set the most glittering temptations  
to discord, and on the other view the *dismal* effects of  
it.

Deacy of Piety.

Dreadful gleams,

*Dismal* screams.

Pope.

DISMAL, GREAT, or DISMAL SWAMP, a large  
swamp, or bog, extending from north to south  
nearly thirty miles, and from east to west, at a  
medium, about ten miles, partly in Virginia and  
partly in North Carolina. No less than five na-  
vigable rivers, besides creeks, rise out of it; two  
of which run into Virginia, viz. the south branch  
of Elizabeth, and the south branch of Nansemond  
river, and three into North Carolina, namely,  
North River, North West River, and Perquimons.  
All these hide their heads, properly speaking, in  
the Dismal, there being no signs of them above  
ground. There must, for this reason, be plenti-  
ful subterraneous stores of water here, or else the  
soil is so replete with this element, poured down  
from the high lands that surround it, that it can  
abundantly afford these supplies. This is, per-  
haps, most probable, as the ground of the swamp  
is a mere quagmire, trembling under the feet of  
those who walk upon it, and every footstep  
being instantly filled with water. The skirts of  
the swamp, towards the east, are overgrown  
with reeds, ten or twelve feet high, interspersed  
with strong bamboo briars. Among these grow



here and there a cypress or white cedar, commonly mistaken for the juniper. Towards the south end of it is a large tract of reeds, which, being constantly green and waving in the wind, is called the Green Sea. In many parts, especially on the borders, grows an ever-green shrub, very plentifully, called the gall-bush. It bears a berry which dies a black color like the gall of an oak, whence its name. Near the middle of this swamp the trees grow much thicker, both cypress and cedar, and, being always green and loaded with very large tops, are much exposed to the wind and easily blown down. Neither beast, bird, insect, nor reptile, approach the heart of this horrible desert; perhaps deterred by the everlasting shade, occasioned by the thick shrubs and bushes, which the sun can never penetrate to warm the earth: nor indeed, on account of the noisome exhalations, do any birds fly over it. These noxious vapors infect the air all around. On the west border is a pine swamp, above a mile in breadth, great part of which is covered with water, knee-deep; the bottom, however, is firm, and the pines grow very tall. With all these disadvantages Dismal Swamp is, in many places, pleasing to the eye, though disagreeable to the other senses. It was judged impassable, till the line, dividing Virginia from North Carolina, was carried through it, in lat. 36° 23' N., in 1728, by order of king George II. Although this was undertaken in a very dry season, the men who were employed were ten whole days before they could accomplish their work. In the middle is a lake about seven miles long, called Drummond's Pond, whose waters run south into Pasquotank River, which falls into Albemarle Sound; and on the north into Elizabeth and Nansemond Rivers, which fall into James River. A navigable canal has, with immense labor, been cut through this swamp, connecting the waters of the Pasquotank, which fall into Albemarle Sound, and those of the Elizabeth, which is connected by means of James River with Chesapeake Bay. As the Dismal Swamp lies so near Norfolk, where there is a constant demand for shingles, staves, &c., for exportation; and as the best of these articles are made from the trees growing upon the swamp, it is on this account a valuable property. It chiefly belongs to two companies, the Virginia Company, who possess 100,000 acres of it, and the North Carolina Company, who possess 40,000.

**DISMANTLE**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *mantle*. To deprive of a dress; to strip; to denude.

This is most strange!

That she, who even but now was your best object,  
Dearest and best, should in this trice of time  
Commit a thing so monstrous, to *dismantle*  
So many folds of favour. *Shakespeare. King Lear.*

It is not sufficient to possess our own fort, without  
the *dismantling* and demolishing of our enemies.

*Hakewill.*

His eyeballs, rooted out, are thrown to ground;  
His nose *dismantled* in his mouth is found;  
His jaws, cheeks, front, one undistinguished wound.

*Dryden.*

He that makes his prince despised and undervalued,  
and beats him out of his subjects' hearts, may easily

strip him of his other garrisons, having already  
possessed him of his strongest, by *dismantling* his  
honour, and seizing his reputation.

Sees dancing slaves insult his martial plain  
Parts with chill stream the dim religious law  
Time-mouldered bastion, and *dismantled* tower.

**DISMAY'SK**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *mask*. To  
of a mask; to uncover from concealment.

Fair ladies masked are roses in the bud,  
Or angels veiled in clouds; are roses blown,  
*Dismasked*, their damask sweet commixture the

The marquis thought best to *dismask* his tears  
told him that he was going covertly.

**DISMAY'**, *v. a. & n. s.* *Sp. desmayar*; *Dis-  
mayer*. *Dis* and *may*. *Dis* after Sebastian, a Spanish etymologist, say  
cifully enough, 'from the month of May, that  
month the flowers of the field hang  
heads and fade away:' to discourage; dis-  
self-possession; terribly.

He will not fail thee; fear not, neither let

Nought could she say,  
But sudden catching hold, did her *dismay*  
With quaking hands, and other signs of  
*Spenser. Faerie Q.*  
Their mighty strokes their habergeons *dismay*

Enemies would not be so troublesome to the  
tern coasts, nor that country itself would be  
*dismayed* with alarms as they have of late years  
*Raleigh's*

All sate mute,  
Pondering the danger with deep thoughts; as  
In others countenance read his own *dismay*.

The valiantest feels inward *dismayedness*;  
the fearfulest is ashamed fully to shew it.  
Nothing can make him remiss in the present  
duty; no prospect of interest can allure him,  
of danger *dismay* him.

**DISME**, *n. s.* *Fr.* A tenth; the tenth  
tythe.

Since the first sword was drawn about things  
Every tithe soul 'mongst many thousand *dism*  
Hath been as dear as Helen.

*Shakespeare. Troilus and C.*  
The pope began to exercise his new rapid  
compliance with king Edward, in granting  
years *dime* from the clergy. *Ayliffe's Po.*

**DISMEMBER**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *member*.  
divide member from member; to dilacerate  
cut in pieces.

Him booteth not resist, nor succour call,  
His bleeding hart is in the venger's hand,  
Who streight him rent in thousand pieces  
And quite *dismembered* hath.

*Spenser. Faerie Q.*  
I am with both, each army hath a hand  
And in their rage, I having hold of both,  
They whirl asunder and *dismember* me.

A state can never arrive to its period in  
deplorable crisis, than when some prince lies  
like a vulture, to devour or *dismember* its  
cass.

Fowls obscene *dismembered* his remains,  
And dogs had torn him on the naked plain  
*Pope's*



to contemplate only the fragments or  
ence dispersed in short unconnected dis-  
never survey an entire body of truth, but  
view it as deformed and *dimembered*.

Watts.

S', v. a. } Lat. *dimissus*. To send  
108, n. s. } away; despatch.

*dimissed* the assembly. Acts, xix. 41.

We commit thee thither,  
army be *dimissed* from him.

Shakespeare. Henry IV.

at not stay here longer; your *dimission*  
on Caesar. Id. Ant. and Cleop.

hou degrad'at them, or remit'st  
re, which were a fair *dimission*;  
them lower than thou didst exalt them

Milton's Agonists.

our young Tulus be no more,  
our navy from your friendly shore.

Dryden's Virgil.

soon as may be, all angry and wrathful  
these will but canker and corrode the  
dispose it to the worst temper in the

Mason.

your cheeks, fond youths! *dimiss* the

he harp, the soft guitar be mute:

f passion in contempt I hold:—

substantial proof of love—in gold.

Sheridan.

ON OF A BILL, in chancery. If the

es not attend on the day fixed for the

bill is *dimissed* with costs. It may

missed for want of prosecution, which

ture of a nonsuit at law, if he suffers

to elapse without moving forwards in

RTGAGE, v. a. *Dis* and mortgage.  
from mortgage.

tyaged the crown demesnes, and left be-  
of gold. Howell's Vocal Forest.

UNT, v. a. & v. n. Fr. *demonter*. To

a horse, or from an elevation: to

a horse; to descend.

The champion stout

mounted from his courser brave,

warfe awhile his needless spere he gave.

Spenser. Faerie Queene.

om this flying steed unreined, as once

phon, though from a lower clime,

sted, on the Aleian field I fall. Milton.

s' artillery, planted against that tower,

Christian cannoneers *dismounted* with shot

er, and many of the gunners slain.

Knolles.

came within sight of that prodigious

mount, he ordered all his cavalry to *dis-*

mount upon their knees a blessing.

Addison's Freeholder.

TURALIZE, v. a. *Dis* and natural-

ienate; to make alien; to deprive of

es of birth.

TURED, adj. *Dis* and nature. Un-

anting natural tenderness; devoid of

ction. Unusual.

If she must teem,

her child of spleen, that it may live,

a thwart *dissatisfied* torment to her.

Shakespeare. King Lear.

DISNEY (John), an English divine and ma-  
gistrate, born at Lincoln, in 1677. He received  
the early part of his education at the grammar  
school in his native city, after which, his father  
being a dissenter, he was sent to an academy of  
that persuasion. From this he removed to the  
Middle Temple, where he studied the law,  
though he never followed it as a profession; but  
when he retired to his paternal estate, he distin-  
guished himself greatly as an active magistrate,  
particularly in the laudable but unpopular mea-  
sures he took for the suppression of vice and im-  
morality, for which he repeatedly received the  
thanks of the judges on the circuits. When  
about forty-two years of age he took orders in  
the church, and was presented to the vicarage of  
Croft, and the rectory of Kirby-Super-Baine,  
in Lincolnshire. In 1722 he was preferred to  
the living of St. Mary, in Nottingham, where he  
died in 1730. He published, 1. Two Essays  
upon the Execution of the Laws against Immo-  
rality and Profaneness, 8vo. 2. Primitive Sacrae,  
the Reflections of a devout Solitude, 8vo. 3.  
Flora, prefixed to a Translation of Rapin's  
Poem on Gardens. 4. Remarks upon a Ser-  
mon preached by Dr. Sacheverell. 5. A View  
of ancient Laws against Immorality and Profane-  
ness.

DISOBEY, v. a.

DISOBE'DIENCE, n. s.

DISOBE'DIENT, adj.

DISOBE'DIENTLY, adv.

Dis and obey. To

break commands, or

transgress prohibi-

tions; move out of

order, or cease to follow a previous impulse.

The man of God was *disobedient* unto the word of

the Lord. 1 Kings xiii. 26.

The offence is holy that she hath committed;

And this deceit loses the name of craft,

Of *disobedience*, or undutious title.

Shakespeare.

*Disobedient* children, if preserved from the gallows,

are reserved for the rack, to be tortured by their own

posterity. One complaining, that never father had

so undutiful a child as he had; Yes, said his sonne,

with less grace than truth, my grandfather had.

Fuller.

Of man's first *disobedience*, and the fruit

Of that forbidden tree, sing heavenly muse.

Milton.

Murder, adultery, or *disobedience* to parents, have

a general notion antecedently to laws. Stillingfleet.

She absolutely bade him, and he durst not know

how to *disobey*. Sidney.

He's loth to *disobey* the god's command,

Not willing to forsake this pleasant land.

Denham.

This *disobedience* of the moon will prove

The sun's bright orb does not the planets move.

Blackmore.

This *disobedience* of the fibres of age to their usual

stimuli, has generally been ascribed to repetition or

habit, as those who live near a large clock, or a mill,

or a waterfall, soon cease to attend to the perpetual

noise of it in the day, and sleep during the night un-

disturbed. Darwin.

DISOBLIGE, v. a.

DISOBLIGING, part. adj.

DISOBLIGINGLY, adv.

DISOBLIGINGNESS, n. s.

DISOBLIGATION.

low this sense.

Dis and oblige.

To offend; dis-

gust; give slight

offence to. All

the derivatives fol-



Ashley had been removed from that charge, and was thereby so much *disobliged*, that he quitted the king's party.  
*Clarendon.*

There can be no malice, and consequently no crime or *disobligation*.  
*L'Estrange.*

Those, though in highest place, who slight and *disoblige* their friends, shall infallibly come to know the value of them, by having none when they shall most need them.  
*South.*

If a woman suffers her lover to see she is loth to *disoblige* him, let her beware of an encroacher.  
*Clarissa.*

My plan has given offence to some gentlemen, whom it would not be very safe to *disoblige*.  
*Addison's Guardian.*

We love and esteem our clergy, and are apt to lay some weight upon their opinion, and would not willingly *disoblige* them.  
*Swift concerning the Sacramental Test.*

Peremptoriness can befit no form of understanding: it renders wise men *disobliging* and troublesome, and fools ridiculous and contemptible.  
*Government of the Tongue.*

**DISORBED**, *adj.* *Dis* and *orb*. Thrown out of the proper orbit.

Fly like chidden Mercury from Jove,  
Or like a star *disorbed*.  
*Shakespeare. Troilus and Cressida.*

**DISOR'DER**, *v. a. & n. s.* } *Fr. desordre.*  
**DISOR'DERED**, *adj.* } *Dis* and *order*. To  
**DISOR'DEREDNESS**, *n. s.* } disturb; throw  
**DISOR'DERLY**, *adv.* } out of arrange-  
ment; ruffle; discompose.

We behaved not ourselves *disorderly* among you.  
*2 Thess.*

By that *disorderedness* of the soldiers, a great advantage was offered unto the enemy.  
*Knolles.*

Here do you keep a hundred knights and squires Men so *disordered*, so debauched and bold,  
That this our court, infected with their manners,  
Shews like a riotous inn. *Shakespeare. King Lear.*

Naked savages fighting *disorderly* with stones, by appointment of their commanders, may truly and absolutely be said to war.  
*Raleigh.*

He is one that seldom takes care for old age, because ill diet and *disorder*, together with a consumption, or some worse disease, taken up in his full career, have onely chalked out his catastrophe but to a colon.  
*Micrologia, 1629.*

Eve,  
Not so repulsed, with tears that ceased not flowing,  
And tresses all *disordered*, at his feet  
Fell humble.  
*Milton.*

Those obsolete laws of Henry I. were but *disorderly*, confused, and general things; rather cases and shells of administration than institutions.  
*Hale.*

Let him be stript, and *disordered*; I would fain see him walk in querpoo, that the world may behold the inside of a friar.  
*Dryden's Span. Friar.*

Pleasure and pain are only different constitutions of the mind, sometimes occasioned by *disorder* in the body, or sometimes by thoughts in the mind.  
*Locke.*

A *disorderly* multitude contending with the body of the legislature, is like a man in a fit under the conduct of one in the fulness of his health and strength.  
*Addison.*

From vulgar bounds with brave *disorder* part,  
And snatch a grace beyond the reach of art. *Pope.*

The incursions of the Goths, and other barbarous nations, *disordered* the affairs of the Roman empire.  
*Arrian.*

Many a brave fellow, who has put his enemy to flight in the field, has been in the utmost *disorder* upon making a speech before a body of his friends at home.  
*Hopkins.*

**DISORD'INATE**, *adj.* } *Dis* and *ordinatus*  
**DISORD'INATELY**, *adv.* } Not living by rules of virtue; inordinate.

These not *disordinate*, yet causeless suffer  
The punishment of dissolute days.  
*Milton. Agnata.*

**DISO'RIENTATED**, *adj.* *Dis* and *orientatus*. Turned from the east; turned from the right direction; thrown out of the proper place.

Andrew Marvel uses the word *disorientated* instead of *disorientated*: 'Geneva had *disorientated* our geographer.'  
*Dr. A. Ken.*

**DISO'WN**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *own*. To deny; not to allow; renounce.

Then they, who brother's better claim *disown*,  
Expel their parents, and usurp the throne.  
*Dryden's Bui.*

When an author has publicly *disowned* a spurious piece, they have disputed his name with him.  
*Swift.*

**DISOR'GANIZE**, *v. a.* } *Fr. desorganiser.*  
**DISOR'GANIZATION**, *n. s.* } *dis* and *organum*.  
To derange a system in its parts; subversion of system or order. A modern word altogether.

These *disorganizing* principles spread rapidly, and had not the contagion been interrupted by the war with France, the consequences would have been far more serious to England.  
*Thomas.*

**DISPA'ND**, *v. a.* } *Lat. dispaudo.* To dis-  
**DISPA'NSION**, *n. s.* } play; spread abroad; the act of displaying or spreading.

**DISPAR'AGE**, *v. a.* } *Ital. disparaggiare.*  
**DISPAR'AGER**, *n. s.* } from *Lat. dispar*, to  
**DISPAR'AGEMENT**. } fit, and *agere*, to do;

Minshew. To match or compare for the worse; to depreciate by comparison; to treat contemptuously.

Gentle knight,  
That doth against the dead his hand uprear,  
His honour stains with rancour and despoight,  
And great *disparagement* makes to his former might.  
*Spenser.*

Yet doe not sdeigne to let thy name be writt  
In this base poem, for thee far unfit;  
Nought is thy worth *disparaged* thereby.  
*Id. Sonnet.*

She was much affectionate to her own kindred, which did stir great envy in the lords of the king's side, who counted her blood a *disparagement* to be mingled with the king's.  
*Roman.*

In a commonwealth, much *disparagement* is occasioned, when able spirits, attracted by a familiarity, are inflamed with faction.  
*Watts.*

It is no *disparagement* for greater persons to keep treaties of peace.  
*Bp. Hall's Contemplation.*

Ahaz, his sottish conqueror, he drew  
God's altar to *disparage* and displace,  
For one of Syrian mode.  
*Milton's Paradise Lost.*

They will defy  
That which they love most tenderly;  
Quarrel with minced pies, and *disparage*  
Their best and dearest friend, plum-porridge.  
*Hall's.*



*disparagement* to philosophy, that it cannot  
Glanville.

rd and nice subject for a man to speak of  
grates his own heart to say any thing of  
it, and the reader's ears to hear any thing  
in him. Cowley.

ngfully do require Mopsa to so great a  
it, as to wed her father's servant.

Sidney.

was never intended for the stage; nor,  
*disparagement* to the author, could have suc-  
Dryden.

a weak, diminutive light, compared to re-  
it ought to be no *disparagement* to a star  
a sun. South.

lon sat easily, naturally, and gracefully  
without any of those forbidding appearances  
times *disparage* the actions of men sin-  
Atterbury.

RATES, *n. s.* } From Lat. *disparata*.  
ITY, *n. s.* } Things so unlike that  
t be compared with each other; ine-

Elihu and the rest of Job's familiars, the  
arity was but in years. Hooker.

ng unequals, what society  
it, what harmony or true delight?  
must be mutual, in proportion due  
and received; but in *disparity*,  
e intense, the other still remiss,  
well suit with either, but soon prove  
alike. Milton.

t as great a *disparity* between the practical  
he understanding, then and now, as there  
mpire and advice, counsel and command.  
South.

t not to associate and join themselves to-  
same office, under a *disparity* of condi-  
Ayliffe's Parergon.

DK', *v. a.* *Dis* and *park*. To throw  
t.

large; to release from enclosure.

u have fed upon my signiories,  
my parks, and felled my forest woods.  
Shakespeare.

They were supposed  
ow wits to be enclosed;  
free muse threw down the pale,  
t at once *dispark* them all. Waller.

RT', *v. a.* *Dis* and *part*. Fr. *depar-*  
*ispertion*. To divide in two; to sepa-  
eak; to burst; to rive.

is the doubt, and difficult to deem,  
ll three kinds of love together meet,  
*dispart* the heart with power extreme,  
er shall weigh the balance down. Spenser.

The rest to several places  
rted, and between spun out the air.  
Milton.

t Britain mourned their doubtful way,  
d both, when neither would obey.  
Prior.

The pilgrim oft,  
if night, mid his oraison hears  
e voice of Time, *disparting* towers,  
all precipitate down-dashed,  
round, loud thunderin' to the moon.  
Dyer.

DISPART, in gunnery, is the mark set upon  
the muzzle ring of a piece of ordnance, so that a  
sight-line, taken upon the top of the base ring  
against the touch-hole, by the mark set on or  
near the muzzle, may be parallel to the axis of  
the concave cylinder. The common way of  
doing this is, to take the two diameters of the  
base-ring, and of the place where the *dispart* is  
to stand, and divide the difference between them  
into two equal parts, one of which will be the  
length of the *dispart*, which is set on the gun  
with wax or pitch, or fastened there with a  
piece of twine or marline. By means of an in-  
strument it may be done with great nicety.

DISPASSION, *n. s.* } From *dis* and *pas-*  
DISPA'SSIONATE, *adj.* } sion. Freedom from  
DISPA'SSIONATED, *adj.* } mental perturbation;  
exemption from passion.

Wise and *dispassionate* men thought he had been  
proceeded with very justly. Clarendon.

What is called by the Stoicks apathy, or *dispassion*,  
is called by the Scepticks indisturbance, by the Moli-  
nists quietism, by common men peace of conscience.  
Temple.

You have, as all *dispassioned* men may judge,  
fulfilled the poet's definition of madness. Dr. Maine.

DISPEL', *v. a.* Lat. *dispello*. To drive by  
scattering; to dissipate.

If the night

Have gathered aught of evil, or concealed,  
Disperse it, as now light *dispels* the dark. Milton.

When the spirit brings light unto our minds, it *dis-*  
*spels* darkness; we see it, as we do that of the sun at  
noon, and need not the twilight of reason to shew it.  
Locke.

DISPENCE', *n. s.* Fr. *dispençe*. Expense;  
cost; charge; profusion.

It was a vault ybuilt for great *dispençe*,  
With many ranges reared along the wall,  
And one great chimney, whose long funnel thence  
The smoke forth threw. Faerie Queene.

DISPEND', *v. a.* Lat. *dispendo*. To spend;  
to consume; to expend.

Of their commodities they were now scarce able to  
*dispend* the third part. Spenser's State of Ireland.

DISPENSE', *v. a. & n. s.* } Fr. *dispenser*;  
DISPENS'ARY, *n. s.* } Span. *dispensar*;  
DISPENS'ATION, } Ital. and Lat. *dis-*  
DISPENS'ATOR, } *pensare*, from *dis*,  
DISPENS'ATORY. } diversely, and

*pendo*, to weigh out money. To deal out; *dis-*  
tribute by rule or measure: hence to excuse, or  
suspend compliance with a rule; and to set free  
from obligation. A dispensary is, strictly, a  
place where medicines are weighed or dealt out; a  
dispensatory a book prescribing them; dispensa-  
tion, a rule of dealing between God and man;  
distribution: hence, permission to do what may  
have been forbidden.

So a man gesse us as mynystis of Crist, and *dis-*  
*penderis* of the mynysteries of God. Now it is sought  
among the *dispenderis* that a man be foundun trwe.  
Wiclif. i. Cor. 4.

One loving howte  
For many years of sorrow can *dispençe*.  
Spenser. Faerie Queene.



Hast thou not sworn allegiance unto me?  
Canst thou *dispen* with heaven for such an oath?  
*Shakespeare.*

How few kingdoms are there, wherein, by *dispensing* with oaths, absolving subjects from allegiance, and cursing, or threatening to curse, as long as their curses were regarded, the popes have not wrought innumerable mischiefs.  
*Raleigh.*

As her majesty hath made them *dispensators* of her favour towards her people, so it becometh them to show themselves equal distributors of the same. *Bacon.*

The description of the ointment is found in the chymical *dispensatory*. *Id. Natural History.*

God delights in the ministries of his own choice, and the methods of grace, in the economy of heaven, and the *dispensations* of eternal happiness.

*Taylor's Worthy Communicant.*  
Royal bounties

Are great and gracious, while they are *dispensed*  
With moderation. *Massinger.*

Those now that were *dispensed*  
The burden of many ages, on me light  
At once by my foreknowledge. *Milton.*

Then reliques, beads,  
Indulgences, *dispenses*, pardons, bulls,  
The sport of winds. *Id.*  
At length the muses stand restored again,  
While you *dispen* the laws, and guide the state.  
*Dryden.*

To thee the loved *dispensary* I resign. *Garth.*  
Neither are God's methods or intentions different  
in his *dispensations* to each private man. *Rogers.*

Do thou, my soul, the destined period wait,  
When God shall solve the dark decrees of fate;  
His now unequal *dispensations* clear,  
And make all wise and beautiful appear. *Tickell.*

Our materia medica is large enough; and, to look into our *dispensatories*, one would think no disease incurable. *Baker.*

A *dispensation* was obtained to enable Dr. Barrow to marry. *Ward.*

I could not *dispen*se with myself from making a voyage to Caprea. *Addison on Italy.*

Those to whom Christ has committed the *dispensation* of his gospel. *Decay of Piety.*

This perpetual circulation is constantly promoted by a *dispensation* of water promiscuously and indifferently to all parts of the earth.

*Woodward's Natural History.*

Those who stand before earthly princes, who are the *dispensers* of their favours, and conveyors of their will to others, challenge high honours. *Atterbury.*

His peculiar doctrines are not like any thing of human contrivance. 'Never man spake like this man.' One of the first names given to that *dispensation* of things which he came to introduce, was 'the kingdom,' or the reign, 'of heaven.' *Beattie.*

DISPENSARY, a kind of charitable institution, of late years very prevalent in Britain. They are designated the General Dispensary, the Universal Dispensary, the Dispensary of particular counties or districts, &c. They are supported by voluntary subscriptions, having each one or more physicians and surgeons, whose business is to attend at stated times, to prescribe for the poor; and, if necessary, to visit them at their own habitations. It is in this latter respect, that the patients of a dispensary differ from those called out-patients at an hospital. The poor are supplied gratis with medicine, and

many of these institutions also afford assistance to lying-in women. Formerly were three dispensaries established in London for selling medicines to the poor at prices under the direction of the College of Physicians. In China the medicines are not dispensed but money is given to the poor to buy them. The Chinese have a stone, ten feet high, erected in the public squares of the cities: on this stone are engraved the names of all sorts of medicines, with the prices, and when the poor stand in need of medicine from physic, they go to the treasury, where they receive the price each medicine is rated at.

DISPENSATIONS are most generally understood by the pope, who claims the office justly, and has extended it to every thing. INDULGENCES. His power to grant a dispensation for any thing contrary to the divine law of nature, has, however, been deemed more moderate of the Romanists, who limit him to what is contrary to positive laws, things relating to facts, marriages, &c.; and who limit his power to these things. The archbishop of Canterbury has a power, by statute, of dispensing with the cause wherein dispensations were granted by the see of Rome, as when a king as his subjects; and, during the vacancy of the archbishop's see, the guardian of the liberties may grant dispensations. Even the king of common right has the power of dispensing in benefices, and of dispensing in common law. A dispensation of the king may be prohibited, lawful to be done by the king, though a thing evil in itself without a dispensation. And where there is an immediate interest in an act of the king, the king cannot dispense with it; but where the suit be the king's own, only for the sake of a penal law that is not to the disadvantage of a third person. There is a dispensation notwithstanding, which is where a statute to restrain some prerogative incident to the king, as the right of pardoning, or of appointing the service of the subjects for the king, &c., each of which prerogatives are inseparable from the king, and then the clause non obstante, such statute is dispensed with.

DISPEOPLE, *v. a.* *Dis* and *people*.  
DISPEOPLE, *n. s.* } depopulate;  
of people: he who depopulates, or who

The Irish, banished into the mountains, they lived only upon white meats, seeing so *dispeopled* and weakened, came to the plains.

Conflagrations and great droughts, *dispeopled*, but destroy.

His heart exalts him in the  
Already done, to have *dispeopled* heaven  
Nor drain I ponds the golden carp  
Nor trowle for pikes, *dispeopled* of the

Kings, furious and severe  
Who claimed the skies, *dispeopled* air  
The lonely lords of empty wilds and

DISPERGE, *v. a.* Lat. *dispergere*.  
to scatter.



E, v. a. } Fr. *disperser*, from Lat.  
 IY, adv. } *dispergere, dispersus* ;  
 NESS, n. s. } à *dis*, diversely, and  
 } *spargo* ; Gr. *σπαράω*,  
 } to sprinkle. To scat-  
 into parts ; distribute.

red them among the heathen, and they  
 through the countries. *Ezek. xxxvi. 19.*

s wits of some few, peradventure, are  
 here and there, to find now a word,  
 tence, which may be more probably  
 easily cleared of error. *Hooker.*  
*disperse yourselves.* *Shakespeare.*

in from thence his *dispersion*. *Raleigh.*

that loved wealth, he could not endure  
 ick, nor any obstruction to continue in  
 which *disperseth* that blood. *Bacon.*

re grows weak, and fewness of objects  
 affection. *Bp. Hall's Contemplations.*

If the night  
 ed aught of evil, or concealed,  
 as now light dispels the dark. *Milton.*

arts of Africk are by Piso resembled to  
 the distance of whose spots represent  
 of habitations or towns in Africk.

*Brewerwood on Languages.*

are pleased with defamatory libels, so  
 ve the authors and *dispersers* of them,  
 if they had composed them.

*Spectator.*  
 ny *dispersions*, and so many divisions,  
 us may yet be gathered together.

*Pope.*  
 rals are either found in grains, *dispers-*  
 ed with the corpuscles of earth or sand,  
 d into balls or nodules. *Woodward.*

They have built  
 without new *dispersion*, than  
 ring young ones of the flood's dull ooze,  
 and fled each other. *Byron.*

N OF INFLAMMATION, in medicine  
 is the removing the inflammation,  
 the inflamed part to its natural

ERSION OF MANKIND, in the early  
 world, was occasioned by the con-  
 gues, and took place in consequence  
 row of Babel at the birth of Peleg ;  
 derived his name. It appears by  
 given of his ancestors, Gen. xi. 10—  
 appened in the 101st. year after the  
 ling to the Hebrew chronology, and  
 ritan computation in the 401st. How-  
 difficulties have been suggested by  
 concerning the true era of this event.  
 rsham and others, to reconcile the  
 Egyptian chronologies, maintain a  
 f mankind before the birth of Peleg.  
 le to find numbers sufficient for the  
 of colonies in the space of 101 years,  
 the Hebrew computation, fix the  
 wards the end of Peleg's life, thus  
 computation of the Jews. Petavius  
 53d year after the flood : Cumberland  
 and Usher, though he generally refers  
 of Peleg's birth, in one place assigns  
 the flood for this event. Mr. Shuck-  
 is the dispersion to have been gradual,  
 commenced with the separation of

some companies at the birth of Peleg, and to have  
 been completed thirty-one years after. Accord-  
 ing to the calculation of Petavius, the number of  
 inhabitants on the earth at the birth of Peleg  
 amounted to 32,768. Cumberland makes them  
 30,000. Mr. Mede states them at 7,000 men,  
 besides women and children : and Mr. Whiston,  
 who supposes that mankind now double them-  
 selves in 400 years, and that they doubled them-  
 selves, between the deluge and the time of David,  
 in sixty years at a medium, when their lives  
 were six or seven times as long as they have been  
 since, by his computation, produces about 2,389 ;  
 a number much too inconsiderable for the pur-  
 poses of separating and forming distinct nations.  
 This difficulty induced Mr. Whiston to reject the  
 Hebrew, and to adopt the Samaritan chronology,  
 as many others have done ; which, by allowing  
 an interval of 401 years between the flood and the  
 birth of Peleg, furnishes, by the last mentioned  
 mode of computation, more than 240,000 per-  
 sons. As to the manner of the dispersion of the  
 posterity of Noah from the plain of Shinar, the  
 sacred historian informs us that they were divided  
 in their lands, every one according to his tongue,  
 according to his family, and according to his  
 nation. Gen. x. 5. 20. 31 : and thus, as Mr.  
 Mede observes, they were ranged according to  
 their nations, and every nation by its families ;  
 so that each nation had a separate lot, and each  
 family in every nation. The following abstract  
 will serve to give a general idea of their respec-  
 tive settlements :—Japhet, Noah's eldest son, had  
 seven sons, viz. Gomer, whose descendants in-  
 habited those parts of Asia which lie upon the  
 Egean Sea and Hellespont northward, contain-  
 ing Phrygia, Pontus, Bithynia, and a great part  
 of Galatia. The Galatians, according to Jose-  
 phus, were called Gomeræi ; and the Cimmerii,  
 or Celts, Mr. Camden derives our ancient Brit-  
 tons, who still retain the name Cymro, Cymru,  
 or Cumbri. See BRITAIN. Magog, the second  
 son of Japhet, was probably the father of the  
 Scythians on the east and north-east of the Euxine  
 Sea. Madai planted Media, though Mr. Mede  
 assigns Macedonia to his share. Javan was the  
 father of the Grecians about Ionia, whose country  
 lies along the Mediterranean Sea ; the radi-  
 cals of Javan and Ionia being the same, *יון*. To  
 Tubal and Meshech belonged Cappadocia and the  
 country which lies on the borders of the Euxine  
 Sea ; and from them, migrating over the Cauca-  
 sus, it is supposed the Russians and Muscovites  
 are descended. And Tiras occupied Thrace. The  
 sons of Shem were five ; Elam, whose country lay  
 between the Medes and Mesopotamians, and was  
 called by the Gentile writers Elymais ; and Jo-  
 sephus calls the Elamites the founders of the Per-  
 sians ; Ashur, who was driven out of Shinar by  
 Nimrod, afterwards settled in Assyria, and there  
 built Nineveh and other cities ; Arphaxad, who  
 gave name to the country which Ptolemy calls  
 Arraphacitis, a province of Assyria, though  
 Josephus makes him the father of the Chaldees,  
 Lud, who inhabited and gave name to the coun-  
 try of Lydia about the river Mæander, remark-  
 able for its windings, in Asia Minor ; and Aram,



the father of the Syrians. Ham, the youngest son of Noah, had four sons, viz. Cush, whose posterity spread into the several parts of Arabia, over the borders of the land of Edom, into Arabia Felix, up to Midian and Egypt; Mizraim, the father of them who inhabited Egypt and other parts of Africa; Phut, to whom Bochart assigns the remaining part of Africa, from the lake Tritonides to the Atlantic Ocean, called Lybia; and Canaan, to whom belonged the land of Canaan, whence the Phenicians derived their origin. Dr. Bryant has advanced a new hypothesis on this subject, and supported it with his usual acuteness and learning. He maintains that the dispersion, as well as the confusion of tongues, was local, and limited to the inhabitants of the province of Babel; that the separation and distribution recorded to have taken place in the days of Peleg, Gen. x. 25, 31, 32, which was the result of Divine appointment, occasioned a general migration; and that all the families among the sons of men were concerned in it. The house of Shem, from which the Messiah was to spring, was particularly regarded in this distribution; the portion of his children was near the place of separation; they in general had Asia to their lot, as Japhet had Europe, and Ham the large continent of Africa. But the sons of Cush would not submit to the divine dispensation; they went off under the conduct of Nimrod, and seem to have been for a long time in a roving state. They, however, at last arrived at the plains of Shinar; and having ejected Ashur and his sons, seized his dominions, and laid there the foundation of a great monarchy. But afterwards, fearing lest they should be divided and scattered abroad, they built the tower of Babel as a land mark to which they might repair; and probably to answer the purposes of an idolatrous temple, or high altar, dedicated to the host of heaven. Here they were punished with the judgment of confounded speech through a failure in labial utterance, and with the dispersion recorded in Gen. x. 8, 9: in consequence of which they were scattered abroad from this city and tower, without any certain place of destination.

'Various, however,' as Dr. Kippis remarks, 'have been the opinions concerning the confusion of tongues at Babel. Some have thought that the change produced by it was of so total a nature, as to oblige men to speak in languages fundamentally different. But this is not probable, as, in that case, the whole set of their ideas, and the very organs of their speech, must have been altered. Neither is this hypothesis agreeable to experience, since most of the languages we are acquainted with have a certain degree of affinity. They either appear to be materially related, as sister languages, or show that they were originally derived from the same source.'

'Other persons therefore, with greater reason, suppose that the change was only partial, and brought about in a gradual manner. Dr. Gr. Sharpe is of opinion, that the confounding of the speech, or lip, does not relate to language, properly so called, but to a confusion of design, counsels, and purposes; so that the builders of Babel could not agree together, to carry on the undertaking they had begun.'

This last writer fairly enough observes—'The number of people at Babel before the dispersion is not known, and of the miraculous division of languages there is not one word in the Bible. In Psalm lv. 9, David says, 'Destroy, O Lord, and divide their tongues, for I have seen violence and strife in the city;' where he certainly does not mean that God would make them speak new languages: for to divide their tongues is to divide their counsels, and to scatter dissension and animosity, not new-made words, amongst them. However, in Genesis xi. their language is as even said to be divided; but God says, 'Let us go down and confound their language, that they may not understand one another's speech. So the Lord scattered them abroad from thence upon the face of all the earth, and they led off to build the city. Therefore is the name of it called Babel (or confusion), because the Lord did there confound the language of all the earth.'

He thus concludes—'It is said that they (the whole earth) were together in the plain of Shinar, and that the language of all the earth was there confounded. No person is excepted. However, it is not presumed that Noah consented to the building, much less that he assisted in the work, or that he was ignorant that men were to be dispersed, and the world peopled by their dispersion, or that he did not oppose the raising an edifice to prevent their dispersion, which, from the natural increase of men and cattle, must in time have happened without a miracle. But it is apprehended, that there could be no occasion for a lofty fortress to defend the whole earth; for what enemies had the whole earth, against whom it was necessary to build a high tower? There is a like difficulty in assigning any reason for making themselves men of name or renown; for who were to esteem themselves men of name or of renown? Or where and when were they to be famous, before there were any human inhabitants but themselves?'

The Cushites seem afterwards to have invaded Egypt or the land of Mizraim in its infant state, seized the whole country, and held it for some ages in subjection: they extended themselves likewise to the Indies and Ganges, and still farther into China and Japan. From them the province of Cushan or Goshen in Egypt probably derived its name. Here they also obtained the appellation of 'royal shepherds;' and when they were by force driven out of the country, after having been in possession of it for 260 or 280 years, the land which they had been obliged to quit was given to the Israelites, who were also denominated shepherds, but should not be confounded with the former or the antecedent inhabitants of Goshen. See EGYPT.

DISPERSION, POINT or, in dioptrics, the point from which refracted rays begin to diverge, where their refraction renders them divergent.

DISP'IRIT, v. a. } Dis and spirit. To  
DISP'IRITEDNESS, n. s. } discourage; deject;  
depress; intimidate; exhaust.

Certain it is, that the poor man appeared so dispirited, that he spoke but few words after he was upon the scaffold.

Clarke.

The providence of God strikes not in with them.



but dashes, and even *dispirits*, all their endeavours, and makes their designs heartless and ineffectual.

South.

Steady to my principles, and not *dispirited* with my afflictions, I have overcome all difficulties.

Dryden.

Amidst all the honours that are paid him, he feels nothing in himself but a poor, weak, *dispirited* mortal, yielding to the laws of corruption.

Rogers.

He has *dispirited* himself by a debauch, and drank away his good humour.

Collier.

I cannot bring myself to believe that the King was either the first projector or the principal actor in the sorry farce of neglecting a man whom they could not dishonour, of distressing a man whom they could not *dispirit*, which has been playing at Court for near twenty-six years.

Bp. Watson.

**DISPITEOUS**, *adj.* *Dis* and *piteous*. Un-  
caring.

The Knight of the Red Crosse, when him he spide,  
Spurring shote with rage *dispiteous*,  
Gan fairely couch his speare.

Spenser. *Faerie Queene*.

**DISPLACE**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *place*. To put  
out of place, state, office, or trust.

You have *displaced* the mirth, broke the good  
meeting,

With most admired disorder.

Shakespeare.

One then may be *displaced*, and one may reign;  
And want of merit render birthright vain.

Dryden.

A religion, established by God himself, should not  
be *displaced* by any thing, under a demonstration of  
that divine power that first introduced it.

South.

Whose arch or pillar meets me in the face,  
Titus or Trajan's? No—'tis that of Time:  
Triumph, arch, pillar, all he doth *displace*  
Scorning; and apostolic statues climb  
To crush the imperial urn, whose ashes slept sublime.

Byron.

**DISPLACE**, *n. s.* Lat. *displacencia*  
Incivility; any thing displeasing.

The *displacements* that he receives, by the conse-  
quences of his excess, far outweigh all that is grate-  
ful in it.

Decay of Piety.

**DISPLANT**, *v. a.* } *Dis* and *plant*. To  
**DISPLANTATION**, *n. s.* } remove a plant; hence  
to drive a people from their place of residence.

All those countries, which, lying near unto any  
mountains, or Irish desarts, had been planted with  
English, were shortly *displanted* and lost.

Spenser.

I may justly account new plantations to be the  
children of former kingdoms: I like a plantation in  
a pure soil; that is, where people are not *displanted*.

Bacon.

The Edenites were garrisoned to resist the Assy-  
rians, whose *displantation* Senacherib vaunted of.

Raleigh.

**DISPLAY**, *v. a. & n. s.* Fr. *déployer*, from  
Lat. *dis* (privative) and *plico*, to fold. To un-  
fold; to exhibit, spread open to view.

His glistening armor made  
A little gloomy light, much like a shade,  
By which he saw the ugly monster plaine,  
Halfe like a serpent horribly *displaide*.

Spenser. *Faerie Queene*.

You speak not like yourself, who ever yet  
Have stood to charity, and *displayed* the effects  
Of disposition gentle.

Shakespeare.

Our enobled understandings take the wings of the  
morning to visit the world above us, and have a glo-

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rious *display* of the highest form of created excellen-  
cies.

Glanville.

Thou heaven's alternate beauty can'st *display*,  
The blush of morning, and the milky way.

Dryden.

The works of nature, and the words of revelation,  
*display* truth to mankind in characters so visible, that  
those who are not quite blind, may read.

Locke.

It is a noble and great thing to cover the blemishes  
and to excuse the failings of a friend; to draw a  
curtain before his stains, and to *display* his perfec-  
tions.

South.

He carves, *displays*, and cuts up to a wonder.

Spectator.

So the gay lady, with expensive care,  
Borrows the pride of land, of sea and air;  
Furs, pearls, and plumes, the glittering thing *displays*,  
Dazzles our eyes, and easy hearts betrays.

Gay.

The storm the dark Lycæan groves *displayed*,  
And first to light exposed the sacred shade.

Pope's *Statius*.

**DISPLEASANCE**, *n. s.* } *Dis* and *please*.  
**DISPLEAS**, *v. a. & n. s.* } To offend; make  
**DISPLEASING**, *n. s.* } angry or sad:  
**DISPLEASINGNESS**, *n. s.* } as a neuter verb,  
**DISPLEASURE**, *v. a. & n. s.* } to disgust; make  
averse. Displeasingness is the quality of giving  
offence; displeasure the offence given.

God was *displeased* with this thing.

1 Chron. xxi. 7.

Cordell said, she loved him as beloved:  
Whose simple answer, wanting colours fair  
To paint it forth, him to *displeasance* moved.

*Faerie Queene*.

True repentance may be wrought in the hearts of  
such as fear God, and yet incur his *displeasure*, the  
deserved effect whereof is eternal death.

Hooker.

He should beware that he did not provoke Soly-  
man's heavy *displeasure* against him.

Knolles.

Of our *displeasures*, to ourselves unjust,  
Destroy our friends, and after weep their dust.

Shakespeare.

When the way of pleasuring or *displeasuring* lieth  
by the favourite, it is impossible any other should be  
over great.

Bacon.

Undoubtedly he will relent, and turn  
From his *displeasure*.

Milton.

What to one is a most grateful odour, to another is  
noxious and *displeasing*; and it were a misery to some  
to lie stretched on a bed of roses.

Glan. *Scepais*.

It is a mistake to think that men cannot change  
their *displeasingness* or indifferency, that is in actions,  
into pleasure and desire, if they will do but what is in  
their power.

Locke.

On me alone thy just *displeasure* lay;  
But take thy judgments from this mourning land.

Dryden.

Nothing is in itself so pernicious to communities of  
earned men, as the *displeasure* of their prince.

Addison's *Freeholder*.

**DISPLODE**, *v. a.* } Lat. *displodo*. To *dis*-  
**DISPLOSION**, *n. s.* } perse with a loud noise;  
to vent with violence: a sudden bursting forth.

Stood ranked of seraphim another row,  
In posture to *displode* their second tire  
Of thunde

Milton.

**DISPORT**, *v. n. & n. s.* *Dis* and *sport*. To  
play; sport: pastime; diversion; amusement.

She list not hear, but her *disports* pursued;  
And ever bade him stay, till time the tide renewed.

Spenser.

X



He often, but attended with weak guard,  
Comes hunting this way to *disport* himself.

*Shakespeare.*

His *disports* were ingenious and manlike, whereby  
he always learned somewhat.

*Hayward on Edward VI.*

Fresh gales and gentle airs  
Whispered it to the woods, and from their wings  
Flung rose, flung odours, from the spicy shrub  
*Disporting!*

*Milton.*

Loose to the winds their airy garments flew;  
The glittering textures of the filmy dew  
Dipt in the richest tincture of the skies,  
Where light *disports* in ever mingling dyes.

*Pope.*

DISPOSE, *v. a., v. n., & n. s.* } Fr. *disposer*;  
DISPOSER, *n. s.* } Ital. *disporre*;  
DISPOSITION, } Span. and Port,  
DISPOSITIVE, *adj.* } *disponer*; Lat.  
DISPOSITIVELY, *adv.* } *disponere*, from  
DISPOSURE, *n. s.* } *dis* and *pono*,

*posui*, to place, à Gr. *pono*, to labour. To employ; place; order; give an impulse; taking to: to make fit; taking for; to transfer, put away, conduct: as a neuter verb, to make terms or a bargain: as a substantive, it signifies power; right or management; taking at or to; distributive: dispositive is distributive. The other substantives follow the verb, dispose, in their meaning.

The tabernacle of witnessyng was with our fadris  
in desert as god *disposide* to hem and spak to moises,  
that he schulde make it aftir the fourme that he saigh.

*Wiclif. Dedis. vii.*

The lot is cast into the lap; but the whole disposing  
thereof is of the Lord.

*Proverbs.*

These when the knights beheld, they gan *dispose*  
Themselves to court, and each a damsel chose.

*Spenser.*

But if thee list unto the court to throng,  
And there to haunt after the hoped prey,  
Then must thou thee *dispose* another way.

*Hubbard's Tale.*

Touching musical harmony, whether by instrument  
or voice, it being of high and low, in due proportion-  
able *disposition*, such notwithstanding is the force  
thereof, and so very pleasing effects it hath, in that  
very part of man which is most divine, that some have  
been thereby induced to think, that the soul itself by  
nature is, or hath in it, harmony.

*Hooker.*

As she is mine, I may *dispose* of her:

Which shall be either to this gentleman,

Or to her death.

*Shakespeare.*

When she saw you did suspect  
She had *disposed* with Cæsar, and that your rage  
Would not be purged, she sent word she was dead.

*Id.*

I have suffered more for their sakes, more than the  
villanous inconstancy of man's *disposition* is able to  
bear.

*Id.*

He carries on the stream of his *dispose*

Without observance or respect of any,

In wit peculiar. *Id. Troilus and Cressida.*

I crave fit *disposition* for my wife,

Due reference of place and exhibition,

As befits with her breeding. *Id. Othello.*

Suspicious *dispose* kings to tyranny, husbands to  
jealousy, and wise men to irresolution and melancholy.

*Bacon.*

They must receive instructions how to *dispose* of  
themselves when they come, which must be in the  
nature of laws unto them.

*Id. to Villiers.*

They remained in a kind of warlike *disposure*, or  
perhaps little better.

*Watson.*

Whilst they murmur against the present *disposures* of  
things, they do tacitly desire in them a *differency*  
from the primitive rule, and the idea of that *mind*  
that formed all things best.

*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

That axiom in philosophy, that the generation of  
one thing is the corruption of another, although it be  
substantially true, concerning the form and matter, is  
also *dispositively* verified in the efficient or producer.

*Id.*

How sweetly doth God *dispose* of all second causes  
that, while they do their own will, they do his!

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

Tax not divine *disposal*; wisest men

Have erred, and by bad women been deluded.

*Milton.*

All is best, though oft we doubt

What the' unsearchable *dispose*

Of highest wisdom brings about,

And ever best found in the close.

*Milton. Agamemnon.*

He knew the seat of Paradise;

And, as he was *disposed*, could prove it

Below the moon, or else above it.

*Hallifax.*

The memory of what they had suffered, by being  
without it, easily *disposed* them to do this.

*Clarendon.*

I think myself obliged, whatever my private apprehensions  
may be of the success, to do my duty, and  
leave events to their *disposer*.

*Boyle.*

Would I had been *disposer* of thy stars,  
Thou shouldst have had thy wish, and died in war.

*Dryden.*

Of all your goodness leaves to our *disposure*,

Our liberty's the only gift we chuse.

*Id. Indian Emper.*

Under this head of invention is placed the *disposition*  
of the work, to put all things in a beautiful order and  
harmony, that the whole may be of a piece.

*Id. Dufrenoy, Preface.*

In his *disposure* is the orb of earth,

The throne of kings, and all of human birth.

*Sandys.*

This may *dispose* me, perhaps, for the reception of  
truth; but helps me not to it.

*Locke.*

We shall get more true and real knowledge by one  
rule, than by taking up principles, and thereby putting  
our minds into the *disposals* of others.

*Id.*

*Disposition* is when the power and ability of doing  
any thing is forward, and ready upon every occasion  
to break into action.

*Id.*

All the reason of mankind cannot suggest any  
solid ground of satisfaction, but in making that God  
our friend, who is the absolute *disposer* of all things.

*South.*

Although the frequency of prayer and fasting may  
be of no efficacy to *dispose* God to be more gracious,  
yet it is of great use to *dispose* us to be more objects of  
his grace.

*Southbridge.*

They require more water than can be found, and  
more than can be *disposed* of, if it was found.

*Barnes.*

Of what you gathered, as most your own, you  
have *disposed* much in works of public piety.

*Spaul.*

Thus, whilst she did her various power *dispute*,

The world was free from tyrants, wars, and woes.

*Prin.*

I have *disposed* of her to a man of business, who  
will let her see, that to be well dressed, is good



humour, and cheerful in her family, are the arts and sciences of female life. *Tatler.*

If mere moralists find themselves *disposed* to pride, lust, intemperance, or avarice, they do not think their morality concerned to check them. *Swift.*

I take myself to be as well informed as most men in the *dispositions* of each people towards the other. *Id.*

Refrangibility of the rays of light is their *disposition* to be refracted, or turned out of their way, in passing out of one transparent body or medium into another. *Newton.*

Are not the blessings both of this world and the next in his *disposal*? *Atterbury.*

The love we bear to our friends is generally caused by our finding the same *disposition* in them which we feel in ourselves. *Pope.*

Bleeding is to be used or omitted according to the symptoms which affect the brain; it relieves in any inflammatory *disposition* of the coat of the nerve. *Arbuthnot on Diet.*

There is a sort of masonry in poetry, wherein the pause represents the joints of a building, which ought in every line and course to have their *disposition* varied. *Shenstone.*

Under his fatherly rebukes then let us be ever humble and submissive. Such now is the true filial *disposition*. *Mason.*

DISPOSSESS, *v. a.* *Dis* and possess. To put out of possession; to deprive; to disseize.

The children went to Gilead, and took it, and *dispossessed* the Amorite which was in it. *Numbers xxxii. 39.*

The blow from saddle forced him to fly;  
Else might it needs down to his manly breast  
Have cleft his head in twain, and life thence *dispossest*.  
*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

I will chuse  
Mine heir from forth the beggars of the world,  
And *dispossess* her all. *Shakespeare. Timon.*

Let us sit upon the ground, and tell  
How some have been deposed, some slain in war,  
Some haunted by the ghosts they *dispossest*.  
*Id. Richard II.*

In thee I hope; thy succours I invoke,  
To win the crown whence I am *dispossest*;  
For like renown awaiteth on the stroke,  
To cast the haughty down, or raise the oppressed.  
*Fairfax.*

They arrogate dominion undeserved  
Over their brethren, and quite *dispossess*  
Concord and law of nature from the earth.  
*Milton.*

This inaccessible high strength, the seat  
Of Deity supreme, as *dispossest*,  
He trusted to have seized. *Id.*

No power shall *dispossess*  
My thoughts of that expected happiness.  
*Denham.*

O fairest of all creatures, last and best  
Of what heaven made, how art thou *dispossest*  
Of all thy native glories!  
*Dryden. State of Innocence.*

Nothing can create more trouble to a man than to endeavour to *dispossess* him of this conceit. *Tillotson.*

It will be found a work of no small difficulty to *dispossess* and throw out a vice from that heart, where long possession begins to plead prescription. *South.*

DISPRAISE, *v. a. & n. s.* *Dis* and praise.  
DISPRAIS'ER, *n. s.* To blame; cen-  
DISPRAIS'IBLE, *adj.* sure; dishonor:  
DISPRAIS'INGLY, *adv.* one who blames  
another: dispraisable is, unworthy of commenda-  
tion.

In praising Antony, I've *dispraised* Caesar.  
*Shakespeare*

If I can do it  
By aught that I can speak in his *dispraise*,  
She shall not long continue love to him. *Id.*  
Michael Cassio!

That came a wooing with you: many a time,  
When I have spoke of you *dispraisingly*,  
Hath ta'en your part. *Id. Othello.*

Nothing is here for tears, nothing to wail  
Or knock the breasts; no weakness; no contempt,  
*Dispraise*, or blame. *Milton's Agonistes.*

I need not raise  
Trophies to thee from other men's *dispraise*.  
*Denham.*

Looks fright not men: the general has seen Moors  
With as bad faces; no *dispraise* to Bertran's.  
*Dryden.*

The critics, while they like my wares, may *dis-*  
*praise* my writing. *Spectator.*

My faults will not be hid, and can be no *dispraise*  
to me that they will not; the clearness of one's mind  
is never better proved than in discovering its own  
faults. *Pope.*

DISPREAD, *v. a.* } *Dis* and spread. To  
DISPREAD'ER, } spread different ways.  
in this word, and a few others, says Johnson  
truly, *dis* has the same force as in Latin com-  
position, and means different ways.

As morning sun her beams *dispreaden* clear,  
And in her face fair truth and mercy doth appear  
*Spenser.*

Over him art, striving to compare  
With nature, did an arbour green *dispread*,  
Framed of wanton ivy, flowing fair,  
Through which the fragrant eglantine did spread  
His pricking arms, entrail'd with roses red. *Id.*

Above, below, around, with art *dispread*,  
The sure enclosure folds the genial bed.  
*Pope's Odyssey.*

DISPROFIT, *n. s.* *Dis* and profit. Loss;  
damage; detriment.

DISPROOF, *n. s.* *Dis* and proof. Confu-  
tation; conviction of error or falsehood.

His remark contains the grounds of his doctrine,  
and offers at somewhat towards the *disproof* of mine,  
*Atterbury.*

I need not offer any thing farther in support of  
one, or in *disproof* of the other. *Rogers.*

DISPROPERTY, *v. a.* *Dis* and property.  
To dispossess of any property.

DISPROPORTION, *v. a. & n. s.* } *Dis* and  
DISPROPORTIONABLE, *adj.* } propor-  
DISPROPORTIONABLENESS, *n. s.* } tion. To  
DISPROPORTIONABLY, *adv.* } apportion.  
DISPROPORTIONAL, *adj.* } or join un-  
DISPROPORTIONALLY, *adv.* } fitly, or  
DISPROPORTIONATE, *adj.* } without  
DISPROPORTIONATELY, *adv.* } symmetry;  
DISPROPORTIONATENESS, *n. s.* } disproportion-  
tionable is unsuitable in the parts, or in compa-  
rison: disproportional and disproportionate  
seem to express the same idea, and the adverbs  
follow these adjectives in their meaning.



There sits deformity to mock my body,  
To shape my legs of an unequal size,  
To *disproportion* me in every part. *Shakespeare.*

Had the obliquity been greater, the earth had not been able to endure the *disproportionable* differences of season. *Browne.*

Musick craveth your acquaintance: many are of such *disproportioned* spirits, that they avoid her company. *Pemham.*

We on earth, with undiscording voice,  
May rightly answer that melodious noise;  
As once we did, till *disproportioned* sin  
Jarred against nature's chime. *Milton.*

Perhaps, from greatness, state and pride,  
Thus surprised, she may fall:  
Sleep does *disproportion* hide,  
And, death resembling, equals all. *Waller.*

For their strength,  
The *disproportion* is so great, we cannot but  
Expect a fatal consequence. *Denham's Sophy.*

We have no reason to think much to sacrifice to God our dearest interests in this world, if we consider how *disproportionably* great the reward of our sufferings shall be in another. *Tillotson.*

We are apt to set too great a value on temporal blessings, and have too low and *disproportionable* esteem of spiritual. *Smalridge.*

None of our members are crooked or distorted, or *disproportionate* to the rest, either in excess or defect. *Ray.*

It is plain that men have agreed to a *disproportionate* and unequal possession of the earth. *Locke.*

Distance and men's fears have so enlarged the truth, and so *disproportioned* every thing, that we have made the little troop of discontents a gallant army, and already measured by the evening shadow. *Suckling.*

There is no wine of so strong a body as to bear such a *disproportionable* quantity of water as sixty. *Broome.*

That we are designed for a more exalted happiness than can be derived from the things of this life, we may infer from their vast *disproportion* to the desires and capacities of our soul. *Rogers.*

**DISPROVE**, *v. a.* } *Dis* and *prove*. To  
**DISPROVER**, *n. s.* } confute; to convict of error or falsehood. A disprove, as well as expressing this sense, seems corruptly used by Wotton for disapprover.

This exposition they plainly *disprove*, and shew by manifest reason, that of David the words of David could not possibly be meant. *Hooker.*

This Westmoreland maintains,  
And Warwick shall *disprove* it. *Shakespeare.*

The single example that our annals have yielded of two extremes, within so short time, by most of the same commendators and *disprovers*, would require no slight memorial. *Wotton.*

It is easier to affirm than to *disprove*. *Holler.*

The traitor's odious name  
I first return, and then *disprove* thy claim. *Dryden's Fables.*

That false supposition I advanced in order to *disprove* it, and by that means to prove the truth of my doctrine, *Atterbury.*

The cit—a common-council-man by place  
Ten thousand mighty nothings in his face,  
By situation as by nature great,  
With nice precision parcels out the state;

*Proves and disproves, affirms and then denies*  
Objects himself, and to himself replies. *Churchill.*

**DISPUNISHABLE**, *adj.* *Dis* and *punishable*. Without penal restraint.

No leases of any part of the said lands shall ever be made, other than leases for years not exceeding thirty-one in possession, and not in reversion or remainder, and not *dispunishable* of waste. *Swift's Last Will.*

**DISPURGE**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *purge*; *dis* being used expletively. To cleanse or purge.

Thou, then, that hast *dispurged* our scores,  
And dying wert the death of death,  
Be now, whilst on thy name we call,  
Our life, our strength, our joy, our all! *Wotton.*

**DISPURSE**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *purse*. To pay; to disburse. 'It is not certain that the following passage should not be written disburse,' says Johnson.

Many a pound of my own proper store,  
Because I would not tax the needy commons,  
Have I *dispursed* to the garrisons,  
And never asked for restitution. *Shakespeare. Henry VI.*

**DISPUTE**, *v. a., v. n. & n. s.* } *Dis* and *pute*.  
**DISPUTABLE**, *adj.* } *Dis* and *pute*.  
**DISPUTANT**, *n. s. & adj.* } *Dis* and *pute*.  
**DISPUTATION**, } *Dis* and *pute*.  
**DISPUTATIOUS**, *adj.* } *Dis* and *pute*.  
**DISPUTATIVE**, *adj.* } *Dis* and *pute*.  
**DISPUTELESS**, *adj.* } *Dis* and *pute*.  
**DISPUTER**, *n. s.* } *Dis* and *pute*.

from *dis* (diversely) and *pute*, to think. To contend for; discuss: as a neuter verb, to debate; argue; controvert: as a noun, contest; controversy; quarrel. Disputable means both liable to be contested, and fond of disputation. Disputatious and disputative have a similar sense to this last. Disputer and disputant are synonymous; and disputeless means incontrovertible.

Things were *disputed* before they came to be determined: men afterwards were not to *dispute* any longer, but to obey. *Hooker.*

*Dispute* it like a man.

— I shall do so;

But I must also feel it as a man. *Shakespeare. Macbeth.*

Now was I called to public *disputations* often, with no ill success. *Bp. Hall's Account of himself.*

Thou there wast found  
Among the gravest rabbies, *disputants*  
On points and questions fitting Moses' chair. *Milton.*

Well do I find, by the wise knitting together of your answer, that any *disputation* I can use is as much too weak as I unworthy. *Salway.*

So *dispute* the prize,  
As if you fought before Cydaria's eyes. *Dryden's Indian Emperor.*

The question being about a fact, it is begging it, to bring as a proof an hypothesis which is the very thing in *dispute*. *Locke.*

Notwithstanding these learned *disputants*, it was to the unscholastic statesman that the world owed their peace, defence and liberties. *Id.*

If they are not in themselves *disputable*, why are they so much *disputed*? *South.*



are vehement *disputers* against the heathen  
*Stillington.*

heist can pretend no obligation of conscience,  
should *dispute* against religion. *Tillotson.*

*oputants* put me in mind of the skuttle fish,  
in he is unable to extricate himself, blackens  
ater about him till he becomes invisible.

*Spectator.*

must be of a very *disputatious* temper, that  
o state controversies with any of the fair sex.

*Addison.*

any point is determined to be a law, it re-  
putable by every subject. *Swift.*

irth is now placed so conveniently, that plants  
d flourish in it, and animals live; this is  
fact, and beyond all *dispute*. *Bentley.*

st Paul and Barnabas *dispute* with vehemence  
very little point of conveniency? *Atterbury.*

conclusions have generally obtained, and have  
nknown even by *disputers* themselves, till  
ur they had stifled their convictions.

*Rogers.*

pe this practice might not so easily be per-  
s to raise a cavilling *disputative*, and sceptical  
a the minds of youth.

*Watts's Improvement of the Mind.*

is nothing displays a genius (I mean a quick-  
enius) more than a *dispute*; as two diamonds  
ring, contribute to each other's lustre. But,  
the odds is much against the man of taste,  
articular. *Shenstone.*

the capacity of sitting in parliament, after all  
cities for voting, for the army, for the navy,  
rofessions, for civil officers, are conceded, it  
de de lana caprina, in my poor opinion, at  
the part of those who oppose it. *Burke.*

reathes! But no, twas nothing, or the last.  
tter life *disputes* with death. *Byron.*

QUALIFY, *v. a.* } *Dis* and qualify.  
UALIFICATION, *n. s.* } To make unfit; to  
by a natural or legal impediment.

persons as shall confer benefices on unworthy  
sified persons, after a notice or correction  
all for that turn be deprived of the power of  
ig unto such benefices. *Ayliffe's Parergon.*

no employment for which piety *disqualifies*.

*Swift.*

common illness utterly *disqualifies* me for all  
tion; I mean my deafness. *Id.*

urch of England is the only body of Christians  
*qualifies* those, who are employed to preach  
ine, from sharing in the civil power, farther  
senators. *Id. on the Sacramental Test.*

recorded as a sufficient *disqualification* of a  
at, speaking of her husband, she said, God  
him. *Spectator.*

ower of a member of parliament is uncertain  
rect; and if power rather than splendor and  
re the object, I should think that any of the  
l clerks in office, (to say nothing of their supe-  
veral of whom are *disqualified* by law for seats  
ment, possess far more power than nine-tenths  
embers of the House of Commons. *Burke.*

QUANTITY, *v. a.* *Dis* and quantity.  
en; to diminish. Not used.

Be entreated

ty to *disquantity* your train;  
the remainders, that shall still depend,  
such men as may desort your age. *Shakespeare.*

DISQUIET, *v. a., n. s., & adj.* } From *dis*  
DISQUIETER, *n. s.* } and quiet.  
DISQUIETLY, *adv.* } To disturb;  
DISQUIETNESS, *n. s.* } make un-  
DISQUIETUDE. } easy; harass;

frēt. The substantives are synonymous.

Why art thou so vexed, O my soul? and why art  
thou so *disquieted* within me. *Psalms.*

All otherwise, said he, I riches rede,  
And deem them root of all *disquietness*.

*Faerie Queene.*

Arius won to himself both followers and great de-  
fenders; whereupon much *disquietness* ensued.

*Hooker.*

I pray you, husband, be not so *disquiet*;  
The meat was well if you were so content.

*Shakespeare.*

Treachery, and all ruinous disorders, follow us *dis-*  
quietly to our graves. *Id. King Lear.*

If we give way to our passions, we do but gratify  
ourselves for the present, in order to our future *dis-*  
quiet. *Tillotson.*

Thou happy creature, art secure  
From all the torments we endure;  
Despair, ambition, jealousy,  
Lost friends, nor love, *disquiets* thee.

*Roscommon.*

Contentment produces, in some measure, all those  
effects which the alchymist usually ascribes to what he  
calls the philosopher's stone; and if it does not bring  
riches, it does the same thing by banishing the desire  
of them. If it cannot remove the *disquietudes* arising  
from a man's mind, body, or fortune, it makes him  
easy under them. *Addison.*

I had rather live in Ireland than under the fre-  
quent *disquiets* of hearing you are out of order.

*Swift.*

He rested *disquietly* that night; but in the morning  
I found him calm. *Wiseman.*

DISQUISITION, *n. s.* Lat. *disquisition*  
Examination; disputative enquiry.

God hath reserved many things to his own resolu-  
tion, whose determinations we cannot hope from flesh;  
but with reverence must suspend unto that great  
day, whose justice shall either condemn our curiosity,  
or resolve our *disquisitions*. *Browne.*

The royal society had a good effect, as it turned  
many of the greatest geniuses of that age to the *dis-*  
quisitions of natural knowledge. *Addison's Spectator.*

'Tis indeed the proper place for this *disquisition*  
concerning the antediluvian earth.

*Woodward's Natural History.*

The nature of animal diet may be discovered by  
taste, and other sensible qualities, and some general  
rules, without particular *disquisition* upon every kind.

*Arbuthnot.*

I am apprehensive that I shall not be able to find  
leisure for making all the *disquisitions* and experiments  
which would be desirable on this subject. [Swimming.]  
I must, therefore, content myself with a few remarks.

*Franklin.*

DISRANK, *a. a.* *Dis* and rank. To de-  
grade from his rank

DISREGARD, *v. a. & n. s.* } *Dis* and re-  
DISREGARDFUL, *adj.* } gard. To treat  
DISREGARDFULLY, *adv.* } with slight  
notice or neglect; contempt.

Since we are to do good to the poor, to strangers, to  
enemies, those whom nature is too apt to make us



despise, *disregard*, or hate, then undoubtedly we are to do good to all. *Sprat.*

Those fasts which God hath *disregarded* hitherto, he may regard for the time to come. *Smalbridge.*

Studious of good, man *disregarded* fame,  
And useful knowledge was his eldest aim.

*Blackmore.*

**DISRE'LISH**, *v. a. & n. s.* *Dis* and *relish*. To make, or feel a distaste: bad taste; nauseousness.

Of they assayed,  
Hunger and thirst constraining; drugged as oft  
With hatefuller *disrelish*, writhed their jaws  
With soot and cinders filled. *Milton.*

Fruits of taste to please  
True appetite, and not *disrelish* thirst  
Of nectarous draughts between, from milky stream.

*Id.*

Bread or tobacco may be neglected, where they are shewn not to be useful to health, because of an indifferency or *disrelish* to them. *Locke.*

The same anxiety and solicitude that embittered the pursuit, *disrelishes* the fruition itself. *Rogers.*

The world is become too busy for me: every body is so concerned for the publick, that all private enjoyments are lost, or *disrelished*. *Pope.*

**DISREPUTE**, *n. s.* *Dis* and *reputation*.

**DISREPUTATION**, *n. s.* *Disgrace*; dishonor; want of reputation.

I will tell you what was the course in the happy days of queen Elizabeth, whom it is no *disreputation* to follow. *Bacon.*

The king fearing lest that the bad success might discourage his people, and bring *disreputation* to himself, forbade any report to be made. *Hayward.*

Gluttony is not of so great *disreputation* amongst men as drunkenness. *Taylor's Holy Living.*

How studiously did they cast a slur upon the king's person, and bring his governing principles under a *disrepute*. *South.*

**DISRESPECT**, *n. s.* *Dis* and *respect*.

**DISRESPECTFUL**, *adj.* *Incivility*; want of

**DISRESPECTFULLY**, *adv.* *reverence*; irreverence; rudeness.

Any *disrespect* to acts of state, or to the persons of statesmen, was in no time more penal. *Clarendon.*

Aristotle writ a methodical discourse concerning these arts, chusing a certain benefit before the hazard that might accrue from the vain *disrespects* of ignorant persons. *Wilkins.*

What is more usual to warriors than impatience of bearing the least affront or *disrespect*? *Pope.*

We cannot believe our posterity will think so *disrespectfully* of their great grandmothers, as that they made themselves monstrous to appear amiable. *Addison's Spectator.*

**DISRO'BE**, *v. a.* *Dis* and *robe*. To undress; to uncover; to strip.

The holy saints of their rich vestments  
He did *disrobe*, when all men careless slept,  
And spoiled the priests of their habiliments.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

Kill the villain straight,

*Disrobe* him of the matchless monument,  
Thy father's triumph o'er the savages.

*Shakespeare. King John.*

These two great peers were *disrobed* of their glory, the one by judgment, the other by violence. *Wotton.*

Who will be prevailed with to *disrobe* himself at once of all his old opinions, and pretences to know-

ledge and learning, and turn himself out stark naked in quest afresh of new notions? *Locke.*

When the trees are all bare, not a leaf to be seen,

And the meadows their beauty have lost;

When Nature's *disrobed* of her mantle of green,

And the streams are fast bound with the frost.

*Byrom.*

**DISRUPTION**, *n. s.* *Lat. disruptio*. The act of breaking asunder: the breach made.

This secures them from *disruption*, which they would be in danger of, upon a sudden stretch or contortion. *Ray.*

The agent which effected this *disruption*, and dislocation of the strata, was seated within the earth. *Woodward.*

If raging winds invade the atmosphere,  
Their force its curious texture cannot tear,  
Nor make *disruption* in the threads of air.

*Blackburn.*

**DISSATISFY**, *v. a.*

**DISSATISFACTION**, *n. s.*

**DISSATISFACTORY**, *adj.*

**DISSATISFACTORYNESS**, *n. s.*

*Dis* and *satisfy*. To displease; discontent; fail a please: dissatisfaction is the state of being dissatisfied: dissatisfaction, and dissatisfactoriness, express inability to give satisfaction.

He that changes his condition, out of impatience and dissatisfaction, when he has tried a new one, wishes for his old again. *L'Estrange.*

I still retain some of my notions, after your friendship's having appeared dissatisfied with them. *Locke.*

The ambitious man has little happiness, but is subject to much uneasiness and dissatisfaction. *Addison's Spectator.*

In vain we try to remedy the defects of our constitution, by varying the object: the same dissatisfaction pursues us through the circle of created goods. *Byron.*

The advantages of life will not hold out to the length of desire; and, since they are not big enough to satisfy, they should not be big enough to dissatisfy. *Coler.*

If we see a universal spirit of distrust and dissatisfaction, a rapid decay of trade, dissensions in all parts of the empire, we may pronounce, without hesitation, that the government of that country is weak, distracted, and corrupt. *Junius.*

**DISSECT**, *v. a.*

**DISSECTION**, *n. s.*

**DISSECTOR**, *n. s.*

*Fr. disséquer*; *Lat. dissecare*, from *dis* and *secare*. To divide an animal body into its parts: applied also figuratively.

Let no man say, the world itself being dead,  
'Tis labour lost to have discovered

The world's infirmities, since there is none

Alive to study this dissection. *Dennis.*

She cut her up; but, upon the dissection, found her just like other hens. *L'Estrange.*

No mask, no trick, no favour, no reserve;  
Dissect your mind, examine every nerve.

*Rowland.*

Critics to plays for the same end resort,

That surgeons wait on trials in a court:

For innocence condemned they've no respect,

Provided they've a body to dissect. *Congreve.*

Such strict enquiries into nature so true and so perfect a dissection of human kind, is the work of extraordinary diligence. *Grimaldi.*



Following life in creatures we dissect,  
We lose it in the moment we detect. Pope.

With strict propriety their care's confined  
To weigh out words, while passion halts behind :  
To syllable-dissectors they appeal,  
Allow their accent, cadence,—fools may feel.  
Churchill.

I shall enter upon the dissection of a coquet's heart,  
and communicate that curious piece of anatomy.

Addison.

**DISSEISE', v. a.** From Fr. *dessaisir*, i. e. action; *de saisir* an action concerning seizing. To dispossess; deprive of legal right. See the following articles on DISSEISIN and DISSEISOR.

He so diseized of his gripping gress,  
The knight his thrilant spear again assayed,  
In his brass-plated body to emboss.

Faerie Queene.

If a prince should give a man, besides his ancient patrimony which his family had been diseized of, an additional estate, never before in the possession of his ancestors, he could not be said to re-establish lineal succession. Locke.

**DISSEISIN**, in law, an unlawful dispossessioning a man of his land, tenement, or other immoveable and incorporeal right. It is a species of injury by ouster, or a privation of the freehold, consisting in a wrongful putting out of him that is seised of the freehold. It differs from abatement and intrusion, which denote a wrongful entry where the possession was vacant, by its being an attack upon him who is in actual possession, and turning him out of it. The former were an ouster from a freehold in law, this is an ouster from a freehold in deed. Disseisin may be effected either in corporeal inheritances, or incorporeal. Disseisin of things corporeal, as of houses, lands, &c., must be by entry and actual dispossession of the freehold (Co. Litt. § 181); as if a man enters either by force or fraud into the house of another, and turns, or at least keeps, him or his servants out of possession. Disseisin of incorporeal hereditaments cannot be an actual dispossession; for the subject itself is neither capable of actual bodily possession, nor dispossession; but it depends on their respective natures and various kinds; being, in general, nothing more than a disturbance of the owner in the means of coming at, or enjoying them. With regard to freehold rent in particular, our ancient law-books (Finch. l. 165, 166. Litt. § 237, &c.) mention five methods of working a disseisin thereof:—1. By enclosure; where the tenant so encloseth the house or land, that the lord cannot come to distress thereon, or demand it. 2. By forestaller, or lying in wait; when the tenant besetteth the way with force and arms, or by menaces of bodily hurt, affrights the lessor from coming. 3. By rescous; that is, either by violently retaking a distress taken, or by preventing the lord, with force and arms, from taking any at all. 4. By replevin; when the tenant replevies the distress at such time when his rent is really due. 5. By denial; which is, when the rent being lawfully demanded, is not paid. All, or any of these circumstances amount to a disseisin of rent; that is, they wrongfully put the owner out of the only possession, of which the subject matter is capa-

ble, namely, the receipt of it. But all these disseisins of hereditaments incorporeal, are only so at the election and choice of the party injured; if, for the sake of more easily trying the right he is pleased to suppose himself disseised. (Litt. § 588, 589.) Otherwise, as there can be no actual dispossession, he cannot be compulsively disseised of any incorporeal hereditament. Thus also, even in corporeal hereditaments, a man may frequently suppose himself to be disseised, when he is not so in fact, for the sake of entitling himself to the more easy and commodious remedy of an assise of novel disseisin, instead of being driven to the more tedious process of a writ of entry. (4 Burr. 110.)

The true injury of compulsive disseisin seems to be that of dispossessing the tenant, and substituting one's self to be the tenant of the land in his stead; in order to which, in the times of pure feudal tenure, the consent or connivance of the lord, who, upon every descent or alienation, personally gave, and who, therefore, alone could change the seisin or investiture, seems to have been considered as necessary. But when, in process of time, the feudal form of alienations was off, and the lord was no longer the instrument of giving actual seisin, it is probable that the lord's acceptance of rent or service, from him who had dispossessed another, might constitute a complete disseisin. Afterwards, no regard was had to the lord's concurrence, but the dispossessor himself was considered as the sole disseisor; and this wrong was then allowed to be remedied by entry only, without any form of law, or against the disseisor himself; but required a legal process against his heir or alienee. And when the remedy by assise was introduced, under Henry II., to redress such disseisins as had been committed within a few years next preceding, the facility of that remedy induced others, who were wrongfully kept out of the freehold, to feign, or allow themselves to be disseised, merely for the sake of the remedy. Blackst. Comm. book iii. ch. 10.

If a feme sole be seised of lands in fee, and is disseised, and then taketh husband; in this case the husband and wife, as in right of the wife, have right to enter, and yet the dying seised of the disseisor shall take away the entry of his wife after the death of the husband. (Co. Lit. 246.) If a person disseises me, and, during the disseisin, he or his servants cut down the timber growing upon the land, and afterwards I re-enter into the land, I shall have action of trespass against him; for the law, as to the disseisor and his servants, supposes the freehold to have been always in me: but if the disseisor be disseised by another, or if he makes a feoffment, gift in tail, lease for life or years, I shall not have an action against the second disseisor, or against those who come in by title: for all the mesne profits shall be recovered against the disseisor himself. (11 Rep. 52. Keilw. 1.)

By Magna Charta, 9 Henry III., c. 29, no man is to be disseised, or put out of his freehold, but by lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land; and by stat. 32 Henry VIII. c. 33, the dying seised of any disseisor of, or in any lands, &c., having no right therein, shall not



be a descent in law, to take away an entry of a person having lawful title of entry, except the disseisor hath had peaceable possession five years, without entry or claim by the person having lawful title.

According to some writers, disseisin is of three sorts, viz. simple disseisin, committed by day, without force and arms: and disseisin by force, and fresh disseisin. Assises are called writs of disseisin, which lie against disseisors in any case: whereof some are termed little writs of disseisin, as being vicontial, that is, suable before the sheriff in the county court, because determinable by him without assise.

DISSEISOR is he who disseiseth, or puts another out of his land: as the disseisee is he who is put out. If a disseisor, after he has expelled the right owner, gains peaceable possession of the lands five years without claim, and continues in possession, so as to die seised, and the land descends to his heirs, they will have a right to the possession till the owner recovers at law; and the owner shall lose his estate for ever, if he doth not prosecute his suit within the time limited by the statute of limitations.

And if a disseisor levy a fine of the land whereof he is disseised unto a stranger, the disseisor shall keep the land for ever; for the disseisor against his own fine cannot claim, and the conusee cannot enter, and the right which the disseisor had, being extinct by the fine, the disseisor shall take advantage of it. (2 Rep. 56.) But this is to be understood, where no use is declared of the fine by the disseisee; when it shall enure to the use of the disseisor, &c. (1 Lev. 128.) A disseisor in assize, where damages are recovered against him, shall recover as much as he hath paid in rents chargeable on the lands before the disseisin. (Jenk. Cent. 189.) But if the disseisor or his feoffee sows corn on the land, the disseisee may take it before or after severance. (Dyer 31. 173. 11 Rep. 46.) Where a man hath a house in fee, &c., and locks it, and then departs; if another person comes to his house, and takes the key of the door, and says that he claims the house to himself in fee, without any entry into the house, this is a disseisin of the house. (2 Danv. Abr. 624.) If the feoffor enters on the land of the feoffee, and makes a lease for years, &c., it is a disseisin; though the intent of the parties to the feoffment was, that the feoffee should make a lease to the feoffor for life. (2 Rep. 59.) If lessee for years is ousted by his lessor, this is said to be no disseisin. (Cro. Jac. 678.) A man who enters on another's land, claiming a lease for years, who hath not such lease, is a disseisor; though if a man enters into the house of another by his sufferance, without claiming any thing, it will not be a disseisin. (9 Henry VI., 21, 31. 2 Danv. 625.) If a person enters on lands by virtue of a grant or lease, that is, void in law, he is a disseisor. (2 Danv. 630.) As the king in judgment of law can do no wrong, he cannot be a disseisor. (1 Ed. V. 8.) A disseisor is to be fined and imprisoned; and the disseisee restored to the land, &c., by stat. 20, Henry III. c. 3. Where a disseisor is disseised, it is called disseisin upon disseisin.

DISSEMBLE, v. a. & v. n.

DISSEMBLER, n. s.

DISSEMBLING, n. s.

DISSEMBLINGLY, adv.

*dissemblare*, from *dis* privative, and *simulare* nifying to 'feign that not to be which is.' sheu.

Ye *dissembled* in your hearts when ye seats the Lord your God, saying, Pray for us.

Jeremiah 17

Your son Lucentio

Doth love my daughter, and she loveth

Or both *dissemble* deeply their affections.

Shak

I that am curtailed of this fair proportion

Cheated of feature by *dissembling* nature,

Deformed, unfinished.

Id. Rich

Such an one, whose virtue forbiddeth his base and a *dissembler*, shall evermore hang on wheel.

The French king, in the business of peace, greater *dissembler* of the two.

Bacon. Hen

She answered, that her soul was God's touching her faith, as she could not change, would not *dissemble* it.

Ha

Man is to man all kind of beasts; a fawn a roaring lion, a thieving fox, a robbing *dissembling* crocodile, a treacherous decoy, and cious culture.

Thy function too will varnish o'er our sin And sanctify *dissembling*.

Rouse's Ambitious Step

If the show of any thing be good for any am sure sincerity is better; for why does *dissemble*, or seem to be that which he is not cause he thinks it good to have such a qual pretends to?

In vain on the *dissembled* mother's tongue Had cunning art and sly persuasion hung And real care in vain, and native love, In the true parents panting breast had stro

Men will trust no farther than they judge for sincerity fit to be trusted: a discovered can achieve nothing great and considerable.

It is true indeed that we should not *dissemble* flatter in company; but a man may be very strictly consistent with truth and sincerity, silent silence where he cannot concur, and assent where he can.

They are the happiest, who *dissemble* be Their weariness; and they the most polite Who squander time and treasure with a sin Though at their own destruction.

DISSEMINATE, v. a.

DISSEMINATION, n. s.

DISSEMINATOR.

To diffuse, or scatter, as seed. The act ing or diffusing.

All uses are made of it many times in seditions, rebellions, in *disseminating* of here infusing of prejudices.

Though now at the greatest distance from ginning of error, yet we are almost lost in *dissemination*, whose ways are boundless, and so circumscription.

There is a nearly uniform and constant *dissemination* throughout the body of the earth

W



so disseminated through all the trading  
d, that they are become the instru-  
the most distant nations converse with  
d by which mankind are knit together  
respondence.

*Spectator.*  
f mind, and freedom of speech, the  
minated at first, and must still be main-  
*Atterbury.*

v. a. & n. s. } Fr. *dissenter*; It.  
n. s. } and Lat. *dissentire*;  
s, adj. } from *dis* (diversely)  
eous, adj. } and *sentio*, to per-  
n. s. } ceive or discern.  
n judgment; to differ; applied  
a difference of opinion with the  
arch of England. Dissension is  
in any degree: dissensious, quar-

den this wicked man stiryng *dissen-*  
s in alle the world, and auctour of  
e secte of Nazareus.

*Wiclif. Dedie. 24.*  
gion they have a *dissensious* head, or  
wealth a factious head.

*Ascham's Schoolmaster.*  
eral agreement in the secret opinion-  
ry man ought to embrace the religion  
ad to shun, as hurtful, whatever *dis-*  
but that most which doth farthest *dis-*  
*Hooker.*

You *dissensious* rogues,  
ng the poor itch of your opinion,  
elves scabs. *Shakespeare. Coriolanus.*  
Friends now, fast sworn,  
those bed, whose meal, whose exer-

r; who twine, as 'twere in love  
all within this hour,  
if a doit, break out  
city. *Id.*

oe any occasion to defraud the publick  
by any morose or perverse *dissentings*.  
*King Charles.*

will *dissenting* brethren relish?  
ll malignants say? *Hudibras.*  
Grown  
and multitude, factious they grow;  
ong the priests *dissension* springs. *Milton.*

usions, uproars are thy joy;  
ut offence, and practised to destroy.  
*Dryden.*

ms, where though the proofs in view  
nent, yet there are grounds to suspect  
roof as considerable to be produced on  
te; there suspense or dissent are vo-  
*Locke.*

mit of matter of fact, and agree with  
t; but differ only in assigning of rea-  
*Id.*

any opinions in which multitudes of  
us, who are as good and wise as our-  
*Addison.*

be the reason of this general *dissent*  
s of the resurrection, seeing that al-  
a did believe the immortality of the  
*Bentley's Sermons.*

s. Of the comprehensiveness of  
designating, in strict language, all  
n opinion from the Established  
of our readers can be altogether ig-  
Justice Blackstone considers a

cognate legal term, non-conformists, as embrac-  
ing all who absent themselves from the public  
worship of the Church, whether, 1. Through total  
irreligion, they attend the service of no other  
persuasion; or, 2. Through a mistaken zeal,  
'weakness of intellect,' or 'perverseness and  
acerbity of temper, which,' he adds, 'is often  
the case,' they unite in worship with other  
communities, 'herding with a party.' This latter  
class of dissenters is divisible again, according to  
the same learned authority, into 'the papists,'  
who divide from the national church, 'upon ma-  
terial though erroneous reasons,' and the Pro-  
testant Dissenters, many of whom divide from it  
'upon matters of indifference; or, in other words,  
upon no reason at all.'

These terms in fact, then, though constantly  
used to describe large bodies of religionists, are  
neither of them, religious terms: they simply  
express the political relation of a heterogeneous  
multitude of their fellow-subjects to the estab-  
lished church; a multitude including the wide  
extremes of the devout catholic and the avowed  
unbeliever; the Painite and the Southcottite;  
the ultra-Calvinist and the rational Unitarian.  
They are terms too, which, unlike the vast ma-  
jority of those in our Lexicon, we trust, will be  
found to vary in their meaning according to that  
particular part or subdivision of our common,  
happy country in which these observations may  
meet the eye of our readers. In England, for  
instance, his majesty's good and acute subjects  
of the kirk of Scotland, in common with the  
other Presbyterians, are dissenters; in Scotland,  
the Episcopalian of the ever-loyal church of  
England is a dissenter; in Canada, the Protes-  
tant of whatever denomination; all of them in  
their respective situations, in the places 'afore-  
said,' and for reasons by them deemed 'mate-  
rial' or 'no reason at all,' dividing from the estab-  
lished church.

We can only, therefore, in this place affix to  
so vague a term its more common and popular  
meaning. Connected necessarily with no religion,  
as we, after Mr. Justice Blackstone, contend, it  
has still too much of the savour of piety about  
it to be affiliated by the unbeliever; on the other  
hand it has too little of antiquity and dignity to  
be acknowledged by the consistent Catholic; to  
the Protestant dissenters, therefore, whatever the  
sages of the law may determine, and whatever  
may be its unhappy or discreditable associations,  
it seems, at last to belong: they are THE DIS-  
SENTERS of common parlance; and we propose,  
therefore, to offer to our readers in this paper,  
1st, Some account of their existing legal situa-  
tion and rights; 2dly. Of the principles com-  
mon to this body as separatists from the establish-  
ment; and, 3dly. Of their political history.

1. *Of the legal situation of Dissenters.*—The  
basis of the existing law of England, on the sub-  
ject of separatists, is still to be found in the sta-  
tutes of 1 Eliz. c. 2. §. 14.; 23 Eliz. c. 1.; and  
29 Eliz. c. 6. The first of these enacts, that every  
person, not having reasonable excuse, shall resort  
to his parish church or chapel, or upon reason-  
able let thereof to some usual place where com-  
mon prayer shall be used, on every Sunday and  
holiday; on pain of punishment by the censures



of the church, or of forfeiting, for every offence, 12*d*. The second, that every person above the age of sixteen, who shall not repair to some church or chapel, or usual place of common prayer, shall forfeit for every month £20; and if he shall forbear for twelve months, he shall be bound to the good behaviour till he conform. The third, that every offender in not repairing to church, having been once convicted, shall, without any other indictment or conviction, pay half yearly into the exchequer £20 for every month afterwards till he conform; which if he shall omit to do, the king may seize all his goods, and two parts of his lands. And by 3 Jac. I. c. 4, §. 11, the king may refuse the £20 a month, and take two parts of the land at his option.

By the 3 Jac. I. c. 5, no recusant, not repairing to church, being convicted thereof, shall enjoy any public office; or shall practise law or physic, or be executor, administrator, or guardian. And by the 35 El. c. 1, if any person refusing to repair to church, shall be present at any assembly, meeting, or conventicle, under pretence of any exercise of religion, he shall be imprisoned till he conform; and if he shall not conform in three months, he shall abjure the realm, which if he shall refuse to do, or after abjuration shall not go, or shall return without license, he shall be guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy. And whether he shall abjure or not, he shall forfeit his goods and his lands during life.

These severe injunctions and penalties are suspended, but not repealed, by the celebrated Toleration Act, 1 W. & M. st. 1. c. 18, 'for exempting their majesty's protestant subjects, dissenting from the church of England, from the penalties of certain laws;' which is confirmed by stat. 10 An. c. 2, and declares that neither the laws above-mentioned, nor any other penal laws made against popish recusants (except the corporation and test acts), shall extend to any dissenters, other than papists, and such as deny the Trinity: provided, 1. That they take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy (or make a similar affirmation, being Quakers—see stat. 8 Geo. I. c. 6); and subscribe the declaration against popery. 2. That they repair to some congregation certified to, and registered in, the court of the bishop or archdeacon, or at the county sessions. 3. That the doors of such meeting-house shall be unlocked, unbarred, and unbolted; in default of which the persons meeting there are still liable to all the penalties of the former acts.

The offence of non-conformity is therefore not to be considered as legally abrogated, although it 'ceases to exist,' as Blackstone says, 'with regard to protestant dissenters, during their compliance with the condition imposed by the act of toleration: and, under these conditions, all persons, who will approve themselves no papists or opposers of the Trinity, are left at full liberty to act as their consciences shall direct them in the matter of religious worship. And if any person shall wilfully, maliciously, or contemptuously disturb any congregation, assembled in any church or permitted meeting-house, or shall misuse any preacher or teacher there, he shall (by virtue of the same statute), be bound over to the sessions of the peace, and forfeit £20. But by statute 5 Geo. I. c. 4, no mayor or principal

magistrate must appear at any dissenting meeting with the ensigns of his office, on pain of disability to hold that or any other office; the legislature judging it a matter of propriety, that a public worship set up in opposition to the national when allowed to be exercised in peace, should be exercised also with decency, gratitude, and humility. Neither doth the act of toleration intend to enervate those clauses of the statute 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 4, and 17 Car. II. c. 2 which prohibit (upon pain of fine and imprisonment), all persons from teaching school, unless they be licensed by the ordinary, and subscribe a declaration of conformity to the liturgy of the church, and reverently frequent divine services established by the laws of the kingdom.'

Since the time of Blackstone, by stat. 35 Geo. III. c. 160, so much of 1 W. & M. c. 18, excepts persons denying the Trinity, from the benefit of that act, and so much of stat. 9 and 10 W. III. c. 32, as imposes penalties on persons denying the Trinity, are repealed; 57 Geo. III. c. 70, also repeals the like provisions of the 15th act 6 Geo. I. c. 5.

So far, therefore, has our statute-book been cleared of all that directly or practically imposes penal restrictions on Protestant dissenters in the exercise of their religion. But important barriers are still placed around them in regard to what they consider as their civil rights. The statute 13 Car. 2, st. 2, c. 1, usually called the Corporation Act, disqualifies for offices relating to the government of any city or corporation, such as have not, within a twelvemonth before their election, received the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, according to the rites of the church of England (enjoining also the oaths of allegiance and supremacy); and the 25 Car. II. c. 2, commonly called the Test Act, directs all officers civil and military, to take the oath, and make the declaration against transubstantiation six months after their admission, and also within the same time to receive the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, according to the usage of the church of England. If, without taking the sacramental qualification within the time prescribed by the act, a person continues to occupy a civil office, or to hold a military commission, and is lawfully convicted, then he is disabled from thenceforth, for ever, from bringing any action in course of law, from prosecuting any suit in any court of equity, from being guardian of any child, or executor or administrator of any person, as well as from receiving any legacy. Such is the legal situation of the dissenting laity.

Dissenting teachers in order to be exempted from the penalties of the statutes 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 1; 15 Car. II. c. 6, must subscribe the articles of religion mentioned in stat. 13 Elia. c. 12 (which only concern the confession of the true Christian faith, and the doctrine of the sacraments); with an express exception of those relating to the government and powers of the church, and to infant baptism; or, if they scruple subscribing the same, are to make and subscribe the declaration prescribed by 19 Geo. III. c. 44, professing themselves to be Christians and Protestants, and that they believe the Scripture to contain the revealed will of God, and to be the rule of doctrine and practice.



offices at the sessions where any minister shall live, are to administer the said last-mentioned oath to such minister, upon his oath to make and subscribe the said register; for the which he shall pay 6d. to the officer, and no more; and 6d. for a certificate signed by such officer.

Stat. c. 2, § 9. Any preacher or congregation of dissenting protestants, according to the act of 1701, shall be allowed to officiate in any place where he was so qualified; provided that the meeting hath been duly certified: and such teacher or preacher shall, produce a certificate of his qualification, under the hand of the justice of the peace where he was qualified; before any justice of such county, he shall so officiate, make and subscribe the declaration, and take such oaths as are required.

Stat. c. 18, § 11., and 19 Geo. III. c. 1. Every such teacher and minister, preacher, or teacher, having taken the oaths, and the declaration, shall from thenceforth be appointed to bear the office of overseer of the poor, or any other office, or other office, in any shire, city, town, parish, or hamlet, and by 42 Geo. III. c. 10, from serving in person or by substitute, if he is a teacher of any separate congregation, he shall have been licensed twelve months before the next general meeting appointed on the 1st of October, &c.: and by 43 Geo. III. c. 10, from serving under the army or navy. If he be a licensed teacher of any separate congregation in holy orders, or in any other office, and not carrying on any other occupation, except that of a school-

teacher, Geo. III. c. 155, § 2, no congregation of dissenters for religious worship, consisting of more than twenty persons shall be present at any place of meeting (except under former acts) until duly licensed by the bishop, &c., or to the sessions, where shall be made thereof once a year, by the bishop, &c., and registered in the parish register, and no person allowing any such congregation to meet in any place occupied by him, or in any place without consent, shall be liable to a penalty of £30.

Every person who shall teach or officiate in, or shall resort to any assembly for religious worship of any place of meeting shall be liable according to the provisions of this act or acts relating to the certifying of places of religious worship, exempt from all such pains and

penalties under any act or acts relating to religious worship, as any person who shall have taken the oaths and made the declaration prescribed by or mentioned in the 1 W. & M. or any act amending the said act, is by law exempt. And by § 6, it is provided, that no person shall be required by any justice to go to any greater distance than five miles from his own home, or from the place where he shall be residing at the time of such requisition, for the purpose of taking such oaths as aforesaid.

§ 7. Any of his majesty's protestant subjects may appear before any one justice, and produce to such justice a printed or written copy of the said oaths and declaration, and require such justice to administer such oaths, and to tender such declaration to be made, taken, and subscribed by such person; and thereupon such justice shall administer such oaths, and tender such declaration to the person requiring to take and make and subscribe the same; and such person shall take and make and subscribe such oaths and declaration in the presence of such justice accordingly; and such justice shall attest the same to be sworn before him, and shall transmit or deliver the same to the clerk of the peace for the county, &c., for which he shall act as such justice, before or at the next general or quarter sessions of the peace for such county, &c. And for the making and signing of which certificate, where the said oaths and declaration are taken and made on the requisition of the party taking and making the same, such justice shall be entitled to demand and have a fee of 2s. 6d. and no more: and such certificate shall be conclusive evidence that the party named therein has made and taken the oaths and subscribed the declaration in manner required by this act.

Dissenters chosen to any parochial, or ward offices, and scrupling to take the oaths, may execute the office by deputy, who shall comply with the law in this behalf. Stat. 1 W. & M. st. 1, c. 18.—But it appears that they are not subject to fine on refusing to serve corporation offices. For where a freeman of London was elected one of the sheriffs, but refused to take the office on account of his being a dissenter, and, as such, not having received the sacrament according to the rites of the Church of England, within a year before his election, an action was brought in the Sheriff's Court, for the penalty incurred by such refusal, and a judgment recovered; which judgment was affirmed in a writ of error brought in the court of Hustings. But the defendant having obtained a commission of errors, the judges' delegates reversed both judgments; and, on a writ of error in parliament, this judgment of reversal was affirmed; the judges being (except one) of opinion that the defendant was at liberty to object to the validity of his election, on the ground of his own non-conformity.

And thus the reader has before him a summary view of the existing legal situation and rights of the Protestant Dissenting body.

2. *Of the principles common to this body as separatists from the establishment*, we know of no general authentic summary: but dissenters at large are very familiar with those arguments for



the liberty of conscience, the right of private judgment, and final obedience to God alone in religion, which they consider as involving the right and duty of the course they adopt. They are also not without respectable publications on the subject, by learned individuals of their body. It will be sufficient to mention those of Doddridge, Watts, Dr. John Taylor, Neal, Delaune, Palmer, and Towgood, all of whom have produced able defences of the dissenting system.

The celebrated Richard Baxter declared, what is true, perhaps, of a majority of the existing dissenters, that the Non-conformists of his day agreed with the doctrines of the thirty-nine articles, and differed only from the church in the form of government. He says, that the Independents, as well as Presbyterians, offered to subscribe to the articles, except as to prelacy and ceremony. 'We are one,' he adds, 'with the church of England in all the necessary points of faith and Christian practice.'

Yet these men departed from the church of England, at the expense of all their earthly comforts; and some of them braving persecution, 'even to death,' laid the foundation of the existing dissent, by denying the authority of any body of fallible men to 'decree rites and ceremonies' in the church. They contended, as do the modern dissenters, that what was left indifferent by the only lawgiver of his church, should not be made important and peremptorily enjoined upon his followers. They revolted, particularly, at subscribing to the principle of 'a power in the church to decree rites and ceremonies, and to have authority in matters of faith,' as so indefinite and extensive, that under the shadow of it, all the enormous usurpations and superstitions of the church of Rome might be and have been included. If the church of England, it is moreover said, claims and exercises this power, and obliges all its ministers to subscribe to articles of faith, which it hath authoritatively decreed, and to use in religious worship ceremonies and rites, which it hath authoritatively enjoined; hath not the church of France, or the church of Spain, the same authority and power? It cannot be an exclusive privilege of any one church. And if it be allowed that the church of Rome has this prerogative, such a claim would overthrow the Reformation and the foundations of the church of England itself. They say, with a modern divine of the church of England, 'Whenever useless rites and ceremonies are imposed, corruptions are passed into a law, and the terms of communion are such as are not authorised by the law of Christ, then it becomes a duty to dissent, and they are the separatists who compel others to divide, not they who deplore the necessity of so doing.'

But dissenters have further enquired, who are the persons that are, in point of fact, invested with this authority and power? In other words, who are the church? This power to order the manner of God's worship, and to settle articles of faith, is not lodged in the bishops and clergy, who are usually denominated our spiritual pastors and guides, but entirely in the king and parliament of these realms, under whose direction and control the clergy are to act. Accord-

ingly, the dissenters allege, that the church of England is a parliamentary church; not properly an ally, but a mere creature of the existing government, depending entirely upon the will and authority of parliament for its essence and frame. The qualifications of its ministers, the power to officiate, the manner in which they are to administer the sacraments, are all limited and prescribed by authority of parliament: and the authority, which at first made, can also alter and new make it; can abolish, or add to, its rules or rites, according to its pleasure, even though the whole body of bishops and clergy ever so much dislike or ever so earnestly protest against it. Therefore, while some dissenters justify their dissent from the establishment, because, for example, they think that some ceremonies imposed, or the various orders of ministers, or the received subjects of baptism, or the mode of administering baptism and the Lord's supper, or the state of her discipline, are incompatible with the scriptural pattern; others go farther, and attempt to prove, that every religious establishment is neither more nor less than a direct violation of some of the strongest injunctions of the great Head of the church.

These quote the words of Jesus Christ, 'My kingdom is not of this world,' as virtually forbidding all such attempted alliances between church and state, as every ecclesiastical establishment involves. They say that such a system debases Christianity into an engine of state, secularises its ministers and institutions, argues a concealed distrust of the apostolic weapons of faith, prayer, and 'the words of truth and sobriety,' and is, in its influence on the conduct of the dominant party towards those who dissent from them, essentially persecuting.

In confirmation of this view of the subject, they adduce the existing state of the laws with regard to dissenters. They argue that, every man has a right to the common privileges of the society in which he lives; and among these common privileges is a legal capacity for serving his sovereign and country; a right, so important, that the forfeiture of it is made the punishment of some of the greatest crimes. No man who does not forfeit that capacity of serving his sovereign and country, which is his natural right, as well as the honor and emoluments that may happen to be connected with it, by over-sight ought to be deprived of them; and disabilities that are not thus incurred, are unjust penalties, implying both disgrace and privation. Punishment, without the previous proof of guilt, cannot be denied to be an injury; and injuries inflicted on account of religion, are undoubtedly persecutions.

The dissenters, therefore, contend, that the subjection to higher powers, and obedience to magistrates, which the Scriptures enjoin on Christians, relates only to civil, not at all to religious matters; and that so far is Christianity from enjoining, that it actually forbids obedience to civil governors in things of a religious nature. It commands us to 'call no man upon earth father or master,' Matthew xxiii. 8, 9, i. e. to acknowledge no authority or jurisdiction of any in matters of religion, but to remember that



only is our master and lawgiver, even so; and that all Christians are brethren, *John* xx. 25.

We cannot follow out the dissenting system in its numerous separate lines of divergence from the established church. Under the particular names of each of their well-known denominations will these be fully discussed. But by pious and excellent men, we may add, divided from the church of England, on account of her laxity in discipline; others from evident disagreement, as they allege, between doctrines of the desk, or liturgy, and those from the pulpit; and while the major part of dissenters, as we have stated, profess agreement with doctrinal articles, a respectable minority is still object to several of them. The entire system of Wesleyan Methodism, a species of stern dissent, has grown out of the first of these complaints against the church. We do not feel ourselves called upon to add more as to general principles of this body. See *MEMBERS*.

Their history, dissenters, of course, contend, commences with the persecutions of that early of our religion with whose affairs the book of Acts of the Apostles is occupied: but, in our country, they consider themselves the successors of the Wicliffites and Lollardites of the fourteenth century. Of John Wicliff Mr. Gilpin says, 'The authority claimed by the church he most opposed. It was a scandal, he would to the Christian church, that any of its members should set up their own authority against that of their Saviour. The great argument of that day (which was indeed a subtle one) for the authority of the church, was this. Many persons, *des Mathew, Mark, Luke, and John*, wrote gospels; but the church rejected them all, excepting these four: and this it did by its own authority. It might, by the same authority, have rejected those four gospels, and have loved others. It follows, therefore, that the authority of the church is above that of any gospel.—To this Wicliff replied, that the evidence the received gospels was so strong, and that the rejected ones so weak, that the church could not have done otherwise than it did, without giving violence to reason. But the best argument, he said, if it were proper to avow it, for supplanting the authority of the church, was the necessity of it to support the tyranny of the pope. It was what made it worth defending at the expense of truth. In another place, speaking on the same subject, he says, that the pope would submit his actions to the same criterion, by which Christ was contented to have his actions tried. If I do not, says Christ, the works of my Father which is in heaven, believe me not. But the pope's authority, it seems, must be acknowledged, though he manifestly does the works of the devil. Thus, says he, Christians are in greater freedom than the Jews under the old law; and liberty, by which Christ hath made us free, by the wickedness of designing men, changed the most absolute spiritual bondage. The pope, says he, I hope, will come, when men will be wise enough to shake from their necks the yoke of human ordinances; and disdain

submission to any ecclesiastical injunctions, but such as are plainly authorised by the word of God.'

Early in the Reformation, a respectable party of the church of England contended for a more complete departure from the popish models of church government and discipline. Bishop Hooper, perhaps, led the way to the practical secession that afterwards took place, by refusing to be consecrated in the Roman pontificals. This was in the reign of Edward VI. On the persecutions that arose under queen Mary, a considerable number of the British exiles settled at Frankfort, and agreed to conduct their worship, without answering aloud after the minister, and without using the liturgy and surplice; to begin the public service with a general confession of sins, then to sing a psalm, after which the minister prayed for the divine assistance, and next proceeded to the sermon; after sermon, to use a general prayer for all estates, and particularly for England, at the end of which were subjoined the Lord's prayer, and a rehearsal of the articles of belief; then the people were to sing another psalm, and the minister to dismiss them with a blessing. Such was the order which they had unanimously adopted; and, having chosen a minister and deacons, they invited their dispersed brethren to join with them. In the year 1556 Dr. Cox joined them, with several of his friends; who interrupted the public service by answering aloud after the minister, and read the whole litany, in violation of the agreement upon which the congregation was formed. They out-numbered the first settlers, and, obtaining leave of the magistrates for the free use of king Edward's service-book, performed divine worship according to the rites that had been authorised by that prince. The original party, upon this, left the city of Frankfort, and removed to Basil and Geneva. Here commenced the distinction of Puritans and Conformists, by which the two parties were ever afterwards known, the former being called Conformists, on account of their compliance with the ecclesiastical laws of Edward VI., and the latter, Nonconformists and Puritans, from their insisting upon a form of worship of a purer kind, as they alleged.

On the accession of queen Elizabeth, the schism became more important. Dr. Cox was appointed bishop of Ely; and the standard of orthodoxy, according to this divine, and the majority of the bishops, was 'the queen's supremacy and the laws of the land;' whilst the Puritans contended for 'the decrees of provincial and national synods,' allowed and enforced by the civil magistrate; for neither party, it must be allowed, was for admitting full liberty of conscience, and freedom of religious profession.

Ministers were now obliged to comply with an act for the uniformity of common prayer and service in the church and administration of the sacraments; to subscribe a declaration of faith, issued by order of the archbishops and bishops, for the unity of doctrine; to take the oath of supremacy to the queen, &c. The question about habits was revived; and in 1566 these and several other ceremonies, imposed by law, compelled the puritans to an open separation. In



the following year they published other objections against the hierarchy and various ceremonies, for the use of which, they contended, there was no foundation in Scripture or antiquity. The leaders of this separation were chiefly benefited persons of the diocese of London; who first assembled, with such of their flocks as chose to follow them, in woods and private houses, subjecting themselves to a variety of legal penalties and frequent imprisonment. The adherence of the puritans to Calvinistic principles seems, in no small degree, to have urged the established clergy at this time to adopt the intricate distinctions of Arminius on the subject of grace, free-will, &c. But several episcopal divines remained attached to the puritan system in the reign of James I.; and all these abettors of Calvinism, whether episcopal or presbyterian, were called doctrinal puritans. At length, according to Fuller (Church Hist. book ix. p. 97, book x. p. 100), the name was extended to stigmatise all those who endeavoured in their devotions to accompany the minister with a pure heart, or who were remarkably holy in their conversation.

Queen Elizabeth and James I. treated these early dissenters with that rigor which induced many of them to emigrate to the colonies. In the year 1629 they founded Massachusetts's Bay. The colony of Connecticut was formed by emigrants of the same class in 1636, and that of New Haven by those who, in 1637, fled from the persecution of Laud, and the oppressions of the star-chamber and high commission courts. The puritans were afterwards not allowed to transport themselves to New England; we have seen, in the article CROMWELL, how singularly the future lord protector was then prevented expatriating himself; and many of them removed, with their families, to the Low Countries.

On the restoration of Charles II., in the year 1660, the name of Puritans, says bishop Burnet, was changed into that of Protestant Nonconformists, who were subdivided into Presbyterians, Independents, Anabaptists, and Quakers. At this time a second Act of Uniformity was passed, by which all who refused to observe the rites, and subscribe the doctrines, of the church of England, were entirely excluded from power. From this period until the reign of king William III. the Nonconformists were in a very precarious situation, sometimes involved in calamity and trouble, and at other times enjoying intervals of tranquillity, according to the varying temper of the court and ministry. But in the year 1689 the memorable bill for the toleration of all Protestant dissenters from the church of England, except impugnors of the Trinity, passed in parliament almost without opposition, and delivered those who could comply with the conditions it imposed from the penal laws to which they had been so long subjected.

Fluctuations have taken place in the political treatment of dissenters since this period, and in the close of the reign of queen Anne the act of Occasional Conformity, which was pushed forward by the high-church party, threatened the extinction of their new liberties. But the accession of the present illustrious House of Brunswick to the throne of these realms has confirmed and

enlarged them; and each of the succeeding monarchs has renewed and redeemed his promise to keep the toleration act inviolate: and the parties interested are still hopeful of the abrogation of all excluding statutes, on the subject of religion, they wait with patience the final decision of the government and country as a period of awarding their rights.

DISSENTIENT; a word literally signifying dissent or disagree, prefixed to protests, or to the reasons of dissent, given in by peers, in the upper House of Parliament entered on the journals of the house.

DISSERTATION, *n. s.* Lat. *diserta* discourse; a disquisition, a treatise.

Plutarch, in his *dissertation* upon the Poets, an instance of Homer's judgment in closing a scene with decency and instruction.

*Broomes on the*

I have known a woman branch out into a *tempore dissertation* upon the edging of a petticoat, chide her servant for breaking a china cup, &c. figures of rhetoric.

The following relation is so curious and interesting, and the *dissertations* that accompany it so curious and instructive, that the translator in his attempt stands in need of no apology.

Johnson. Preface to *Father Lobo's*

DISSE'ERVE, *v. a.*

DISSE'ERVICE, *n. s.*

DISSE'ERVICEABLE, *adj.*

DISSE'ERVICEABLENESS, *n. s.*

*Dis at*  
*To do in*  
*to damage*

Having never done the king the least service, he took the first opportunity to *disserve* him, and against him from the beginning of the rebellion.

All action being for some end, and not itself, its aptness to be commanded or hindered must be founded upon its serviceableness or *diserviceableness* to some end.

We shall rather perform good offices than any *diservice* unto relations who have served.

Great sicknesses make a sensible alteration; smaller indispositions do a proportionable *dis*.

Desires of things of this world, by their promote or *disserve* our interests in another.

DISSETTLE, *v. a.* *Dis* and settle. settle; to unfix.

DISSEVER, *v. a.* *Dis* and sever. word the particle *dis* makes no change of signification, and therefore, says Dr. Johnson, the word, though supported by great authority, ought to be ejected from our language. in two; to break; divide; rend asunder.

Discover your united strengths,  
And part your mingled colours once again.

The *discovering* of fleets hath been the cause of many actions.

Shortly had the storm so *discovered* the which the day before had tarried together, of them never met again, but were swallowed.

The meeting points the sacred hair *dis*  
From the fair head, for ever and for ever



is only produced when any external  
denly obtrude themselves, and *dissolve*  
sins of ideas. *Darwin.*

ENCE, *n. s.* } Lat. *dissideo*. Dis-  
cord; disagreement.  
le DISSIDENTS.

ENCE, *n. s.* } Lat. *dissilio*. The  
act of starting asun-  
ton, *n. s.* } der.

ing much room to receive motion, the  
at air was great.

*Boyle's Spring of the Air.*

LAR, *adj.* } Dis and similar. Un-  
arity, *n. s.* } like; heterogeneous:  
TODE. " } want of similitude.

few marvellous *dissimilitudes*, and by  
f jealousies, heartburnings, jars, and  
*Hooker.*

is reduced into *dissimilar* parts, and  
oil, very differing from sallet oil.

*Boyle.*

itude between the Divinity and images,  
ages are not a suitable means whereby  
i.

*Stillfleet.*

society is founded in the similitude of  
o it is promoted by some certain *dissi-*  
*Grew.*

hose rays are all alike refrangible, I  
mogeneal, and similar; and that, whose  
more refrangible than others, I call  
erogeneal, and *dissimilar*. *Newton.*  
iple of reunion has not its energy in  
ever the attractions of sense cease, the  
iples of *dissimilarity* must repel these  
air centre. *Cheyne.*

curious observers of the likeness of  
rents, that they may, upon finding *diss-*  
the pleasure of hating unchastity.

*Pope's Odyney, Notes.*

same race, though not exactly alike,  
so little different that no words can  
*similitude*.

*Johnson. Preface to Dictionary.*

LATION, *n. s.* } Lat. *dissimula-*  
ATING, *n. s.* } tio. See DIS-  
e act of dissembling; hypocrisy;  
pearance or pretensions. See the  
the Tatler.

le tellen you the forme of daunces  
and so freshe countenances,  
il lokings and *dissimulings*,  
jalous menues apperceivings.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

n is but a faint kind of policy; for it  
wit, and a strong heart, to know when  
nd to do it. *Bacon.*

ed not; and Satan bowing low  
*dissimulation*, disappeared  
air diffused. *Milton.*

may be taken for a bare concealment  
; in which sense we commonly say,  
ence to dissemble injuries. *South.*

make a difference between simulation  
om. Simulation is a pretence of what  
simulation is a concealment of what is.

*Tatler, 213.*

TE, *v. a.* } Fr. *dissiper*; Span. and  
E, *adj.* } Portug. *dissipar*; Ital.  
ON, *n. s.* } and Lat. *dissipare*, from

*dis* and *seps, sepi*, a venomous serpent, because  
whatever is bitten thereby, putrifies.—Minsheu  
To disperse; scatter; destroy: dissipation is the  
act or habit of dispersing or wasting: applied  
figuratively also to the mind, and particularly the  
attention. Dissipable is an obsolete adjective  
for, easily dispersed, or liable to dispersion.

The heat of those plants is very *dissipable*, which  
under the earth is contained and held in; but when  
it cometh to the air it exaleth.

*Bacon's Natural History.*

Abraham was contemporary with Paleg, in whose  
time the famous *dissipation* of mankind, and distinc-  
tion of languages, happened.

*Hale's Origin of Mankind.*

It is covered with skin and hair, to quench and  
*dissipate* the force of any stroke, and retard the edge  
of any weapon. *Ray.*

Gold is a wonderful clearer of the understanding;  
it *dissipates* every doubt and scruple in an instant.

*Addison.*

I have begun two or three letters to you by snatches,  
and been prevented from finishing them by a thousand  
avocations and *dissipations*. *Swift.*

The parts of plants are very tender, as consisting  
of corpuscles which are extremely small and light,  
and therefore the more easily *dissipable*.

*Woodward's Natural History.*

The circling mountains eddy in,  
From the bare wild, the *dissipated* storm.

*Thomson.*

This slavery to his passions produced a life irregular  
and *dissipated*. *Johnson. Savage's Life.*

DISSIPATION, in physics, an insensible loss or  
consumption of the minute parts of the body; or  
that flux whereby they fly off and are lost.

DISSIPATION, CIRCLE OF, in optics, that cir-  
cular space upon the retina, which is taken up  
by one of the extreme rays issuing from an  
object. When the distance of an object from  
the eye is too small or too great for perfect or  
distinct vision, the rays of each pencil, issuing  
from the object, cannot be united at a point on  
the retina; consequently, the rays of each pencil  
will occupy a circular space upon the retina,  
which circle is called the circle of dissipation,  
because the rays of a pencil, instead of being col-  
lected into a central point, are dissipated all  
over this circle.

DISSIDENTS, a denomination applied in  
Poland to those of the Lutheran, Calvinistic,  
and Greek professions. The kings of Poland  
engaged by the *pacta conventa* to tolerate them  
in the free exercise of their religion, but they had  
often reason to complain of the violation of these  
promises. See POLAND.

DISSOCIATE, *v. a.* Lat. *dissocio*. To se-  
parate; disunite; part.

In the *dissociating* action, even of the gentlest fire,  
upon a concrete, there perhaps vanish some active and  
fugitive particles, whose presence was requisite to  
contain the concrete under such a determinate form.

*Boyle.*

DISSOLUBLE, *adj.* } Lat. *dissolubilis*. Ca-  
DISSOLUBILITY, *n. s.* } pable of separation;  
having one part separable from another. Disso-  
lubility is liableness to dissolution.

Nodules, reposed in cliffs amongst the earth, being  
hard and not so *dissoluble*, are left behind.

*Woodward's Natural History.*



Bodies seem to have an intrinsic principle of alteration, or corruption, from the *dissolubility* of their parts, and the coalition of several particles endued with contrary and destructive qualities each to other.

*Hale's Origin of Mankind.*

DISSOLVE, *v. a. & n.*

DISSOLV'ENT, *n. s. & adj.*

DISSOLV'ER,

DISSOLV'ABLE, *adj.*

Lat. *dissolvere*, from *dis*, asunder, and *solvere*, to loose. To unite the parts of a thing by moisture or by heat; to melt; liquefy: hence, figuratively, to destroy a union, compact, or delusion, as well as to dissipate obscurity or doubt. Dissolvent is having the power of dissolving; dissolver is synonymous with it as a substantive: dissolvable is, liable to liquefy or disperse by dissolution.

I have a desire to be dissolved and to be with Christ, it is mych more better. *Wiclif. Filipensis 1.*

And I have heard of thee, that thou canst make interpretations and dissolve doubts. *Dan. v. 16.*

If there be more, more woeful, hold it in;

For I am almost ready to dissolve,

Hearing of this. *Shakespeare. King Lear.*

She and I, long since contracted,

Are now so sure that nothing can dissolve us. *Id.*

By the king's authority alone, and by his writs, parliament's are assembled; and by him alone they are prorogued and dissolved, but each house may adjourn itself. *Bacon to Villiers.*

Down fell the duke, his joints dissolved asunder, Blind with the light, and stricken dead with wonder. *Fairfax.*

Witness these ancient empires of the earth

In height of all their flowing wealth dissolved. *Milton.*

Angels dissolved in hallelujahs lie. *Dryden.*

The commons live, by no divisions rent;

But the great monarch's death dissolves the government. *Id.*

In man and viviparous quadrupeds, the food, moistened with the spittle, is first chewed, then swallowed into the stomach, where, being mingled with dissolved juices, it is concocted, macerated, and reduced into a chyle. *Ray.*

As wax dissolves, as ice begins to run

And trickle into drops before the sun,

So melts the youth, and languishes away. *Addison's Ovid.*

Such things as are not dissolvable by the moisture of the tongue, act not upon the taste. *Newton.*

Spittle is a great dissolvent, and there is a great quantity of it in the stomach, being swallowed constantly. *Arbuthnot.*

Fire, and the more subtle dissolve, putrefaction, by dividing the particles of substances, turn them black. *Id.*

The snow dissolved, no more is seen,

The fields and wood, behold! are green. *Johnson.*

Despotic love dissolves the bestial war. *Darwin.*

DISSOLUTE, *adj.*

DISSOLUTELY, *adv.*

DISSOLUTENESS, *n. s.*

DISSOLUTION.

Fr. *dissolu*; Italian, *dissolutely*, *adv.* Span. and Port. *dissolutus*, *n. s.* Lat. *dissolutus*, from *dis* and *solvere*, to loose. Unrestrained by law or morals; debauched; luxurious. Dissolution is more generally applied in the literal sense, and to death. Dissoluteness, to behaviour or manners; yet both occur in the latter sense; and dissolution is used by lord Bacon for the substance formed by dissolving a body.

A giant huge and tall,

Who him disarmed, *dissolute*, *disarm*

Unawares surprised. *Parn.*

He determined to make a present *dissolute* world.

Such stand in narrow

And beat our watch, and rob our power

While he, young, wanton, and effeminate

Takes on the point of honour, to support

So dissolute a crew. *Shakespeare.*

I am as subject to heat as butter; a continual dissolution and thaw.

*Id. Merry Wives of Windsor.*

The life of man is always either increasing ripeness and perfection, or declining and towards rottenness and dissolution. *Raleigh.*

Weigh iron and aqua-fortis severally solve the iron in the aqua-fortis, and weigh lution.

Neither doth God say, I was the God of Isaac, Jacob; but I am. The patriarchs after so many years of dissolution.

*Bp. Hall's Controversy.*

Yet, I deny not, but dissolute men, li horsemen, which open a gate on the wren by the virtue of their office, open heaven and shut themselves out.

A longing after sensual pleasures is a the spirit of a man, and makes it too wandering, unapt for noble or spiritual

We expected

Immediate dissolution, which we thought

Was meant by death that day. *Milton.*

They cooled in zeal,

Thenceforth shall practise how to live

Worldly, or dissolute, on what their lot

Shall leave them to enjoy.

If we look into the common management have reason to wonder, in the great manners which the world complains of, footsteps at all left of virtue.

Is a man confident of wealth and power let him read of those strange unexpected of the great monarchies and governments world.

The true spirit of religion banishes levity of behaviour, all vicious and dissolute, but, in exchange, fills the mind with serenity. *Addison.*

That mind is dissolute and ungoverned must be hurried out of itself by loud sensual pleasure, or else be wholly inactive.

Would they have mankind lay aside provisions by agriculture or commerce, by the dissolution of the world may have moment?

In the next place, Sir, I am clear in union, reciting and ratifying one Scotch law act of parliament, has not rendered whatsoever in our church impossible, lution of the union between the two kingdoms.

A dissolution of all bonds even

The curbs invented for the malice

Of headstrong youth were broken

DISSOLUTION, in physics, a general reduction of concrete bodies in their parts, without regard either to utility; though in the usual acceptation among authors, it is restrained to



lies into a state of fluidity; which is  
rly expressed by solution. See CHE-

ANCE, *n. s.* } Fr. *dissonance*; Ital.  
NT, *adj.* } *dissonanza*; Lat. *disso-*  
dis, diversely, and *sonans, sonantis*,  
Harshness, or jargon of sounds; *dis-*  
*dissonant* is inharmonious; and  
ngruous; disagreeing; followed by  
ess correctly by *to*.

gh he nought fonde yet would he lie  
aunt er fro armonie,  
sonid fro melodie;  
re he would, and foule faile,  
orupipis of Cornewaile.

Chaucer. *Romaunt of the Rose.*

Still govern thou my song,  
far off the barbarous *dissonance*  
as and his revellers. Milton.  
be more *dissonant* from reason and nature,  
man, naturally inclined to clemency,  
himself unkind and inhuman?

Hakewill on Providence.

; less properly.  
nsience reports any thing *dissonant* to  
ges no more than the falsehood reported  
South.

ere the strain, and *dissonant*, to sing  
raptures of the savage kind. Thomson.

ADE' *v. a.* } Fr. *dissuader*;  
E'R, *n. s.* } Span. *dessuadir*;  
ION, } Lat. *dissuadere*:  
IVE, *adj.* & *n. s.* } *dis*, opposite, and  
persuade. To dehort; divert from, by  
dissuader is he who endeavours to do  
dissuasion the act or means of doing it.

he submit to Cæsar, promising  
he wonted tribute, from the which  
*dissuaded* by our wicked queen.

Shakespeare. *Cymbeline.*

diffident of thee do I *dissuade*  
sence from my sight.

Milton's *Paradise Lost.*

meant by *dissuading*; it is making a man  
is opinion, and unfixing of the mind.

Bp. Taylor.

ar to preserve yourself from relapse by  
sions from love, as its votaries call invec-  
it.

Boyle.

n deny this wish, which thou hast made;  
I can't deny, would fain *dissuade*.

Addison's *Ovid.*

re powerful *dissuasive* from suspicion, jea-  
langer, than the story of one friend mur-  
dered in a duel.

Bp. Horne.

ULABLE, *n. s.* Δισυλλαβος. A word  
ables.

is tied, in modern poetry, to observe any  
in the feet of his verse, but that they be  
whether spondee, trochee, or iambique,  
ot.

Dryden.

(Shakespeare) seems to have been the very ori-  
English tragical harmony; that is, the  
blank verse, diversified often by *disyllable*,  
able terminations.

Dennis.

FF, *n. s.* Sax. *dæstaff*, from *diege*,  
and *staff*, 'because females while  
fit it to the thigh.'—Minshew. The  
which the flax is drawn off in spinning:  
emblem of the sex.

a. VII.

Weave thou to end this web which I begin;  
I will the *distaff* hold, come thou and spin.

Fairfax.

In some proud Boreas never ruled fleet,  
Who Neptune's web on danger's *distaff* spins,  
With greater power than she did make them wail  
Each way, as she that age's praise did bend.

Sidney.

See my royal master murdered,  
His crown usurped, a *distaff* in the throne.

Dryden.

In my civil government some say the crossier, some  
say the *distaff*, was too busy.

Howel's *England's Tears.*

I can no more pardon a fair one for endeavouring  
to wield the club of Hercules, than I could him for at-  
tempting to twirl her *distaff*.

Goldsmith.

DISTAIN, *v. a.* *Dis* and *stain*. To stain;  
to tinge with an adventitious color; hence to blot  
or obliterate.

For certainly all these mowe out suffice  
To' apperin with my ladie in no wise,  
For as the sunne woll the fire *distain*,  
So passith all my ladie soverain.

Chaucer. *Legend of Women.*

He understood,

That lady, whom I had to me assigned,  
Had both *distained* her honourable blood,  
And eke the faith which she to me did bind.

Faerie Queene

The worthiness of praise *distains* his worth,  
If he that's praised himself bring the praise forth.

Shakespeare.

Nor ceased his arrows, till the shady plain  
Seven mighty bodies with their blood *distain*.

Dryden's *Virgil.*

Place on their heads that crown *distained* with gore,  
Which those dire hands from my slain father tore.

Pope.

DISTASTE', *n. s.* } *Dis* and *taste*. *Dis-*  
DISTASTE'FUL, *adj.* } *relish*; aversion of the  
palate; disgust: the verb being derived from  
the noun, and both often applied figuratively.

Dangerous conceits are in their nature poisons,  
Which at the first are scarce found to *distaste*,  
But, with a little act upon the blood,  
Burn like the mines of sulphur.

Shakespeare. *Othello.*

After *distasteful* looks,

With certain half-caps, and cold moving nods,  
They froze me into silence.

Id. *Timon.*

The king having tasted of the envy of the people, for  
his imprisonment of Edward Plantagenet, was doubt-  
ful to heap up any more *distastes* of that kind by the  
imprisonment of De la Pole also.

Bacon's *Henry VII.*

It is in the general behalf of society that I speak, at  
least the more judicious part of it, which seems much  
*distasted* with the immodest and obscene writing of  
many in plays.

Ben Jonson.

The ground might be the *distasteful* averseness of  
the Christian from the Jew.

Browne.

On the part of heaven,  
Now alienated, distance and *distaste*,  
Anger, and just rebuke.

Milton's *Paradise Lost.*

None but a fool *distasteful* truth will tell;  
So it be new and please, 'tis full as well.

Dryden.

*Distasteful* humours, and whatever else may render  
the conversation of men grievous and uneasy to one  
another, are forbidden in the New Testament.

Tillotson.

Y



I am unwilling to believe that he doth it with a design to play tricks, and fly-blow my words to make others *distaste* them.

*Stillingsfleet.*

With stern *distaste* avowed,  
To their own districts drive the suitor crowd.

*Pope's Odyssey.*

**DISTANCE**, *v. a. & n. s.* } *Fr. distance* ;  
**DISTANT**, *adj.* } *Span. distancia* ;  
*Ital. distanza* ; *Lat. distantia*, from *dis*, asunder, and *stans, stantis*, standing. The extent of space between two standing bodies. The verb seems here derived from the noun. Distant is, remote in place, time, or nature; and in any degree: hence, not obvious; not intelligible.

We come to see fight; to see thy pass, thy stock,  
thy reverse, thy *distance*.

*Shakespeare. Merry Wives of Windsor.*

Banquo was your enemy,  
So is he mine; and in such bloody *distance*,  
That every minute of his being thrusts  
Against my nearest of life. *Shakespeare. Macbeth.*

A good merchant never demands out of *distance* of the price he intends to take. If not always within the touch, yet within the reach of what he means to sell for.

*Fuller.*

This heaven which we behold  
*Distant* so high.

*Milton.*

On the part of heaven,  
Now alienated, *distance* and *distaste*,  
Anger, and just rebuke, and judgment given. *Id.*

This was the horse that ran the whole field out of *distance*, and won the race.

*L'Estrange.*

We have as much assurance of these things, as things future and at a *distance* are capable of.

*Tillotson.*

That which gives a relieve to a bowl, is the quick light, or white, which appears to be on the side nearest to us, and the black by consequence *distances* the object.

*Dryden's Dufresney.*

I hope your modesty  
Will know what *distance* to the crown is due.

*Dryden.*

*Distance* is space considered barely in length between any two beings, without considering any thing else between them.

*Locke.*

It was one of the first distinctions of a well-bred man to express every thing obscene in modest terms and *distant* phrases.

*Addison's Spectator.*

Cæsar is still disposed to give us terms,  
And waits at *distance* till he hears from Cato.

*Addison.*

If a man makes me keep my *distance*, the comfort is, he keeps his at the same time.

*Swift.*

These dwell at such convenient *distance*,  
That each may give his friend assistance. *Prior.*

I help my preface by a prescript, to tell that there is ten years *distance* between one and the other. *Id.*

Each daring lover, with adventurous pace,  
Pursued his wishes in the dangerous race;  
Like the swift hind the bounding damsel flies,  
Strains to the goal; the *distanced* lover dies. *Gay.*  
"Tis by respect and *distance* that authority is upheld.

*Atterbury.*

The wondrous rock the Parian marble shone,  
And seemed to *distant* sight of solid stone. *Pope.*

The senses will discover things near us with sufficient exactness, and things *distant* also, so far as they relate to our necessary use.

*Watts's Logick.*

The worse living authors fare now, the better they will succeed with posterity; for the critics love the

sport too well to hunt any but those who can a good chase; and authors are the only *object* of the chase, which are magnified by *distance*, and *distast*ed by approach.

Be silent! How the soldiers' rough strains  
Softened by *distance* to a hymn-like cadence!  
Listen!

**DISTEMPER**, *v. a. & n. s.* } *Distem*  
**DISTEMPERATE**, *adj.* } *per. T*  
**DISTEMPERATURE**, *n. s.* } *order; d*

disturb; render disaffected; to temper anew. As a substantive, it expresses disproportion; or disease of any kind; and the same use among painters as the ad *Distemperate* is, immoderate; and *distem*ture, habitual or extreme disorder; vio

Tell how the world fell into this *distem*  
And how so great *distemperature* did grow

Thy earliness doth me assure  
Thou art uproused by some *distemper*

*Shak*

There is a sickness,

Which puts some of us in *distemper*; but  
I cannot name the disease, and it is easy  
Of you that yet are well. *Id. Winter's*

Young son, it argues a *distempered* hu  
So soon to bid good-morrow to thy bed.

*Id. Romeo and*

Aquinas objecteth the *distemperate* heat, v  
supposeth to be in all places directly under the

*Raleigh's H*

The true temper of empire is a thing n  
hard to keep; for both temper and *distemper*  
of contraries.

I was not forgetful of those sparks, wh  
men's *distempers* formerly studied to kindle b  
ment.

*King*

He *distempered* himself one night with l  
hard study.

*Boyle's History of*

*Distempered* zeal, sedition, cankered ha  
No more shall vex the church and tear the

They heighten *distempers* to diseases.

Sin is the fruitful parent of *distempers*, an  
occasion good physicians.

They were consumed by the discommodi  
country, and the *distemperature* of the air.

When I behold a fashionable table a  
all its magnificence, I fancy that I see  
dropsies, fevers and lethargies, with ma  
other *distempers*, lying in ambuscade among t

A night of fretful passions may consum  
All that thou hast of beauty's gentle bloo  
And one *distempered* hour of sordid fear  
Print on thy brow the wrinkles of a year

**DISTEMPER**, in painting, a term used  
ing up of colors with something besides  
oil. If the colors are prepared with w  
kind of painting is called limning; as  
oil, is called painting in oil, and simply  
If the colors are mixed with size, white  
or any such proper glutinous or unctuous  
and not with oil, then they say it is do  
temper. See COLOUR.

**DISTEND'**, *v. a.* } *Fr. d*

**DISTENT'**, *n. s. & past. part.* } *Lat. d*

**DISTENT'ION**, *n. s.* } *from d*

and *tendere*, to stretch. To stretch brea



Some others were new driven and distent  
Into great ingots and to wedges square,  
Some in round plates withouten moniment.

Spenser.

Those arches are the gracefulest, which, keeping  
precisely the same height, shall yet be distended one  
quarter part longer, which addition of *distent* will  
infer much to their beauty, and detract but little  
from their strength.

Wotton.

Thus all day long the fall distended clouds  
Indulge their genial stores.

Thomson.

Wind and *distention* of the bowels are signs of a  
bad digestion in the intestines; for in dead animals,  
when there is no digestion at all, the *distention* is in  
the greatest extremity.

Arbutnot.

**DISTICH**, *n. s.* Fr. *distique*; Ital. Span.  
and Port. *disticho*; Lat. *distichon*; Gr. *διστίχον*, a  
couple of two verses, i. e. *δύο* two, and *τίχος* a  
verse, from *τίχω* to step, because ancient verses  
were measured by the steps. A couplet; a cou-  
ple of lines; an epigram consisting only of two  
verses.

The French compare anagrams, by themselves, to  
ems; but when they are cast into a *distich*, or epi-  
gram, to gems encased in enamelled gold.

Camden's Remains.

The bard, whose *distich* all commend,  
In power, a servant; out of power, a friend.

Pope.

**DISTICHIASIS**, in surgery, a disease of the  
eyelids, when under the ordinary eye-lashes  
there grows another extraordinary row of hair,  
which frequently eradicates the former, and  
striking the membrane of the eye, excites pain,  
and brings on a defluxion. It is cured by pull-  
ing out the second row of hairs with nippers,  
and cauterising the pores out of which they  
grew.

**DISTILL** *v. a. & v. n.*

**DISTILLATION**, *n. s.*

**DISTILLATORY**, *adj.*

**DISTILLER**, *n. s.*

**DISTILLERY**, *n. s. & adj.*

**DISTILMENT**.

To reduce to drops; to extract spirit in drops by a  
peculiar process; to diffuse. As a neuter verb,  
to drop, or fall in drops; to flow gently; to use  
still. Distillation is the art of distilling;  
distillatory, belonging to that art. Distiller, one  
who practises it; and distillery, the place of dis-  
tilling; or, as an adjective, belonging to such a  
place. Distilment is used by Shakspeare for that  
which is produced by distillation.

They pour down rain, according to the vapour there-  
of, which the clouds do drop and distil upon man  
invisibly.

Job.

Have I not been

Thy pupil long; Hast thou not learned me how  
To make perfumes, distil, preserve? Shakspeare.

There hangs a vapourous drop, profound;

I'll catch it ere it comes to ground;

And that, distilled by magic slights,

Shall raise up articial sprights.

Id.

Upon my secure hour thy uncle stole,

And in the porches of mine ears did pour

The leperous distilment.

Id.

The Euphrates distilleth out of the mountains of  
Armenia, and falleth into the gulph of Persia.

Raleigh's History.

Now, gentlemen, I go

To turn an actor, and a humourist,

Where, ere I do resume my present person,

We hope to make the circles of your eyes

Flow with distilled laughter.

Ben Jonson.

Besides those grosser elements of bodies, salt, sul-  
phur, and mercury, ingredients of a more subtle nature,  
extremely little, and not visible, may escape at the  
junctures of the distillatory vessels.

Boyle.

The dew, which on the tender grass,

The evening had distilled,

To pure rose-water turned was,

The shades with sweets that filled.

Dayton.

From his fair head

Perfumes distil their sweets.

Prior.

Water by frequent distillations changes into fixed  
earth.

Newton.

Swords by the lightning's subtle force distilled,

And the cold sheath with running metal filled.

Addison.

When you set about composing, it may be necessary  
for your ease and better distillation of wit, to put on  
your worst clothes, and the worse the better.

Swift. Advice to a young Poet.

In vain kind seasons swelled the teeming grain;  
Soft showers distilled, and suns grew warm in vain.

Pope.

The Arabians invented distillation; and thus, by ob-  
taining the spirit of fermented liquors in a less diluted  
state, added to its destructive quality.

Darwin.

By act of parliament, distillers are not at liberty to  
draw off any low wines before they have charged  
their wash-stills with wash or wort.

Hey's Gauger.

We shall only here remark, that when a wash-back,  
or other distillery utensil, cannot be accurately mea-  
sured by any other mode, recourse must be had to the  
method of equidistant ordinates.

Id.

**DISTILLATION** is the art of separating the vo-  
latile and spirituous from the fixed and watery parts  
of fermented liquors.

When a fluid which has undergone the vinous  
fermentation is exposed to the action of heat,  
the vapor which arises from it is, when collected  
and condensed by the reduction of its tempera-  
ture, again converted into a fluid: but the fluid  
thus obtained is found to have different proper-  
ties to that from which it was derived, and it re-  
ceives the name of spirit. This spirit consists of  
water, and a peculiar fluid called alcohol. Al-  
cohol, in combination with more or less water,  
and flavored by the aroma of the different sub-  
stances from which it is obtained, forms brandy,  
rum, geneva, and all the various descriptions of  
spirit known in commerce. The art of the dis-  
tiller consists in selecting the most convenient  
mode of heating the fermented fluid, and of con-  
densing the vapor it affords, while he prevents  
the intermixture with his products of whatever  
would injure their flavor. To accomplish these  
purposes, although they are apparently simple, it  
is found that great care and skill are required.

The distillations performed by the chemist,  
with the retort, the alembic, the lamp-furnace,  
the pneumatological and Woulfe's apparatus,  
for obtaining gaseous and volatile products in  
general, are essentially the same as the distilla-  
tions conducted for the commercial purpose of  
obtaining spirit; but the scale is different, the  
chemist having his whole apparatus so completely



under his eye that he can adjust the heat and other circumstances with much nicety. In using, for example, when he has vapor to condense, the lamp-furnace, a wet sponge placed on the beak of the retort will suffice: but the commercial distiller requires, for the purpose of condensation, a large convoluted tube, passing through an immense body of water, which must be constantly renewed: the difference of scale, therefore, requires more than a mere enlargement of the apparatus, and there has in fact been found ample scope for improvements in the art.

The quantity and excellence of the spirit produced by the French, in consequence of the alterations they have made in the old method of distilling (the most improved form of which, by Saintmarc, we shall presently describe), have decisively shown the value of the new plans, which may be adopted without the disadvantage of increasing the first cost or complexity of the apparatus. They consist in the application of Woulfe's apparatus to this purpose. Wine being put into the boiler, and into all the intermediate receivers between the boiler and the worm, the tube from the boiler plunges into the wine of the first receiver, to which it communicates sufficient heat to raise its contents in vapor: this vapor has the same effect on the wine of the next receiver; and after the continuation of the process through as many receivers as may be thought proper, the whole of the vapor finally extricated is condensed in the usual way by passing through a worm. By this truly ingenious apparatus, spirit of various degrees of concentration may be obtained at one operation, according as the product of the first, the second, or any other receiver is taken; the consumption of fuel is extremely small, the product excellent, as well as greater in quantity than by any other means; and by using water instead of wine, in the boiler, the possibility of an empyreumatic taste is prevented.

In distilling from grain an oil is apt to come over, which injures the taste of the spirits; it is usual to keep it back by adding a little sulphuric acid to the wash.

The comparative salubrity of the spirit or geneva made in Holland is notorious, and it has been supposed that nothing like it can be produced in this country; but it appears to be entirely the result of the care they take in their processes. They use the most perfect grain, and use it only when perfectly malted, aware that a fourth part more spirit is obtained from such grain than from that of which the germination has been checked too soon, or suffered to continue too long. The best Hollands is prepared from wheat, which is the fittest grain for this use, and is more productive than barley; but rye yields about one-third more spirit than wheat, and is more extensively used in Holland. The fermentation is continued about three days: the first distillation is extremely slow, and the observation of this point is essential; the second distillation or rectification is done with juniper berries. The most rigid cleanliness is observed, and the vessels are cleansed with lime-water instead of soap, which would give the liquor a urinous taste. They use the rye grown on a calcareous soil, and never, if they can avoid it, that of fat clayey

ground: 1 is Prussian rye they employ. A little malt added to rye improves the flavor, but not the quantity of the spirit.

The substances from which spirit is obtained are usually barley, wheat, oats, rye, sugar, or molasses. In countries where the grape ripens in the open air, wine is distilled for this purpose: hence the superiority of the brandies of France; the spirit afforded by good wines containing the true aroma of all products capable of yielding alcohol. When grain is used it is malted according to the usual process, like barley for brewing; and the fermentation is conducted in the same manner. After fermentation, the fluid intended to be distilled is called wash, and it is ready for the still.

A still consists of a boiler, which contains the wash; and a tube, in passing through which the vapors are condensed: the tube is convoluted, in order that it may have a great length in a moderate compass, and it is thence called the worm. The boiler formerly used was a cylinder, the height of which was in general one-half greater than its diameter; but the French, who have always been foremost in the improvements which this art has received, have introduced a much superior form. The height of the boiler has been considerably diminished, its width augmented, and instead of being cylindrical it widens upwards gradually to within about three or four inches of the top; there the sides are curved into an arch and become narrower. Hence its form is in fact similar to that of a common tea-kettle: the mouth *cd*, as is shewn in plate DISTILLATION, is of the same diameter as the bottom *ab*. To the boiler is fitted a conical head, in the interior of which, round the lower edge, is a channel, destined to receive the liquid condensed against the sides, and which, instead of returning to the boiler, is conveyed into the worm. In the old construction the head communicated with the worm by an inclined tube of a very small diameter; but now the tube in this situation, at its base *fg*, is as wide as the head, and diminishes in diameter as it approaches the worm, into which it opens. Another important difference, between the improved boiler and the old one, consists in the shape of the bottom: the old ones were flat; this is concave. By this means the heat received is nearly equal at every point directly exposed to the fire, and, as the bottom is convex within, the sediment from the wash falls round its edge, where, from its resting on the brick-work and not receiving the direct heat, it is not liable, from being burnt, to give an empyreumatic taste to the spirit. Two inches of the circumference of the bottom rest on brick-work. The boiler is filled by the aperture *o*.

In the old construction of the furnace the heat was applied only to the bottom of the boiler; and a further loss was sustained by placing, as is still common in furnaces generally, the centre of the grate under the centre of the boiler: without reflecting that the stream of air towards the chimney always carries the heat and flame in an oblique direction towards the end of the boiler. At present the end of the grate next the chimney is not placed further back than the middle of the boiler, and the heated air is conducted round the



boiler before it passes off, by which the whole mass of fluid in the boiler is heated at once, and the heat may be maintained with great regularity, while a much less quantity of fuel will suffice. The brick-work surrounding the boiler reaches as high as the circle *kk*.

The worm is generally made of tin or pewter, and is the same as that in common use, except that at the commencement *l*, where it is connected with the beak of the head of the boiler, it is wider than they were formerly made, and tapers gradually towards the discharging extremity *m*. The reason of this is evident, because vapor, only partly condensed, requires more room than where the whole is fluid. The refrigerator, or vessel *AB*, is kept constantly filled with cold water; this is effected by a tube *n*, which descends and opens nearly at the bottom of it, and brings a supply of cold water from a greater elevation; while another tube, *r*, conveys the hot water with equal rapidity from the top. By this means the condensation is so complete, that the spirit discharged at *m* exhales little or no odor. As it is often not possible to have the water from a greater elevation than the refrigerator, without raising it by mechanical means, the following plan, by Alexander Johnston, is highly entitled to attention, as in it the syphon is applied to the worm-tube as a refrigerator; and water is conveyed in any quantity to a worm-tub of the largest dimensions, if perfectly air-tight; it is represented at in the same plate *A*, is the feed pipe of cold water. *B*, the hot water, or waste pipe, the end of which must be about two feet below the feed pipe, to make it act with full effect.

When the work is commenced, the cocks must be shut, and the tub filled through a hole at the top, and of course, both pipes: and when full, the hole at the top is to be stopped, and the cocks opened together; the water will then commence running, and continue as long as the supply holds good, as it acts in every respect on the principle of a syphon. By this means pumps, horse-mills, and other machinery, are rendered unnecessary for that purpose. The application of this improvement is simple, and executed at a very little expense. The saving for the city of Dublin alone, is calculated at upwards of 100 horses per annum.

With respect to the usual mode in which distillation is conducted in the great public distilleries, the most interesting account that has been communicated to the public, is that contained in the deposition of James Forbes, of Dublin, who was for many years concerned in a large distillery. It is from the Appendix to the Fifth Report of the Commissioners of Enquiry into the Fees, &c., received in the public offices of Ireland; which report was printed by order of the house of commons.

The corn is first ground, then mashed with water, and the worts, after being cooled, are set for fermentation, to promote which, a quantity of barm is added to them, and they become wash; the wash is then passed through the still, and makes singlings, and these, being again passed through the still, produce spirits; the latter part of this running, being weak, is called feints. When singlings are put into the still, a small

quantity of soap is added, to prevent the still from running foul; a desert spoonful of vitriol well mixed with oil is put into a puncheon of spirits, to make them show a bead when reduced with water: this is only done with spirits intended for home consumption, and no vitriol is used in any other part of the process. In this distillery, the former practice was to use about one-fourth part of malt, and the remainder a mixture of ground oats and barley, and oatmeal; latterly the custom has been to use only as much as would prevent the kieve (mash-vat) from setting. He had found that malt alone produced a greater quantity of spirits, than the mixture of malt and raw corn of the same quality with that of which the malt had been made. He generally put from fifty to fifty-four gallons of water to every barrel of corn of twelve stone (14 lb. to the stone). Each brewing was divided into three mashings, nearly equal: the produce of the two first was put into the fermenting backs; and the produce of the last, which was small worts, was put into the copper for the purpose of being heated, and used as water to the next day's brewing, when as much water was added as would make, with the small worts of the brewing, fifty-four gallons to each barrel of the corn. The kieves were so tabulated, that he always knew the quantity of worts which would come off at each mashing. Their strength he ascertained by Saunders's saccharometer, and at the above proportions he obtained, from a mixture of the two first worts, an increase of gravity from twenty pounds to twenty-two pounds per barrel, of thirty-six gallons, above water-proof, at a temperature of about 88°. The small worts gained at the same temperature about six pounds. The grain, after the last worts were off, retained nearly the same bulk as when put into the kieve; the whole of the grain was put in at the first mashing; he never knew any grain to be added to the second mashing. The worts of the first and second mashing were run through the mash-kieve into the under-back, in which state they were usually found to correspond with the computation made in the mash-kieve and under-back, in the latter of which a correct gauge might be taken of them. He usually commenced brewing at six o'clock in the morning. the first worts were run off into the under-backs, and required from an hour to an hour and a half to be forced up into the cooler; the second worts came off at the end of two hours from the discharge of the first, and required about the same time to pass into the coolers. The small worts were generally let off late at night; and being then, or early on the following morning, put into the copper to be used for the next brewing, were seldom shown on the coolers. He thinks that any decrease of the worts by evaporation whilst on the coolers, must have been very inconsiderable; and that a correct gauge of the worts may be taken in the coolers as well as in the underbacks. The quantity of wash in the backs was found to be nearly correspondent with that of the strong waters which had been on the kieve and in the cooler. The fermentation of the worts was produced by means of yeast, and was in general so contrived as to be apparently kept



up for the full time allowed by law (six days): he has, however, usually had his wash ready for the still in twenty-four hours from the time in which it was set. Backs are renewed in two ways; either by additions made to them from other backs in the distillery, each supplying a certain portion of wash to the back which is next before it in the order of fermentation, while the newest and least fermented wash is replenished by worts, or, when the fermentation is down, by an entire substitution of worts. He has ordinarily, in the course of work, charged a 500 gallon still with wash, and run it off in twenty to twenty-three minutes: he has seen a 1000 gallon still charged and worked off in twenty-eight or thirty minutes. He understands that it is now the practice of some distillers, to heat the wash nearly to the state of boiling before the still is charged with it; by which means he believes the process to be accelerated by three or four minutes. He has seen a 1000 gallon still charged with singlings, and worked off in from forty to fifty minutes, and thinks a 500 gallon still requires nearly an equal time. Feints from pot-ale (the name given to completely fermented wash) usually are run off in from six to seven minutes; making allowance for every delay, about six charges of spirits may be run off from a still of 500 gallons' contents, each charge estimated at 150 gallons. The feints were always put back into the pot-ale receiver; twenty gallons of feints is the usual quantity run from a 500 gallon still charged with singlings; he thinks there is more spirit extracted from feints than from pot-ale; there was no delay between one charge of pot-ale and another, or between one of singlings and another; the still could be cleansed in less than a minute; it very rarely occurred that the ordinary accidents which happened to the still delayed the work to any considerable degree. The still is never charged with wash beyond about seven-eighths of the still, nor with singlings beyond about four-fifths, exclusive of the head. The estimated produce (according to which the duty may be charged) is one gallon of singlings from three gallons of wash, and one gallon of spirits from three gallons of singlings, but it is very frequently somewhat more. Previous to the regulation (of Excise) which took place in June, 1806, from a still of 540 gallons, which is charged with 2075 gallons of spirits weekly, he has frequently drawn 530 gallons in one week, and thinks 500 gallons to be a fair average. He usually made spirits about fourteen per cent. above proof, by Saunders's hydrometer. Spirits exported by him from twelve to fourteen per cent. above proof by Saunders' and Hyatt's hydrometer, were charged in London at from twenty-four to twenty-six gallons per cent. Before he sent them to the custom-house, he either reduced them with water, or drew them at that strength from the still. To every six gallons of strong spirits, one gallon of water was added in the distillery, which reduced them to the strength usual for exportation. The reduced spirits are permitted to the king's warehouses, and the distiller given a credit for a decrease of stock equal to the quantity so permitted; by these means he has one gallon of private

spirits to dispose of for every gallon of wine mixed with the spirits exported; besides this, the distiller draws back the allowance given in lieu of the malt-duty on every gallon of wine added: when he warehoused spirits with the intention of afterwards using them for home consumption, he left them at their full strength.

The absence of improvement in the process of distillation, as well as in the apparatus for effecting it, in this country, may be chiefly traced to the shackles which have proceeded from the regulations of excise, adopted and enforced for the protection of the revenue. Whether those regulations may have been indispensably requisite to that end, is, perhaps, very questionable; but it is quite certain that they have had the effect of restraining those extensive improvements in the branch of science and business, which have been almost universally accomplished, where the inventive genius of our countrymen has had free scope in the application of its powers to practical results. This is especially visible on a comparison of the means employed in France for the improvement of this branch. With an unlimited supply of the grape, a material certainly calculated to afford one of the finest spirits, they are enabled, almost at will, to effect such improvements in its quality as result from changes of process, and the adoption of superior apparatus since, although in some respects under certain revenue regulations, they are not enforced in a manner calculated to prejudice the exercise of talent, whether mechanically or chemically applied to the art.

In the English language, too, there scarcely exists a treatise of any value on this subject, and that which has been published is little more than translations from works in the French language. There the scientific investigations of such men as Lavoisier, Chaptal, Gay Lussac, and Thenard, have laid a sure foundation for the more practical illustrations of Macquer, Dubrunfaut, Dubuisson, and others of less note, who have sent forth to the world the result of their labors.

With names as high on the list of science as our countrymen Davy, Woollaston, Dalton, Henry, Thomson, Ure, and Black, and with some of the most important departments of the art of distillation, up to the point of fermentation, is well understood, and as extensively practiced as in France, the paucity of information on the subject generally, in this country, is not a little surprising. The French distillers have brought to notice several stills of curious construction, which have had for their object the saving of time and fuel, and the production of a spirit of superior strength and good quality. In some of these perpetual distillation has been aimed at, but it can be said with success. Indeed, it is difficult to conceive that the elements to be converted, and the practice necessary for their conversion, can be so nicely combined and adjusted as to be about such a result, without a most elaborate and expensive series of machinery and vessels; not in themselves, not easy of management, leading to the risk of considerable loss, from some of those inconveniences and irregularities to which all complicated apparatus are subject.

A still has lately been brought forward, which



is stated to be coming into extensive use, and to comprise all the advantages of perpetual distillation without its disadvantages; uniting moderate cost, the employment alike of a single vessel and a single operation, and the most perfect facility of management, with great economy of time, fuel, and other items of expense; and, which must be a primary object with all distillers, with the production of a fine and potent spirit. It has been introduced by two French gentlemen, M. Alégre, and M. Saintmarc; and is patented in this country in the name of the latter.

On a view of the plans and descriptions of this apparatus, there seems little reason to doubt its powers and advantages, as described; and, assuming the truth of the facts stated with regard to those powers as proved in practice, the invention is entitled to great praise; and must effect an extensive revolution in distillation, both in this country and in its colonies.

The plate of DISTILLATION presents a series of figures, exhibiting the construction and practical operation of this interesting combination of chemical and mechanical power.

Fig. 1 represents a sectional view of the still, with its furnace, and an elevation or outside view of the refrigerator, or worm tub. Figs. 2, 3, and 4, are plans of three portions of the still. Fig. 5 is a perspective view of one of the double tubes or pipes. Fig. 6 is an elevation of its front exterior, and fig. 7 is an elevation of its back exterior.

FIGURE I.

A. THE FIRE-PLACE OR FURNACE, above which the still is placed.

B. EIGHT COPPERS OR BOILERS, surmounting each other, constituting the apparatus or still, in the form of a column or cylinder, and numbered 1 to 8; the different coppers or compartments being put together by flanges and bolts.

C. (vide fig. 6 and 7), OPENINGS OR MANHOLES, tightly closed by screw boxes, or otherwise, calculated to admit a person into the several coppers, No. 1 to 7, for the purpose of cleaning or repairing them; or, when on a smaller scale, intended to admit a person's arm for the same object.

D. AN EXTERIOR VESSEL, or INTERMEDIATE WASH CHARGER, surrounding the upper compartment of the still; and calculated to contain a quantity of wash equal to the proper charge of one copper.

E. SUPPLY PIPE communicating from the general wash charger, or vessel containing the liquid to be distilled, to the exterior vessel D; and furnished with a cock for the purpose of turning the wash into that vessel.

F. A PLUG or VALVE fixed in the head of a pipe extending from the bottom of the vessel D to the lower part of the copper, 7; which plug is raised by the aid of

G. A LEVER AND FULCRUM for the purpose of discharging the wash contained in the vessel D into the copper 7; from whence, as it reaches the upper end of the pipes H, it flows down from copper to copper, until it reaches No. 2; a quantity being displaced from the surface of the liquor in each copper equal to that which is thrown in from the copper next above.

H. FIVE PIPES, communicating from the copper, fig. 7 to fig. 6, and so on in succession, from vessel to vessel, down to fig. 2, extending from the level of the wash in one copper, marked by dotted lines to nearly the bottom of the copper below, in order to displace the warmest liquor, as shown in the description of G.

I. (Vide figs. 6 and 7), SIX PIPES FURNISHED WITH COCKS, communicating respectively from one copper to that next below, by which all the wash in the several coppers, from fig. 7 downwards, may be conveyed into the lower coppers, and finally drawn off from the lowest vessel.

K. (Vide figs. 6 and 7), SMALL TRIAL COCKS IN COPPERS 1 and 2, which, on being turned, indicate when those coppers are charged to the proper height, as denoted by the dotted lines on the same level as these cocks. They serve also as valves to admit air when the liquor is drawn off. A similar cock is likewise placed in copper, fig. 3, for the purpose last mentioned.

L. (Vide fig. 6), A SMALL PROOF COCK, placed vertically near the roof of the copper, No. 1, which, on being turned, determines by the application of a lighted taper or candle, whether or not there remains any portion of alcohol in this copper or boiler.

M. A DISCHARGE PIPE AND COCK to carry off the spent wash from the copper, fig. 1, when the spirit has distilled from it. This cock discharges down to about one inch above the crown, or highest part of the copper; and, in consequence, it is not necessary to damp the fire when it is opened.

N. A SECOND DISCHARGE PIPE AND COCK in the lowest part of the bottom, which carries off the whole contents of the copper; and, when opened, will generally require the fire to be damped, to prevent burning the bottom.

O. TEN DOUBLE TUBES OR PIPES, of which five are fixed on the roof of copper 1, and five on that of 2. These pipes are closed at the top, and have openings in the upper part of the inner, communicating with the outer one. The vapor produced from the wash in copper 1, passes through the five double tubes on the roof of that copper into the copper 2, by rising up the inner tubes, passing therefrom through the openings at the upper part thereof, and descending down the outer tubes, discharging itself into the liquid in copper No. 2, where it becomes condensed. In like manner the vapor produced in the last mentioned copper passes up the double tubes on the roof thereof, into the copper fig. 3. (For a better description of these double tubes, vide the perspective view of one of them in fig. 5; and for the plan of the coppers containing them, vide fig. 4, and their respective explanations given below).

P. FIVE SEMISPHERICAL VESSELS OR DOMES (in French, CALOTTES), constructed upon, and tightly jointed to, the centres of the roofs of the several coppers, No. 3 to 7, both inclusive. These domes, except the highest, are surrounded with wash; but have internal communication only with each other, by means of pipes fixed on their centres, which pass into the pipes Q, next described.

Q. FIVE DOUBLE TUBES OR PIPES (of the same



kind as those marked O.), which are tightly fixed on the centres of the roofs of the coppers Nos. 3 to 7, and stand within the domes last described. The vapor described above (O) to have reached the copper No. 3, becomes condensed in the wash contained therein. The vapor generated in this copper passes through the double tube Q into the dome which encloses it, and so in succession, through the several tubes and domes above, until it reaches the dome on the roof of the copper No. 7, where it finally passes off into

R. A LARGE PIPE, which conveys it to

S. A WORM TUB, or REFRIGERATOR (of which an elevation or outside view only is given in the drawing), through

T. A WORM contained therein; and runs it off as alcohol, at the bottom thereof into

U. A SPIRIT RECEIVER. (For the plan of the coppers containing the domes P, and double tubes Q, above described, as well as the reversed double tubes V, and the safety pipes W, both hereafter described, vide fig. 4, and the explanations of it given below).

V. FIVE REVERSED OR DESCENDING DOUBLE TUBES or PIPES (constructed on the same principle as those already described, but of smaller diameter), which are suspended, reversed, from the roofs of the several coppers from No. 7, down to No. 3, both inclusive. Of these reversed tubes the four uppermost pass through the domes P, to which they are tightly fixed; and they serve to return to the lower domes in succession, the phlegms, or such results of the vapor, in a liquid form, as may have been condensed in its passage upwards through these several domes. These phlegms, or condensed liquids, are partially redistilled in their progress; and the remainder pass through the fifth, or lowest, of these reversed tubes, into the copper No. 3, where they become mixed with the wash contained therein, and are again distilled with it.

W. FOUR SAFETY PIPES, fixed in the roofs of the several coppers, Nos. 4, 5, 6, and 7, which are intended to carry off such vapor as may rise from the wash in those coppers, and terminate in

X. A PIPE, which passes on to the worm-tub or refrigerator S, and by a separate worm

Y. of two or three coils only, runs off the small portion of spirit it produces into the spirit-receiver U.

Z. A PIPE communicating between coppers No. 1 and 2, having its upper end carried about four inches above the level of the liquor in copper No. 2, in order to admit of the increase of its volume by the condensation of the vapor which passes into it from the copper No. 1 by the tubes O. It also serves to return from copper No. 2 to the lower part of No. 1 whatever liquor may pass up the tubes O, by any sudden or excessive action of the fire

FIGURE II.

a. A PIPE AND COCK for the supply of cold water into the copper No. 8, for the purpose of additional condensation when the spirit is required of high proof.

b. A WASTE PIPE, fixed near the top of the uppermost copper No. 8, to carry off the heated

water from the surface, in proportion as the pipe a furnishes cold water.

c. A PIPE AND COCK placed in the bottom of the copper No. 8, for the purpose of entirely drawing off, at pleasure, the water which may have been employed for additional condensation.

d. A PIPE AND COCK by which a stream of water may be thrown into the vessel D, and thence conveyed, by the valve or plug F, and pipes I or H, into the lowest vessels, either to be used as an occasional condensing power, or for the purpose of washing the still.

e. A PIPE AND COCK, by which a stream of clear water may be thrown into the uppermost of the domes P, and thence descend through the other domes below, in order to cleanse them from impurities.

B: 8, Plan of the copper B. 8, as shown a section in fig. 1.

D. Plan of the exterior vessel D, fig. 1.

E. Plan of the charging pipe E, fig. 1.

F. Plan of the valve or plug F, fig. 1.

G. Plan of the lever or fulcrum G, fig. 1.

P. Plan of the dome P, fig. 1.

R. Plan of the pipe R, fig. 1.

X. Plan of the pipe X, fig. 1.

FIGURE III.

(Referred to above, after the explanation of the spirit pipe T, fig. 1.)

B. PLAN OF THE COPPERS OR BOILERS from B, No. 4 to 7, as shown in section in fig. 1.

H. PLAN OF THE PIPES H, fig. 1, through which the liquor flows from copper to copper from No. 7 to No. 2, as it is displaced by the discharge from vessel D.

P. PLAN OF THE DOMES or semispherical vessels P, fig. 1, fixed in the centre of each copper.

Q. PLAN OF THE DOUBLE ASCENDING TUBES or PIPES Q, fig. 1, fixed upon the centre of the domes P.

V. PLAN OF THE DOUBLE REVERSED, OR DESCENDING TUBES or PIPES V, fig. 1, through which the liquor produced by condensation of the vapor in its passage through the domes, falls back into copper No. 3.

W. PLAN OF THE SAFETY PIPES W, fig. 1, fixed upon the roofs of the coppers from No. 4 upwards, for the purpose of carrying off the liquor vapor generated in those coppers.

FIGURE IV.

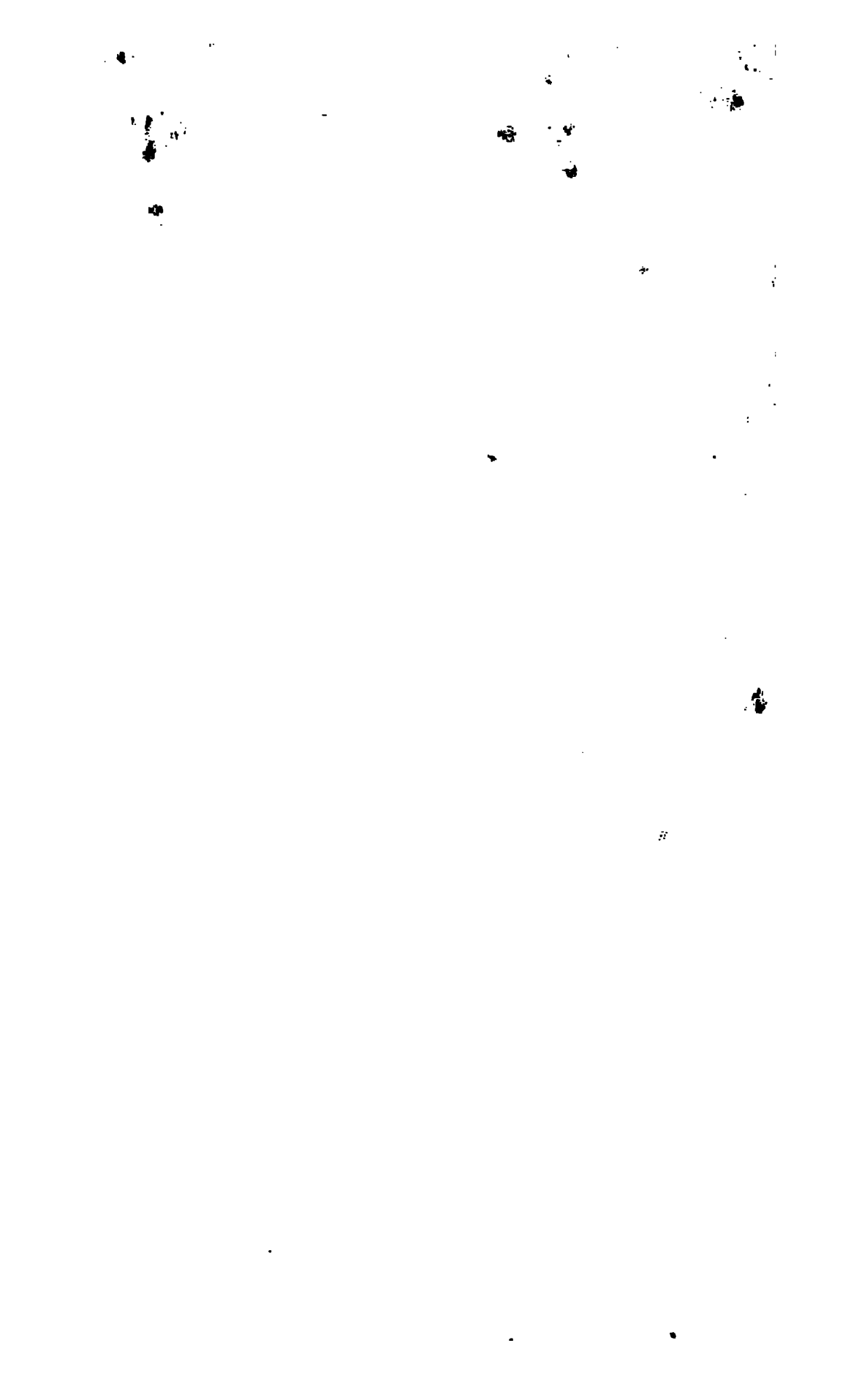
(Referred to above, after the explanation of the double tubes or pipes O, fig. 1.)

B. PLAN OF THE TWO COPPERS OR BOILERS B, Nos. 2 and 3, as shown in section in fig. 1.

O. PLAN OF THE FIVE DOUBLE TUBES or PIPES O, fig. 1, standing within the coppers Nos. 2 and 3 respectively, but fixed tightly upon the roofs of the coppers Nos. 1 and 2; through which the vapor passes from copper No. 1 to No. 2, and from No. 2 to No. 3.

H and Z. PLAN OF THE PIPES H and Z, fig. 1, passing through the roofs of the coppers Nos. 1 and 2. The pipe H extends from the liquor level in copper No. 3 to nearly the bottom of No. 1, and the pipe Z extends from about four inches above the liquor level in No. 2 to nearly the top of No. 1.







# DISTILLATION.

Scale of 18 feet, 1/2 inch to a foot.

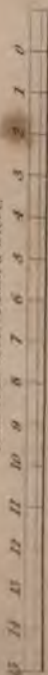


Fig. 7.

Fig. 6.

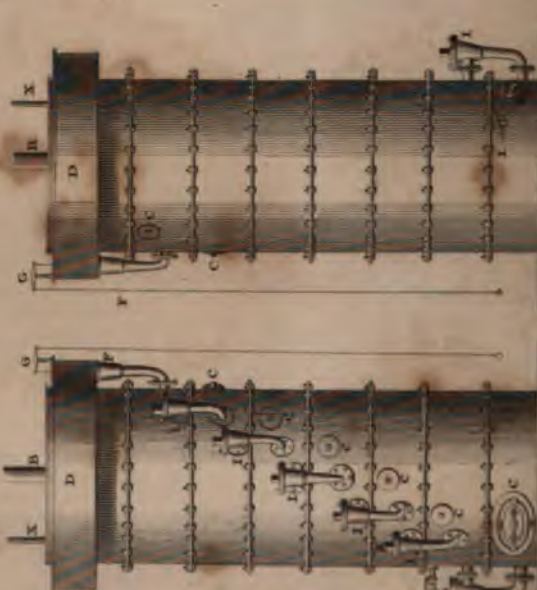


Fig. 1.

Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

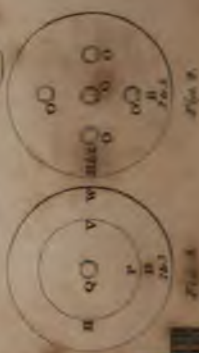
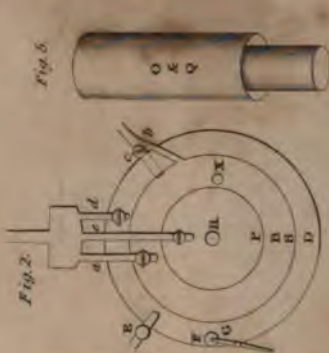


Fig. 5.

Fig. 6.

Fig. 7.

Fig. 8.

Fig. 9.

Fig. 10.

Fig. 11.

Fig. 12.

Fig. 13.

Fig. 14.



rest copper; as shown in section

FIGURE V.

respective, on an increased scale, S O or Q, fig. 1.

FIGURE VI.

t elevation of the still, as fixed, node of putting together the diffe-ments, constituting the several 1 to 8, in fig. 1, which are secured bolts.

E-PLACE OR FURNACE as shown in

ERIOR OF THE VESSEL D, fig. 1.

OR VALVE F, fig. 1, with its the wash from the vessel D to 7.

ER AND FULCRUM G, fig. 1, by or plug F is raised, to discharge f the vessel D into the copper

E OR OPENING C, fig. 1, for the described. This figure only re-the copper No. 7; the remainder

PIPE I, fig. 1, for the purpose of wash from one copper to another. y represents that communicating o. 2 to No. 1; the remainder are

RIAL OR GAUGE COCK, K, fig. 1, he wash is charged to the proper admit air when the liquor is his figure only exhibits that in e in Nos. 2, and 3, are shown in

ROOF COCK, L, fig. 1, to deter- plication of a light, when all the illed from the wash in copper

LARGE PIPE AND COCK, M, fig. 1. : of discharging the wash above ghest part of the copper.

D DISCHARGE PIPE AND COCK, the purpose of discharging the

FIGURE VII.

\* elevation of the still, as fixed, manner in which the several re-I, manholes C, and cocks K, re-not shown in fig. No. 6, are ar-petition of the description being ecessary. The lowest manhole in s of a form different from the on a scale to admit a person in-

for the purpose of cleaning the ily part exposed to the action of pper ones are of sufficient dimen- person's arm to clean the cop-en the diameter exceeds materi-he present view (which is in the et two inches) it is necessary to uholes, the same as that in the to admit a person into them all. of all the pipes, cocks, and man-at by means of a spiral staircase,

which makes a half revolution of the still, and is generally made of cast iron.

In this figure the various water pipes, de-scribed in fig. No. 2, are not shown; as they could only be represented in a very indistinct way. For the same reason the discharge pipes M and N are not repeated; and the chimney is omitted, which would have given the figure an additional appearance of confusion; and is not necessary to make it intelligible. The foregoing explanations have the advantage of being per-fectly clear and intelligible, a quality not com-mon to descriptions of a mechanical nature; which are usually more adapted to the compre-hension of scientific, than to the understanding of ordinary readers. Although in the descrip-tion of the different parts of the apparatus, the separate uses of each are well defined, the ge-neral effect of the whole combination is left un-explained. It may therefore be necessary to give an idea of the principles on which the advan-tages to be derived from it are founded.

The eight coppers, placed one upon the other, of which the seven lowest are intended to hold the wash, and the upper one to receive water,—distil in the following manner:—

The first three, of which the second and third alone are intersected by the double pipes, distil almost at the same time. The lowest, only, being submitted to the immediate action of the fire, is, consequently, the first whose wash enters into a boiling state. The vapor penetrates into the second, passing through the wash which is contained in it, by means of the above mentioned pipes, and is there condensed, yielding up its caloric to that liquid, which is thereby quickly brought into a boiling state; the vapor which proceeds from the wash in the second boiler passes into the third, producing the same effects as in the preceding. The new vapor, necessa-ri-ly stronger than the first, rises and passes into the fourth, where it is received under a semi-spherical dome (or calotte), which prevents it from communicating directly with the cold wash contained in that copper.

On arriving in this dome it is easily conceived that the most watery portion of the vapor is there condensed, giving up its caloric, which contributes to heat the wash that surrounds the dome. The most spirituous part, which passes into the dome of the fifth copper, experiences the same effect on coming in contact with a cold body. The same operation takes place from one dome to another up to the last. As the vapor which rises is exposed to a cold temperature it is condensed, ceding its caloric; and it is after a succession of sufficient condensations, that the spirit is divested of all weak and watery particles, which, thus liquefied, return from one dome to another, being partially re-distilled in their pro-gress, according to their degree of gravity, until the least spirituous reaches the third copper, there to undergo a new distillation. It has been observed that the upper copper is reserved to contain cold water; it is by this means, and by renewing this water, keeping it in a higher or lower temperature, according to circumstances, that the distiller can obtain the spirit at the strength he desires.

To explain by what physical law the watery vapor is forced to return from dome to dome to the third copper, and is there found totally separated from the alcohol, which arrives at the worm pure and free from any empyreuma, we shall call to mind what all chemists and distillers are, doubtless, aware of. It is known that water cannot boil under a heat of  $212^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit; while alcohol boils at about  $173^{\circ}$ . It is evident, therefore, that whenever the watery and alcoholic vapors rise, and are successively received in one or more atmospheres of from  $174^{\circ}$  to  $190^{\circ}$  or  $200^{\circ}$ , the watery vapor becomes separated from the alcoholic, and is condensed; and the last, only, passes out, and is received at the desired strength; care being taken to regulate properly the temperature of the water contained in the uppermost copper, which is traversed by the strongest and most alcoholic vapor before it passes into the worm.

It may be affirmed that the advantages of this apparatus are the greatest that have, as yet, been obtained. There is a great economy in fuel, as well from the small surface exposed to the action of the fire, and productive employment of every portion of the caloric, as by the simplicity and rapidity of the operation. To the saving of fuel we shall shortly advert more particularly. It will be perceived that a large portion of the spirit is distilled by vapor; and it is, consequently, much purer than that obtained by the ordinary apparatus. It is to the immediate contact with the fire of the material to be distilled, that distillers owe the greater portion of those injurious flavors and qualities with which spirits are frequently impregnated. Those bad flavors are acquired chiefly by the length of time that the wash remains exposed on the bottom of the still; for during the period requisite to bring it up from the cold state to that of ebullition, at which distillation commences, deposits of the heavier particles contained in the wash are made on the bottom, which, being rather absorbents than conductors, prevent that constant and uniform transmission of caloric which is essential to good and pure distillation. It is in the earlier stages of the application of fire that this effect is mainly produced; for, as the wash approaches a state of ebullition, the struggles, to reach the surface, of those parts of the wash which are impregnated with caloric, and consequently decreased in gravity, and which, in the first instance, are sluggish in their motion, gradually bring the mass into a state of ebullition, which counteracts the tendency to burn, or otherwise acquire injurious flavor. Once arrived at the boiling point, the risk of this evil is almost entirely removed. But as, on the common principle of distillation, the still is every time charged with cold wash, so every distillation is equally exposed to the recurrence of the evil.

It is one of the peculiar merits of M. Saint-marc's still to have effectually provided against this disadvantage. In his apparatus, only the first charge of the lowest copper is entirely distilled by the direct action of the fire. The aqueous and alcoholic vapors, which rise together, on arriving in the second copper, become mixed with the wash contained in it and are re-distilled

before they pass into the third copper. A third distillation takes place in that copper before it passes under the correcting influence of the succeeding vessels. Thus he effects one distillation by fire, which is immediately succeeded by two vapor distillations; and, subsequently, by two purifying processes, which divest the spirit of all its impurities; and it comes over, at one operation, of the strength of thirty-five per cent. over proof, according to Sikes's hydrometer, used by the Excise and English distillers; which is equivalent to bubble seventeen or eighteen in the commerce of the West India Planter, and about  $\cdot 870$  of the specific gravity of chemists. The strength at which M. Saint-marc brings over his spirit by a still of eight compartments, is limited to thirty-five or forty per cent. over proof; the being the highest degree generally required for purposes of commerce. But, by the addition of two or three more coppers or compartments to his still, he would succeed in obtaining, by one operation, the pure alcohol of the chemist, of the gravity of  $\cdot 820$  or  $\cdot 825$ .

It has been observed, that only the first charge of the lowest copper is entirely distilled by the direct action of the fire; and that is the only portion of a distillation, however prolonged, which is exposed to the injury of burning. By making the first charge of the lowest copper water, instead of wash, even this small risk will be totally avoided; since the wash, when once heated, comes down invariably into the lower copper in a boiling state; and during the short time that it remains there, being kept in a constant state of ebullition, it is not subject to the disadvantage of burning.

We speak of the shortness of the time during which the wash remains in the lowest copper. As soon as the whole of the spirit has descended from the lowest copper, which is proved by the application of a light to the small joint cock L, fig. 6, already described, the wash is discharged from that copper and the cock L, communicating from copper No. 2 to No. 1, is immediately opened, which discharges the whole contents of No. 2 into No. 1, without at all suspending the distillation. In order to replace the wash drawn from copper No. 2, that contained in the vessel D is discharged, by raising the valve or plug F by means of the lever and fulcrum G, which displaces the same quantity down the pipes H, until the copper No. 2 is replenished. A fresh charge of wash is then drawn by the pipe E into the vessel D, ready for the next supply.

It is easy to conceive, that, when the first copper has furnished all the alcohol it contains, the wash of the second is chiefly distilled; and, therefore, when brought down into the lowest copper, in a state of perfect ebullition, and thus far advanced in the process, it remains for a short time in contact with the fire, that it not only does not acquire any bad taste in consequence, but its perfect distillation is completed within fifteen or twenty minutes; the depth of the liquor being no more than ten or twelve inches. The process may thus be carried on ad infinitum, or so long as wash is furnished to feed the still. The supply displaced from the still



the second copper has been already stated to be partly distilled; and the quantities contained in the copper with the domes have acquired a considerable degree of heat; graduated from a

below the boiling point in copper No. 4, to  $160^{\circ}$  or  $170^{\circ}$  in copper No. 7. In measuring the caloric brought by the vapor through the domes, which is continually renewed, the steam in the fourth and succeeding coppers becomes the first agent which contributes to divest the alcohol of the watery parts that rise with it.

Among the advantages of this apparatus, the continual and regular supply of wash, the gradually advancing heat which it acquires in the manner just described, are calculated

to prevent the occurrence of those accidents which arise in distilleries, chiefly from the management of the workmen employed: we mean by explosion or collapsion. When a large quantity of liquid, of a turbid and heavy nature, collected in a body, and subjected to the action of a powerful fire, it happens, not unfrequently, that, before it arrives at the boiling point, it forms a strong head, which fills the vessel in the upper part of the still, and passes down the worm; and, on some occasions, causes an explosion of the still. The same might follow the want of a proper outlet for the vapor. But the accident which more frequently occurs is collapsion. When a charge is worked off in the common still, it has frequently happened, that whilst it remains filled with vapor, a new charge of cold wash is thrown into the still for distillation, or of water for cleansing, without the precaution of opening the man-hole, or other aperture in the breast of the still, to let it air. A sudden condensation follows the admission of the cold liquor; and, a vacuum being formed, the still immediately collapses.

Against both these accidents, M. Saintmarc's apparatus affords complete protection. If the wash forms a head, which is only likely to happen in the first charge of the lowest copper, (and this may be prevented by using water for the first charge, as before stated), it can never penetrate higher than the second copper; and is immediately returned by the pipe Z into the lower part again. The pipes O and Q are ample provision for the free passage of vapor which has risen up them; and the safety-pipes W equally secure the coppers on which they stand, against the possibility of injury from the generation of steam upon the surface of the wash in those vessels.

Against the risk of collapsion the same security is to exist. The liquor brought down into the lowest copper being always at the boiling point, and that in the vessels above graduated so that point, the descent from vessel to vessel is accomplished without any material change in the temperature, which is acting upon the vapor within the domes; and, consequently, without, in any important degree, changing the rate of condensation which is going forward. In this observation, in its strict sense, must be understood the copper, No. 7; where a supply of steam being introduced from the vessel D, of a temperature considerably lower than that already existing in the copper, an additional condensing

power is acting in that copper for a few minutes; and the product in spirit, during that period, will be somewhat diminished in quantity, but of higher strength. One of the effects of discharging the wash from the vessel D into the bottom of the copper No. 7 is that, to a certain extent, an equalisation of temperature takes place, by the admixture of the two bodies, in the act of displacing, by the pipe H, a quantity equal to that admitted from above. The more immediate object of fixing the vessel D round the uppermost compartment of the still, rather than as a detached vessel, is also to encrease the temperature of its contents, by contact, during the period occupied in working off a charge below, with a body at a much higher degree than the wash which it contains. By the union of these two advantages, the diminution of temperature in copper No. 7, only produces a slight effect, as already observed; and nothing like a vacuum is, or can be, formed in consequence; which is further provided against by the connexion of the dome in copper No. 7, with those both below and above: and, through the latter, with the large pipe leading to the worm-tub. We have been thus particular in detailing these parts of the case, as it is of high importance in distilleries to be independent both of ignorance and carelessness on these points.

The first impression on our minds, on a view of the drawing of the still, was that it was complex in its nature and construction, and must be difficult to manage. It requires, however, but little attention to discover that such is not the case. On the contrary, it is entirely self-acting as to all its interior arrangements, and so simple and unerring in its principle and operation, that any person, whether previously conversant with distillation or not, will be quite competent to its management, with a few days' practice; a point of great importance, where the indifference or ignorance of the parties employed to work the stills (as is the case, particularly in the West-Indies), renders all complexity unadvisable. The mere stirring of a fire, and the turning of two or three cocks, is the utmost extent of attention required to conduct its operations.

The construction of the still has been already spoken of, in the description of its various parts; and care seems to have been taken, in this respect, to meet all reasonable emergencies. The diameter of the still being small, in proportion to its powers, as compared with the common stills in use; and each compartment being separately manufactured, and finally put together by flanges and bolts, M. Saintmarc generally makes a spare lower compartment, precisely adapted to the higher part, which goes with the still; and especially to the West Indies. It does not appear that this still will be of less duration than any other in use, or require more repairs than the most simple ones. On the contrary, the lowest copper is the only one which is submitted to any severe action; and if, either by lapse of time or constant use, or by any accident, to which carelessness equally exposes stills of all sorts, the bottom should be injured, a period of two or three days would suffice for taking away the lower compartment,



fixing the spare new one, and replacing the still in its position ready for work, as sound and perfect as when quite new. This must be of great importance to a West India planter, who, if the same thing were to happen with a common still, at the beginning of a crop, would, in all probability, be deprived of the means of working during the whole season; as the consequence of such an accident to a common still is, generally, the necessity for a new one; so difficult and expensive is the repair. In like manner the principle of the construction of this still affords easy access to any copper or compartment, in the event of a little repair being necessary. But it would appear to be little liable to derangement in its upper compartments; the only action there being an equable and quiet transmission of vapor upwards, and of wash downwards; neither of them calculated to injure the interior works.

A question suggested itself to us, as to the power of introducing into the lower compartment of M. Saintmarc's still, the machinery employed in most malt distilleries, for disturbing the heavier ingredients in the wash, which may settle on the bottom. We have already shown that such a case may be prevented here; but, supposing our view of the non-liability of the wash to be burnt should be erroneous, there does not appear any difficulty in introducing the chains, or other proper machinery, for that purpose. In the common still it is fixed vertically, through the upper part of the still, and worked through a stuffing box. In this it would also be required to be worked through a stuffing box, but horizontally, through the side of the lowest copper, by the aid of a pair of bevil wheels in the interior.

A series of experiments and calculations have been made for the purpose of demonstrating the powers of M. Saintmarc's still, and proving the allegations with regard to its saving of fuel, water, and many other points of economy, advanced in its favor. These experiments and statements are of a sufficiently interesting character to induce us to add them to the preceding observations, as they are calculated to carry conviction to the mind, from the plain and simple manner in which they are advanced. They are made in a way likely to attract notice; the powers of the patent still being placed in juxtaposition or contrast, with those of the common still. As far as our means extend of judging of the correctness of the statement with regard to the powers of the old still, we should be inclined to think them not unfairly put. The data on which some of them rest are admitted by chemists, having been proved by the experiments of some of the ablest men in that branch of science, both in this country and in France. The deductions, therefore, are easy on those parts of the case. With regard to many points, such as cost and number of apparatus and vessels, space required, savings, and other considerations of a commercial nature, and some other points, they are not susceptible of check by any but practical persons.

It is of course, well known, that the ordinary process of distillation consists of three operations, and is usually performed in two stills of different dimensions; the larger one called a wash

still, being that in which the first operation takes place, of distilling the wash, the vapor proceeding from which, being of a weak nature, the product is an imperfect body, of about half the strength of proof spirit, and technically called low wine. This product is then conveyed to the smaller still called the low wine still, where it is subjected to a second distillation, from which results a spirit. A portion, however, of this latter product is separated from the remainder, it being of a weak and impure character; it is denominated feints by the excise laws and by the distillers, and is either submitted to a third distillation per se, or is mixed with the wash of the next distillation; being, however, generally separately distilled. These constitute three distinct operations. By M. Saintmarc's still, all this is effected at one operation; the weaker vapor, which constitutes the low wine of the first, and the feints of the second distillation, on the old plan, being strengthened and purified by the subsequent process in which it is subjected in the higher parts of the still; and all the weak part of the vapor, which is passed into the worm, and there condensed, would be in the state of low wines or feints, being condensed within the still, long before it reaches the summit, and returned into the lowest copper. This is the basis of one of the important savings of the still. On the old plan, the vapor generated by the first distillation is passed off immediately to the refrigerator or worm-tub, and there condensed; the vapor of the second distillation, the result of a new application of fuel, is again sent to the worm-tub and there condensed; and the third distillation, by the aid of a third fire, is again treated in the same way. M. Saintmarc makes the first application of fuel to his still effect all these objects. The vapor of the first copper heats the second; that of the second heats the third; that, again, passes through the several upper compartments, distributing a portion of its caloric to the wash in each of them, thus preparing them for distillation, in which process the vapor has the benefit of those condensing powers which each body of wash contains, for the separation, by liquefaction, of its aqueous or watery from its alcoholic or stronger, portions.

The advantages here described are demonstrated by experiments, showing the actual powers of a still on this principle, as compared with those of the two stills in use on the old plan, of equal powers of production; in which are shown the relative areas or superficies of each exposed to the action of the fire; the generation of vapor on both plans; and the quantity of water employed in condensing that vapor.

A still on M. Saintmarc's principle, containing 560 imperial gallons of wash, in seven copper-cylinders of eighty gallons each, estimated to work off thirty charges of one copper, amounting to 2400 gallons, will produce (supposing the wash to be attenuated sixty degrees, and, consequently, capable of yielding twelve per cent. of proof spirit on the wash), 213 gallons of spirit at thirty-four per cent. over proof, equal to 288 gallons at proof in a day of twelve hours. A common still of the total contents of about 1700 imperial gallons will contain a charge of 1200 gallons of wash, will



off twice in twelve hours; distilling 2400 of the same gravity as above, into 960 of low wine; and a low wine still containing a charge of 480 gallons, will produce, at per cent. on the wash, the same quantity, gallons of proof spirit.

diameter of seven feet, and an area of about . . . . . 38½ feet  
and a low wine still of 480 gallons, will have a diameter of five feet, and an area of 19½

taking a total superficial area in the two stills of . . . . . 58 feet

the diameter of a still to contain a charge of 560 gallons on the patent principle  
will be about fifty inches, and its area . . . . . 13½ feet

less than one fourth of the superficial area, and to the action of the fire, as compared with the stills on the old plan.

consequences of these diminished proportions are—

1.—That the construction of the furnace of the patent still, does not cost above one-third, or one-fourth, that of the two furnaces on the old plan.

2.—That the consumption of fuel is reduced to the areas of the respective stills, measured with the quantities of liquid raised by the vapor, and the economy of caloric, or heat, in operation, resulting from their different principles of construction.

Of low wines . . . . .	960 gallons
Of spirit, (at proof) . . . . .	288
Of feints, (one fourth) . . . . .	72
<b>Making . . . . .</b>	<b>1320 gallons × 1500 = 1,980,000</b>

the gallons of vapor passed through the refrigerator on the old plan.—On the patent principle here is produced:—

Of spirit, (35 over proof) . . . . . 213 gallons × 1500 = 319,500

the gallons of vapor passed through the refrigerator on that principle; or less than one-fourth that produced by the principle now in use.

In pursuing this enquiry to the consumption of fuel, which is necessarily proportioned to the quantity of vapor condensed, it is assumed, that the vapor necessary to produce one gallon of liquid will raise to the boiling point, condensation, five gallons of water—and 50° of Fahrenheit as the mean temperature of the water, it will be found that 1500 gallons of

vapor, equivalent to one gallon of liquid, will communicate to five gallons of water, caloric to the extent of 162°; but as the temperature of water, for the purpose of condensation, will be in a great measure ineffectual, when raised above 104°, it follows, that the absorption of caloric, by the water, to bring it to that point, is only 54°, or one-third of 162°—and, therefore, three times five gallons, or fifteen gallons of water, will be necessary to condense the vapor, which will produce one gallon of liquid.

Thus, on the old plan, (as shown before) . . . . . 1320 × 15 = 19,800

And on the patent plan, (as shown before) . . . . . 213 × 15 = 3195

To which must be added, for the water consumed in the uppermost copper of the still . . . . . 600

Making a total quantity of . . . . . 3795

the two sums of 19,800 and 3,795 are the five numbers of gallons of water employed to condense the vapor, on the two principles; the same proportion for any increased or diminished consumption, arising either from employing the water at a lower or higher temperature from the repeated use of the standing water of the worm-tub, in consequence of its not being cool when not worked.

A variety of estimates are given, exhibiting the diminished size and cost of the necessary buildings, and the decrease, in number and expense, of the various descriptions of vessels, pumps, pipes, &c., employed in one, as compared with the other, system. These, though essential to the distiller, are not necessary parts of our view of the question.

Another statement is given of the powers of



a still on M. Saintmarc's principle, which, were it not, as is stated, demonstrable in practice, would exceed belief.

A still of eight feet six inches diameter, containing 350 gallons of wash in each of the seven lower compartments, or a total charge of 2450 gallons, will run off in the day of twenty-four hours, at least 30,000 imperial gallons of wash, and produce between 3000 and 4000 gallons of spirit; a quantity unprecedented in the annals of distillation.

The results of some experiments are given, which were made in the presence of the officers of the board of excise in May 1826, by which, at one operation, some spirit was produced as high as fifty-eight per cent. over proof, and the mean strength of the whole day's distillation was forty-three per cent. over proof. The produce in quantity exceeded by ten per cent. what was required by the excise, according to the attenuation of the wash. A surplus to this extent, however, cannot be calculated upon; but it is manifest, that the evaporation and loss consequent upon one single distillation, is small as compared with that which results from three distillations, and two pumpings, or other removals from vessel to vessel, as hitherto practised. By experiments on this head made with the same wash, on the two modes of distillation, the result has shown a surplus product, in favor of M. Saintmarc's plan, varying, according to the delicacy of management, from three to six per cent.

M. Saintmarc and M. Alégre, have also introduced into practise in distillation, some changes in the previous process of fermentation, which effect an improvement in the quality of the wash, and give an increase in the quantity of spirit. See article FERMENTATION.

They have likewise constructed an apparatus, secured by patent, for improving the rectification of raw or feint spirits, by which a greater degree of purity is attained than by the common rectifying still; and the fine flavors necessary for making compounds are employed more beneficially and delicately than by the existing process. For a description of this still, see article RECTIFICATION.

We have devoted a large space to the examination of this question. But the apparatus and process united, present too interesting a subject of enquiry and investigation, as compared with the existing systems, to admit of its being slightly passed over.

We shall conclude with a few observations of the proprietors of the patent, addressed alike to the interest of the British distiller and the West India planter. They say, when speaking of the advantages the still offers:—'These advantages consist, shortly, in the comparatively low price of the still—the trifling expense of erecting the furnace—the small consumption of fuel and water—the diminished number, dimensions, and cost of the necessary vats, pumps, pipes, &c., connected with the still—the limited space required for its erection—the saving of time in the process of distillation resulting from its use—its uniform applicability to every liquid that has undergone, or is susceptible of, vinous fermentation (as well as to numerous other branches of chemical

science), and, especially, in the production, by one operation from the wash, of a spirit, exceeding in strength and purity all those which have hitherto been obtained in this country, by any single process. To these important considerations, which are alike applicable to the wine kingdom and the colonies, may be added, especially so to the latter, the no less important points of the production of rum one-third higher proof than the average of what is now obtained in many of them; and the extensive saving in puncheons, freight, and charges, when shipped in that concentrated state.'

'It is unnecessary to go into details of the saving in puncheons, freight and charges, when rum is shipped at a high proof. It is a matter of too much importance, and too easily estimated by a planter, to require figures in confirmation of its statement. But the actual saving to him in these items, however considerable, is only a part of the advantage. The spirit thus obtained, from its greater purity, bears a value in the market much above that determined by the relative degree of strength, as compared with rum of a lower standard. And as this improvement in strength and quality is effected, not at an augmentation, but at a considerable diminution of expense, it is unquestionable, that, when employed for purposes of barter, according to the practice of the colonies, at a reduced strength, that reduction from the high strength at which it is brought over by this apparatus, may be made consistently with a preservation of its purity; and its value, as an article of barter, thus enhanced in a considerable degree.'

They conclude—

'It must be recollected that this is not an apparatus the principle of which is untried. For some years a still of the same kind—less perfect, it is true, but still embodying the main principle of this, has been used in France, by the inventor there (who is also one of the proprietors of the present patent), with the most entire success. This has, therefore, the great advantage of having been corrected, in its construction, whatever defects were found in the original invention, from which no new invention is entirely exempt; and corrections being founded on eighteen months' experience in France. And the opinion is warranted, that the apparatus constituting the subject of this patent, and of the present remarks, is, in its principle, the most sound and scientific, and the most sure and perfect in its operation, of any that has been adapted to the art of distillation in this country.'

The practical uses of distillation in chemistry are too numerous to be mentioned. By it the volatile part of any substance is separated from that which is fixed, as in the distillation of turpentine, in which the essential oil rises and the resin is left behind; the more evaporable is separated from the less evaporable, as in the preparation or rectification of ardent spirit; liquids are freed from foreign or accidental impurities, as in the distillation of common water: volatile substances are united in an easy and commodious manner, as in preparing the odoriferous distilled waters of aromatic vegetables: bodies are decomposed and analysed, new compounds are formed, and



ledge is gained of the native and chemical properties of natural substances.

Common distillation of aromatic vegetables is a simple process, but gives room for some nicety of management, particularly in the regulation of heat and the quantity of water, which can be learned by experience. As an example, for peppermint water may be given, and is made: put a pound and a half of dry peppermint in a still, cover it with water, put on the lid, luting the joints with wet bladder or red paper; bring the liquor to boil quickly, keep it just boiling till about a gallon of steam has run over. The residue in the still is thrown away as useless. The water that comes over first is somewhat turbid, owing to the presence of essential oil that it contains, and in consequence is by much the strongest. By rest it becomes clear, and a fine pellicle of oil rises to the top.

The following circumstances are chiefly observed in common distillation:—The substance which the distillation is made in some requires previous treatment, in others none. Petals of flowers, such as roses and jasmine, may be used immediately, or only after the gendrying. The aromatic herbaceous vegetables, as peppermint, may be used indiscriminately wet or dry, observing, that as the plant is much wetter when fresh than when dry, more water may be added in the distillation of the latter than of the former. Hard woods should be cut or bruised, and, as they are less easily penetrated by the water, they should be macerated without heat for from one or two days to as many weeks, before distillation.

The quantity of water to be used varies much according to circumstances. It should be always such as during the whole process to cover all the part of the still which is immediately over the fire, otherwise the vegetable matter will be burnt, and give a very disagreeable burnt taste to the liquor, or, in some cases, to the distilled liquor. On the other hand, too much water makes the distilled liquor unnecessarily dilute. In general, herbaceous vegetables require about thrice their weight of water; and when dry, five or six times. The heat should never be more than about three-fourths full, or even less when succulent vegetables are used, to prevent boiling over. The management of the fire is of some consequence, to prevent boiling over and empyreuma on the one hand, and on the other to give heat enough for the action of the aromatic principle. Where a water bath is used (which, however, is tedious, and seldom if ever necessary), all danger of excess of heat is avoided, but it is often requisite to increase the heat of the bath by adding salt to the water. When, in distilling without a bath, too much heat is used, there is danger either of burning off the capital, not without risk to the distiller, when the liquor boils with extreme violence (which is particularly likely to occur when the still is too full of bulky herbaceous vegetables, that rise in the capital and partly choke the opening into the worm-pipe), or else the liquor boils over into the worm-pipe, and mixes the decoction of the vegetable with the distilled liquor. This is soon perceived by the condensed

liquor coming out at the bottom of the worm, not in a clear uniform streamlet, but by gushes and starts, with a gurgling noise, and fouled or colored. When this accident happens, the fire should be entirely slackened, the capital taken off, the liquor already come over returned into the still, and the distillation begun again with more care. When the stream of distilled water flows evenly, and the boiling liquor is heard to simmer moderately in the boiler, the operator will know that the process is going on properly.

The quantity of aromatic water to be obtained from a given weight of any vegetable cannot be laid down with accuracy, so as to obtain a liquor of uniform strength, as (independently of any difference in conducting the operation) the season of the year, the length of drying, and other causes, will materially affect the intensity of aroma in the vegetable. The taste, therefore, is a better criterion to judge when to stop the process, as the liquor will run nearly tasteless long before the water has all boiled away. Some advantage is gained by mixing all the distilled liquor together, as the first portion has generally rather more essential oil than it can retain, and the last portion has less.

The laws which relate to the management of a distillery are numerous and important; we subjoin a brief abstract. By 43 Geo. III. c. 69, every distiller or maker of low wines or spirits for sale, or exportation, within England, shall take out a licence, which shall be charged with the yearly sum of £10; and every rectifier of spirits within England, shall pay for such licence a duty of £5; and such licence shall be renewed annually before the end of the year, on pain of forfeiting, if a common distiller, £200; if a molass distiller or rectifier, £30. (24 Geo. III. c. 41.) No person shall be deemed a rectifier or compounder who shall not have an entered still capable of containing, exclusive of the head, 120 gallons, which shall have suitable tubs and worms, and be used for rectifying British spirits for sale, (26 Geo. III. c. 73. By 19 Geo. III. c. 50,) every such distiller shall cause to be put up in large characters, over the outward door of every place used for making or keeping of British-made spirits, the words *Distiller, Rectifier, or Compounder of Spirituous Liquors*, on pain of £100; and if any person shall buy any such spirits of any person not having such words over his door, he shall forfeit £50. By 21 Geo. III. c. 55, if any distiller or dealer shall buy any British-made spirits (except, as in the former case, at the public sales of condemned spirits by the commissioners of excise) he shall forfeit £500. By 19 Geo. III. c. 50, no person shall be permitted to make entry of any work-house or place, or of any still or utensil for making, distilling, or of keeping low wines or spirits, unless he shall occupy a tenement of £10 a year, assessed in his own name, and paying the parish-rates; and by 21 Geo. III. c. 55, in order to prevent private distillations, every person who shall make or distill any low wines or spirits, whether for sale or not for sale, shall be deemed a common distiller for sale, and shall enter his still and vessels at the next office of excise; and every person making or keeping any wash fit for dis-



tillation, and having in his custody any still, shall be deemed a common distiller for sale, and be liable to the several duties, and subject to the survey of the officers. No common distiller or maker of low wines, spirits, or strong waters, for sale, shall set up any tun, cask, wash-back, copper, still, or other vessel, for making or keeping any worts, wash, low wines, spirits, or strong waters; nor alter, nor enlarge the same, nor have any of them private or concealed, or any private warehouse, cellar, &c., for making or keeping any of the said liquors, without first giving notice at the next office of excise, on pain of £20; and he in whose occupation any of the same shall be, shall forfeit £50; 8 and 9 Wil. c. 19. And by 24 Geo. II. c. 40, every distiller shall, ten days before he distils or makes any spirituous liquors, enter every vessel, &c., at the next office of excise, on pain of £50 for every still or vessel used and not entered. And every distiller shall, four days before he begins to brew any grain, &c., make entry at the next excise office, of all coppers, vessels, &c., inserting in such entry the day on which he intends to begin, and the use to which such vessel is to be applied, which shall not be altered on pain of forfeiting £100, with the liquor, which may be seized by any officer of excise, 26 Geo. III. c. 73. And by 21 Geo. III. c. 55, no person shall make use of any vessel, room, &c., for making wash for the distillation of low wines and spirits, without giving a notice at the next office of excise, on pain of £50 for every vessel, room, &c., used without notice. Nor shall any person withdraw his entry whilst any duty is depending, or any vessels are standing, except by changing it on the day of its being withdrawn, (23 Geo. III. c. 70.; 26 Geo. III. c. 73.) No person is allowed to have any still or number of stills, which singly or together contain less than 100 gallons, under the penalty of £100 for every still; and the wash-still shall contain at least 400 gallons, exclusive of the head, under the same penalty. 2 Geo. III. c. 5; and 14 Geo. III. c. 73.

Distillers are to show to the officer every still or other vessel entered; and the vessels are to be marked by the gauger; and defacing the mark, or rubbing out, incurs a penalty of £20. 26 Geo. II. c. 40.

Distillers who use private pipes, &c., for conveyance of distilled liquors, forfeit £100. (10 and 11 Wil. c. 4.) They shall also make holes in the breast of the still for taking gauges and samples, and provide locks on the still-heads, the holes, discharge-cocks, and furnace-door, under a penalty of £50, and of £200 for breaking or wilfully damaging such lock or fastening, after it has been secured by the officer. 12 Geo. III. c. 46; 14 Geo. III. c. 73.

The distiller shall provide proper ladders for the officer to examine each still, and assist in setting them up, on pain of £200. 23 Geo. III. c. 70.

Distillers are required to give notice to the officer of excise before they receive any wine, cyder, &c., or any kind of fermented wash, on pain of £50, and also before they charge or open the still, expressing and describing the number and marks of the wash-batches used and they are prohibited

from charging the still with any other, under a penalty of £100. 24 Geo. II. c. 40; 12 Geo. III. c. 46; 14 Geo. III. c. 73.

Distillers, in preparing grist for wash, that is more in the proportion of one quarter of wheat to two quarters of any other grain, forfeit £50. 33 Geo. II. c. 9.

If any corn distiller, or maker of low wines or spirits from corn or grain, shall make use of any molasses, coarse sugar, honey, or any composition or extract of sugar, in brewing or preparing his wash for distillation, or receive such materials into his custody, exceeding 10 lbs. in weight, he shall forfeit £100; and officers may take samples of the wash in any vessel, paying for the same at the rate of 1s. 6d. a gallon; and if the distiller shall obstruct him, he shall forfeit £100. 23 Geo. III. c. 70.

Officers are to attend at the still-houses, after due notice, to see that the wash-stills are properly filled, and when they are fully charged to lock and secure them. And if any person shall open any still-head, &c., after they have been so locked and before they are opened by the officer of excise, or shall wilfully damage any lock or fastening, he shall forfeit £200. 12 Geo. III. c. 46.

Removing or concealing wash, &c., is the possession of any distiller, incurs a forfeiture of the same; and such distiller, and the person employed to remove, or who shall receive the same, shall severally forfeit 10s. for every gallon of it, and no wort, wash, &c., shall be put into the still or removed from the back or vessel in which it was fermented, till the same has been gauged in the penalty of £200 and double duty.

The officer shall every three months, if required, take an account of the stock of all distillers and rectifiers, and, if any unfair increase shall be found, the same shall be forfeited and may be seized; and the person in whose stock such excess shall be found shall forfeit £50. Rectifiers are to mark the strength and quality of mixed spirits on the outside of the cask, and in default thereof, or if untruly marked, the same shall be forfeited, and also the casks, and may be seized; and the rectifier shall forfeit £50. 26 Geo. III. c. 73.

By 27 Geo. III. c. 31, made perpetual by 40 Geo. III. c. 97, it was enacted, that all spirits should be deemed and taken to be of the strength indicated by Clarke's hydrometer; but, 40 Geo. III. c. 97, the lords of the treasury discontinued the use of this hydrometer, and any other to be used in lieu of it. All spirits of the third extraction, or which have twice distilled from low wines, and had communicated to them, shall be deemed 'British brandy'; if no flavor has been communicated to them, the same shall be deemed 'rectified British spirits.' If of the second extraction or once distilled from low wines, the same shall be deemed 'raw British spirits.' And all British spirits distilled with juniper berries, caraway seeds, anise seeds, or other seeds, or ingredients used in the compounding of spirits, shall be deemed 'British compounds.' And all British spirits of a greater strength than one to two on hydrometer proof shall be deemed 'spirits of wine.' Officers shall take an account of the



fiers and compounders every three st, and if any increase of quantity, limitations, be found, the quantity shall be forfeited, and may be seized; on shall forfeit £50.

British spirits or compounds are sent er strength than one in five under roof, the same shall be forfeited, and r £50 in the whole; and the same with the casks and vessels contained. III. c. 37. The distiller shall entry of all wash by him used for low wines and spirits within each of £10; and within a week after he duties, on pain of double duty. c. 50. All permits for removing shall correspond with the request delivered with such spirits to the e forfeiture of the same to such able the price, including the duties: er may be admitted to prove that ere delivered without a lawful per-ayer shall be allowed to avail him- forfeiture unless complaint is made a days after the delivery of the spi- III. c. 73.

distilled liquors, or such as sell the antity than two gallons, must take for which they are to pay annually onding to the rent of the premises copy; if the rent of such retailer wards, £5. 2s.; at £20, and up-; at £25, and upwards, £5. 18s. rards, £6. 6s.; at £40, or upwards, at £50, or upwards, £7. 2s. This is to be renewed annually, on the is to be granted only to those ns, victualling-houses, inns, coffee- houses; who, within the limits of xcise in London, pay £10 a year h rates, and in places where the ot rated £12 a year; and who, in the kingdom, pay to church and ust first be licensed to sell ale in re they dwell.

II. c. 8, retailers of spirituous li- licence, were subject to a penalty by 24 Geo. II. c. 40, all liquors astody of such persons, or within months after conviction, were

And by 13 Geo. III. c. 36; III. c. 38, such retailers are to object to mitigation so as not below £5. Every person who than two gallons shall enter his ops, &c., and his spirituous liquors, for every place, and 40s. for every ered; and also the liquors and II. c. 23; 30 Geo. III. c. 38. By . 69, every importer or dealer in ors, shall cause to be painted on part of the house, shop, or cellar, him, the words *Importer of, or rituous Liquors*, on pain of £50. or dealer buying of a person who words over the door of his shop, it £100. Any person who hath not his liquors, and who hath these door, shall forfeit £50. No spi- II.

rituous liquors shall be brought into a place of sale without previous notice to the officer of excise, and leaving with him a certificate, expressing that all the duties are paid, the quantity and quality, the name of the seller, &c., on pain of forfeiting £20, and also the liquor and casks. 9 Geo. II. c. 23. Retailers shall not increase the quantity of their liquors, on pain of 40s. a gallon; and the liquors so mixed with water, or any other liquors, shall be seized and forfeited. 9 Geo. II. c. 23. By 21 Geo. III. c. 55, the stock increased shall be forfeited, a quantity equal to the increased quantity shall be seized by the officer, and the person offending shall forfeit £20. The officer may at all times, by day or night, enter into warehouses, shops, or other places, to take an account of the quantity and quality; and if any retailer hinder the officer he shall forfeit £50. 9 Geo. II. c. 23. No licensed retailer shall have any share in a distillery or rectifying house, or be concerned in such trade, on pain of £200. 26 Geo. III. c. 73.

Hawkers of spirituous liquors in the streets, &c., are liable to a forfeiture of £10. 9 Geo. II. c. 23. 11 Geo. II. c. 26. Persons giving away spirituous liquors, or paying wages in them, shall be deemed retailers. 9 Geo. II. c. 23. Keepers of gaols, workhouses, &c., selling spirituous liquors, or knowingly suffering them to be sold, except such as are prescribed by a physician, surgeon, or apothecary, forfeit for the first offence £100, and for the second their office. Persons bringing any such liquors into any place of that kind may be apprehended, and on conviction committed to the house of correction, or prison, for any time not exceeding three months, unless they immediately pay a fine, not exceeding £20, nor less than £10. Debts for spirituous liquors cannot be recovered, unless they have been contracted, or the liquors delivered at one time to the value of 20s. or upwards: and distillers knowingly selling or delivering distilled liquors to unlicensed retailers, forfeit £10, and treble their value; and the retailer, convicting the distiller, is entitled to a share of the penalty, and is himself indemnified. Persons riotously reseuing offenders, or assaulting informers, and their aiders or abettors, are guilty of felony, and liable to seven years' transportation. 24 Geo. II. c. 40. If any person shall obstruct any officer in the execution of his duty, in relation to this act, he shall forfeit £200. 23 Geo. III. c. 81. No liquor exceeding one gallon shall be removed without a permit. 6 Geo. I. c. 21. British spirits made from corn are allowed on exportation as merchandise, a bounty or drawback of £3. 12s. per ton. 5 Geo. III. c. 5; 27 Geo. III. c. 13. And by 6 Geo. II. c. 17. for spirits drawn from British corn, a drawback was to be allowed at the port of shipping, of £4. 18s. per ton, in full of all drawbacks: and by 23 Geo. II. c. 9, there was to be an additional drawback of £24. 10s. a ton, on all British-made spirits exported; provided that they are not exported in casks containing less than 100 gallons, and in vessels of less burden than 100 tons, except to Africa and Newfoundland, whither they may be exported in any vessels not less than seventy tons. 6 Geo. III. c. 46. The 43 Geo. III. c. 69, which con-



solidates the duties, &c., of excise, continues all advances, bounties, and drawbacks, which are particularly directed to be made by any act or acts of parliament in force, on or immediately before the 5th of July, 1803, except so far as such allowances may be varied or repealed by the same act. By 39 and 40 Geo. III. c. 73, spirits distilled in England for exportation to Scotland, are exempted from the excise duties in England. And by 43 Geo. III. c. 69, for every gallon, English wine measure, of spirits, not exceeding in strength that of one to ten over hydrometer proof, and so in proportion for any higher degree of strength, made in England and thence imported into Scotland, payment is to be made by the importer before landing, of 4s.; and by c. 81, an additional duty of 2s.: for every such gallon manufactured in Scotland and brought from thence into England, 5s. 0½d.; and by c. 81, an additional duty of 2s. 5d. For every gallon of such spirits of greater strength than one to ten over hydrometer proof, and not exceeding £3 per cent. over and above one to ten over hydrometer proof, 7s. 5½d. and a surcharge. And all duties and drawbacks under these acts shall be proportionate to the actual quantity. No spirits shall be sent from Scotland to England, or from England to Scotland, by land, or in vessels of less than seventy tons burden, or in casks containing less than 100 gallons, on forfeiture of the same, together with casks or package. And if any distiller, rectifier, compounder, or dealer in spirits, or servant belonging to any such person, shall obstruct an officer in the execution of this act, he shall forfeit £200. Vide laws relating to distillation under GENEVA, WHISKEY, BRANDY, and RUM. See also HYDROMETER.

**DISTINCT**, *adj.* } Fr. *distinct*; Italian,  
**DISTINCTION**, *n. s.* } Portug. and Span. *distinto*;  
**DISTINCTIVE**, *adj.* } Lat. *distinctus*,  
**DISTINCTIVELY**, *adv.* } from *distinguo*, *dis*, and  
**DISTINCTLY**, *adv.* } Gr. *τελειω*, to mark or  
**DISTINCTNESS**, *n. s.* } prick for distinction;  
 marked out in any way; different in kind, degree, or number; separate: distinction is the act or art of discerning a difference, as well as the thing that notes it; and the honor or difference of state resulting. Distinctive is that which marks a difference, or having power to do so: distinctively and distinctly, clearly without confusion of differences. Distinctness, more intense or accurate distinction.

For the things that ben withouten the soule ghyeth voicis, eithir pipe, eithir harpe, but the ghyuen *distincuous* of sownyngis hou schal it be knowun that is sungun eithir that that is trumpid?

Wiclif. 1 Cor. 13.

The mixture of those things by speech, which by nature are divided, is the mother of all error: to take away therefore that error, which confusion breedeth, *distinction* is requisite.

Hooker.

I did all my pilgrimage dilate,  
 Whereof by parcels she had something heard,  
 But not *distinctively*.  
 Shakespeare. Othello.

This fierce abridgment  
 Hath to it circumstantial branches, which  
*Distinction* should be rich in.  
 Id. Cymbeline.

Lawfulness cannot be handled without limit and *distinctions*.  
 Bacon's Holy

Credulous and vulgar auditors readily believe and the more judicious and *distinctive* heads reject it.  
 Bp.

Heaven is high,

High and remote, to see from thence *distinct*  
 Each thing on earth.  
 A

Tempestuous fell

His arrows from the fourfold-visaged fow,  
*Distinct* with eyes; and from the living woe  
*Distinct* alike with multitude of eyes.

If by the church they mean the common saints only; though the persons of men be yet because their *distinctive* cognizance is in they can never see their guide; and therefore can never know whether they go right or wrong.  
 Bp. T.

The intention was, that the two armies, marched out together, should afterwards be *distinct*.  
 Clarendon.

Maids, women, wives, without *distinction* fall  
 The sweeping deluge, love, comes on, and ev'ry  
 D

The object I could first *distinctly* view,  
 Was tall straight trees, which on the water

The membranes and humours of the eye perfectly pellucid, and void of colour, for the *distinctness*, of vision.  
 Ray on Creation.

Fatherhood and property are *distinct* titles, began presently, upon Adam's death, to be in persons.

This will puzzle all your logick and *distinct* answer it.  
 Denham's

On its sides it was bounded pretty *distinctly* its ends very confusedly and indistinctly.  
 Newton's

In story-telling, besides the marking *distinct* ters, and selecting pertinent circumstances, it is wise necessary to leave off in time and end.

For from the natal hour, *distinctness* nam  
 One common right the great and lowly did  
 Pope's

Some young men of *distinction* are found through Europe, with no other intent, than understanding, and collecting pictures, &c.  
 t

There is too much reason to apprehend custom of pleading for any client, without nation of right or wrong, must lessen the to those important *distinctions*, and deaden sensibility of the heart.

The painter, on the other hand, can through illumination and *distinctness* on the principle or catastrophe of the action; besides that he has in using a universal language which read in an instant of time.

I used then to say, and I say so still, office of a bishop respectable by giving *distinction* to its possessor, in order that his ex have more weight with both the laity and  
 B

**DISTINGUISH**, *v. a. & v. n.* } Fr. *distinguer*  
**DISTINGUISHABLE**, *adj.* } Span. *distinguir*  
**DISTINGUISHED**, *part. adj.* } *distinguido*  
**DISTINGUISHER**, *n. s.* } and  
**DISTINGUISHINGLY**, *adv.* } *distintivamente*  
**DISTINGUISHMENT**, *n. s.* } *distintion*  
 diversity; to specify; to know by some



ge; and hence to honor: as a neuter distinction. Distinguishable is being distinguished; honorable. Distinguish, accurately; or with some mark of distinction seems synonymous with

*distinguish*, is, by conceit of the mind, to discern in nature, and to discern wherein  
Hooker.  
not yet been seen in any house,  
be distinguished, by our faces,  
master.

Shakespeare. *Taming of the Shrew*.  
re the wisdom of God in this distinguisher  
visible deity, the sun.

Browne's *Vulgar Errors*.  
stent, they left a race behind  
themselves, distinguishable scarce  
antiles, but by circumcision vain.

Milton.  
of the soul, as it relates to perception and  
choice and pursuit, or aversion, is distin-  
Hale's *Origin of Mankind*.

lived in aqueous juices, it is by the eye  
from the solvent body. Boyle.

distinguishing where things should be dis-  
d the not confounding where things  
founded, is the cause of all the mistakes  
Selden.

just to the memory of Charles II., they  
him to have been an exact knower of  
a perfect distinguisher of their talents.  
Dryden.

e, by our senses, to know and distinguish  
to examine them so far as to apply them  
and several ways to accommodate the  
this life. Locke.

Epistles contain nothing but points of  
struction, amongst which he seldom fails  
the great and distinguishing doctrines of  
igion. Id.

re that in leaving all established opinions  
g the truth; and by what criterion shall  
er, even if fortune should at last guide  
steps?

Hume on *Human Understanding*.  
guishing part of our constitution is its

Burke.  
nguishes the causes of the flood into those  
the heavens, and those that belong to  
e rains, and the abyss.

Burnet's *Theory*.  
adeavour that my betters should seek me  
of something distinguishable, instead of  
hem. Swift.

sider as a singular and unavoidable man-  
or saying any thing peculiar and natural  
nly, by which his speech and actions are  
from those of other men. Congreve.

evolve that roll with strictest eye,  
fe from time, distinguished actions lie.

Prior.  
corrections upon the searchers' reports, I  
hether any credit at all were to be given  
guishments.

Graunt's *Bills of Mortality*.  
committed, with many aggravations of  
nace of wrath will be seven times hotter,  
th a distinguished fury. Rogers.

me a Tory, because the heads of that  
seu distinguishably favourable to me.

Pope.

Never on man did heavenly favour shine  
With rays so strong, distinguished, and divine.

Id. *Odyssey*.

The question is, whether you distinguish me, because  
you have better sense than other people, or whether  
you seem to have better sense than other people, be-  
cause you distinguish me. Shenstone.

DISTORT, *v. a.* } Lat. *distortus*, from *dis*  
DISTORTION, *n. s.* } and *torqueo*, *tortus*, to  
turn. To make crooked; twist; writhe; deform:  
often used figuratively.

Something must be distorted beside the intent of the  
divine inditer. Peacham on *Poetry*.

With fear and pain

Distorted, all my nether shape thus grew

Transformed. Milton.

Wrath and malice, envy and revenge, do darken  
and distort the understandings of men. Tillotson.

By his distortions he reveals his pains;

He by his tears and by his sighs complains.

Prior.

In England we see people lulled asleep with solid  
and elaborate discourses of piety, who would be  
warmed and transported out of themselves by the bel-  
lowings and distortions of enthusiasm.

Addison's *Spectator*.

Now mortal pangs distort his lovely form. Smith.

Here cross-legged nobles in rich state shall dine,  
There, in bright mail, distorted heroes shine. Gay.

For gold, his sword the hireling ruffian draws;  
For gold, the hireling judge distorts the laws.

Johnson. *Vanity of Human Wishes*.

We prove its use

Sovereign and most effectual to secure

A form, not now gymnastic as of yore,

From rickets and distortion, else our lot.

Couper.

DISTRACT, *v. a. & adj.* } Fr. *distraire*;

DISTRACT'EDLY, *adv.* } Ital. *distrare*;

DISTRACT'EDNESS, *n. s.* } Span. *distrahar*,

DISTRAC'TION, } from Lat. *dis*, di-

DISTRAC'TIVE, *adj.* } versely, and tra-

DISTRAUGHT, *part. adj.* } ho; Gr. *δρασσω*,

to draw. To draw several ways at once: to per-  
plex the mind; to harass; vex; make mad.  
Distraction and distractedness are synonymous.  
Distractive is causing perplexity. Distracted  
is distracted.

While I suffer thy terrors I am distracted. Psalm.

By sea, by sea.

—Most worthy Sir, you therein throw away

The absolute soldiership you have by land;

Distract your army, which doth most consist

Of war-marked footmen.

Shakespeare. *Antony and Cleopatra*.

Better I were distract,

So should my thoughts be severed from my griefs;

And woes, by wrong imagination, lose

The knowledge of themselves. Id. *King Lear*.

Come, cousin, canst thou quake, and change thy  
colour,

Murder thy breath in middle of a word

And then again begin, and stop again,

As if thou wert distraught and mad with terror?

Id. *Richard III*.

Methought her eyes had crossed her tongue;

For she did speak in starts distractedly.

Id. *Twelfth Night*.



She was unable in strength of mind to bear the grief of his disease, and fell *distracted* of her wits.

Bacon.

The needle endeavours to conform unto the meridian; but being *distracted*, driveth that way where the greater and powerfuller part of the earth is placed.

Broune's *Vulgar Errors*.

He had been a good military man in his days, but was then *distracted* of his wits.

Camd. Rem.

It would burst forth; but I recover breath; And sense *distract* to know well what I utter.

Milton's *Agonistes*.

The two armies lay quiet near each other without improving the confusion and *distract*ion which the king's forces were too much inclined to.

Clarendon.

Idleness is but the devil's home for temptation, and for unprofitable *distracting* musings.

Baxter.

Never was known a night of such *distract*ion, Noise so confused and dreadful! jostling crowds, That run and knew not whither.

Dryd. Span. Fr.

Oft grown unmindful through *distractive* cares, I've stretched my arms, and touched him unawares.

Dryden.

If he cannot wholly avoid the eye of the observer, he hopes to *distract* it by a multiplicity of the object.

South.

You shall find a *distracted* man fancy himself a king, and with a right inference require suitable attendance, respect, and obedience.

Locke.

So to mad Pentheus double Thebes appears,

And furies howl in his distempered ears;

Orestes so, with like *distract*ion tost,

Is made to fly his mother's angry ghost.

Waller.

What may we not hope from him in a time of quiet and tranquillity, since, during the late *distract*ions, he has done so much for the advantage of our trade?

Addison's *Freeholder*.

Commiserate all those who labour under a settled *distract*ion, and who are shut out from all the pleasures and advantages of human commerce.

Atterbury.

This quiet sail is as a noiseless wing To waft me from *distract*ion; once I loved Torn ocean's roar, but thy soft murmuring Sounds sweet as if a sister's voice reproved, That I with stern delights should e'er have been so moved.

Byron's *Childe Harold*.

DISTRAIN' v. a. & n. } Fr. *destraindre*;

DISTRAIN'ER, n. s. } Ital. and Lat. *dis-*

DISTRAINT', n. s. } *stringere*; *dis*, exple-

tive, and *stringo*, to gripe. To lay hold of by law. See the article.

Here's Beauford, that regards not God nor king, Rath here *distrained* the Tower to his use.

Shakespeare.

The earl answered, I will not lend money to my superior, upon whom I cannot *distrain* for the debt.

Camden's *Remains*.

Blood, his rent to have regained

Upon the British diadem *distrained*.

Marvel.

DISTRAIN, or DISTREIN, in law, is to attach, or seize on one's goods, for the satisfaction of a debt. It is the mode of levying a *distress*. See the following article.

DISTRESS, v. a. & n. s. } Fr. *détresse*; It.

DISTRESS'FUL, adj. } *distrezza*; from

Lat. *districcio*, *distringo*; to press hard; hence, *distress*, because a person in *distress* is pressed by his affairs. To seize by law; to harass; crush by affliction; make unhappy.

We are troubled on every side, yet not *distrained*. Bible. 2 Cor. ix. 1.

O flesh they ben, and o flesh, as I gear, Hath but on herte in wele and in *distrain*.

Chaucer. *Can. Tale*.

He would first demand his debt; and, if he were not paid, he would straight go and take a *distress* of goods and cattle, where he could find them, to the value.

Spenser.

There can I sit alone, unseen of any, And to the nightingale's complaining note Tune my *distresses*, and record my woes.

Shakspeare.

I often did beguile her of her tears, When I did speak of some *distressful* stroke That my youth suffered.

Id. *Idylls*.

They were not ashamed—to come to me for monies and monthly payments for that estate which they had taken; and took *distresses* from me upon my most just denial.

Bp. Hall's *Hard Measure*.

Quoth she, some say the soul's secure Against *distress* and forfeiture.

Hudibras.

People in affliction or *distress* cannot be hard by generous minds.

Clarendon.

The ewes still folded, with distended thigh, Unmilked, lay bleating in *distressful* cry.

Pope's *Ode*.

And such is the fate of hapless lexicography, that not only darkness, but light, impedes and *distrains* it; things may be not only too little, but not well known, to be happily illustrated.

Johnson. *Preface to Dictionary*.

Ah! then and there was hurrying to and fro, And gathering tears, and tremblings of distress, And cheeks all pale, which but an hour ago Blushed at the praise of their own loveliness.

Byron.

DISTRESS, DISTRICTIO, is the taking of a personal chattel out of the possession of the wrongdoer, into the custody of the party injured, to procure a satisfaction for the wrong committed. The term *distress* is also, in our law books, applied to the thing taken by this process, as well as to the process itself. The most usual injury for which a *distress* may be taken is that of non-payment of rents. See RENT.

It is held as a universal principle, that a *distress* may be taken for any kind of rent in arrears, the detaining of which beyond the day of payment is an injury to him that is entitled to receive it. Likewise, for neglecting to do suit to the lord's court, or other certain personal service, (Co. Litt. 46,) the lord may *distrain*, of common right. Also, for amercements in a court, a *distress* may be had of common right; but not for amercements in a court-baron, without special prescription to warrant it, (Brownl. 3.) Another injury for which *distresses* may be taken is where a man finds beasts of a stranger wandering in his grounds, damage-feasant; that doing him hurt or damage, by treading down grass, or the like; in which case the owner of the soil may *distrain* them till satisfaction be made him for the injury sustained. Lastly, for several duties and penalties inflicted by special acts of parliament, as for assessments made by commissioners of sewers, stat. 7 Ann. c. 10, or for relief of the poor, stat. 43 Eliz. c. 2, remedy by *distress* and sale is given; with regard to which



may be observed, that such distresses are by analogy to the ancient distress at common law, as being repleviable and the like (4 r. 589); but more resembling the common process of execution, by seizing and selling goods of the debtor under a writ of *Fieri facias*, which see.

By stat. 56 Geo. 3, c. 88, § 16, 17, tenants in Ireland having paid rent to their immediate landlord, if distrained by the superior landlord, may recover damages against their immediate landlord, and retain them out of the future rent. By this act, as amended by 58 Geo. 3, c. 39, the powers of distress on corn, &c., now being (given in England by stat. 11 Geo. II, c. 19) are extended to Ireland; and other provisions are made for the recovery of tenements, mesne abscinding, overholding, and defaulting tenants.

With respect to the things which may be distrained, or taken in distress, it may be laid down as a general rule, that all chattels personal are liable to be distrained, unless particularly provided or exempted. Instead, therefore, of mentioning the things that are distrainable, it will be easier to recount the things which are not distrainable, with the reason of their particular exemptions.

Litt. 47). Every thing which is distrained is presumed to be the property of the wrong-doer: it follows, therefore, that such things, in which a man can have an absolute and valuable property, as dogs, cats, rabbits, and all animals feræ nature, cannot be distrained. But if deer, which are of a tame nature, are kept in a private enclosure for the purpose of sale or profit, this circumstance reduces them to a kind of stock or merchandise, that they may be distrained for rent. Moreover, whatever is in the personal use or occupation of any man is, for the time, privileged and protected from any distress; as an axe with which a man is cutting wood, or a horse while a man is riding him. But horses drawing a cart, and also the cart, may be distrained for arrears, if a man be not upon the cart (1 r. 36): and it hath been said, that if a horse, while a man be riding him, be taken damageant, or trespassing in another's ground, the horse may be distrained and led away to the pound. (1 Sid. 440.) However, the authorities on this point being collected together in Hargr.

Litt. 47, the clear result of them is, that a distress is illegal. Again, valuable things in the way of trade shall not be liable to distress; as a horse standing in a smith's shop to be shod, or a common inn; or cloth at a tailor's house; or corn sent to a mill or market. All these are exempted or privileged for the benefit of trade; and are supposed in common presumption not to belong to the owner of the house, but to his tenants. But, generally speaking, whatever is and chattels the landlord finds upon the premises, whither they, in fact, belong to the tenant or a stranger, are distrainable by him for rent; for otherwise a door would be open to infinite frauds upon the landlord; and the stranger has no remedy by action on the case against the tenant, if by the tenant's default the chattels are distrained, so that he cannot render them when demanded upon. With regard to a stranger's beasts

which are found on the tenant's land, the following distinctions are taken. If they are put in by consent of the owner of the beasts, they are distrainable immediately afterwards for rent arrears by the landlord. (Cro. Eliz. 549.) So also if the stranger's cattle break the fences, and commit a trespass by coming on the land, they are distrainable immediately by the lessor for his tenant's rent, as a punishment to the owner of the beasts for the wrong committed through his negligence. (Co. Litt. 47.) But if the lands were not sufficiently fenced so as to keep out cattle, the landlord cannot, generally, distrain them, till they have been levant and couchant on the land; that is, have been long enough there to have lain down and rose up to feed; which, in general, is held to be one night at least; and then the law presumes, that the owner may have notice whither his cattle have strayed, and it is his own neglect not to have taken them away. There are also other things privileged by the ancient common law; as a man's tools and utensils of his trade, the axe of a carpenter, the books of a scholar, and the like; which are said to be privileged for the sake of the public, because the taking of them away would disable the owner from serving the commonwealth in his station. So, beasts of the plough, *averia earumque*, and sheep, are privileged from distresses at common law (stat. 51 Hen. III. c. 4): while dead goods, or other sort of beasts, which Bracton calls *catalla otiosa*, may be distrained. But, as beasts of the plough may be taken in execution for debt, so they may be for distresses by statute, which partake of the nature of executions. (4 Burr. 589.) And, perhaps, the true reason, why these and the tools of a man's trade were privileged at the common law, was, because the distress was then merely intended to compel the payment of the rent, and not as a satisfaction for the non-payment; and, therefore, to deprive the party of the instruments and means of paying it, would counteract the very end of the distress (4 Burr. 588). Moreover, nothing shall be distrained for rent, which may not be rendered again in as good a plight as when it was distrained; for which reason milk, fruit, and the like, cannot be distrained; a distress at common law being only in the nature of a pledge or security, to be restored in the same plight when the debt is paid. So, anciently, sheaves or stacks of corn could not be distrained; because some damage must needs accrue in their removal; but a cart loaded with corn might; as that could be safely restored. But now by statute 2 W. & M. c. 5, corn in sheaves or cocks, or loose in the straw, or hay in barns or ricks, or otherwise, may be distrained, as well as other chattels. Lastly, things fixed to the freehold may not be distrained, as caldrons, windows, doors, and chimney pieces; for they savour of the realty. For this reason also corn growing could not be distrained; till the statute of 11 Geo. II. c. 19, empowered landlords to distrain corn, hops, grass, or other products of the earth, and to cut and gather them when ripe. The goods of a carrier are privileged, and cannot be distrained for rent, though the waggon containing them is put into the barn of a house, or on the road. (1 Salk. 249.) But the goods of



a third person, found on the premises, may be distrained by the collector of the house and window tax, for arrears under 43 Geo. III. c. 161, though the goods are only borrowed and the person in arrear has other goods of his own on the premises sufficient to satisfy the arrears. 1 Maid. and Sel. Rep. 601.

ii. We enquire next *how* distresses may be taken, disposed of, or avoided. The law of distresses, says Blackstone, is greatly altered in late years. Formerly they were regarded as a mere pledge or security for payment of rent or other duties, or satisfaction for damage done. And so the law continues with regard to distresses of beasts taken damage-feasant, and for other causes, not altered by act of parliament; over which the distrainer has no other power than to retain them till satisfaction is made. But distresses for rent-arrears being found by the legislature to be the shortest and most effectual method of compelling the payment of such rent, many beneficial laws for this purpose have been made in the last century; which have much altered the common law, as laid down by our ancient writers. In discussing this part of the subject, it will be supposed that the distress is made for rent; and the differences between such distress, and that taken for other causes, will be specified. All distresses must be made by day, unless in the case of damage-feasant; an exception being made in this case, lest the beasts should escape before they are taken. (Co. Litt. 142). When a person intends to make a distress, he must, by himself or his bailiff, enter on the demised premises; formerly during the continuance of the lease, but now (stat. 8 Ann. c. 14), if the tenant holds over, the landlord may distrain within six months after the determination of the lease; provided his own title or interest, as well as the tenant's possession, continue at the time of the distress. If the lessor does not find sufficient distress on the premises, formerly he could not resort any where else; and therefore, knavish tenants made a practice to convey away their goods and stock, fraudulently, from the house or lands demised, in order to cheat their landlords. But now (stat. 8 Ann. c. 14. 11 Geo. II. c. 19), the landlord may distrain any goods of his tenant, carried clandestinely off the premises, wherever he finds them within thirty days after, unless they have been bona fide sold for a valuable consideration; and all persons privy to, or assisting in such fraudulent conveyance, forfeit double the value to the landlord. The landlord may also distrain the beasts of his tenant, feeding upon any commons or wastes, appendant or appurtenant to the demised premises. The landlord might not formerly break open a house, to make a distress, for that is a breach of the peace. But when he was in the house, it was held, that he might break open an inner door (Co. Litt. 16. Comberb. 17); and now (stat. 11 Geo. II. c. 19) he may, by the assistance of the peace officers of the parish, break open, in the day-time, any place whither the goods have been fraudulently removed, and locked up to prevent a distress; oath being first made, in case it be a dwelling-house, of a reasonable ground to suspect that such goods are concealed in it. Where a man is en-

titled to distrain for an entire duty, he may to distrain for the whole at once; and not in part at one time, and part at another. (7 Linn. 1532). But if he distrains for the whole, and there is not sufficient on the premises, or he happens to mistake in the value of the thing distrained, and so takes an insufficient distress, he may take a second distress to complete his remedy. (Cro. Eliz. 13. stat. 17; Car. II. c. 7. 4 Burr 590). Distresses must be proportioned to the thing distrained for. By the statute of Marlbridge, 52 Hen. III. c. 4, if any man take a great or unreasonable distress, for rent-arrears, he shall be heavily amerced for the same. (Ord. 11 Inst. 107.) the landlord distrains two oxen for twelve-pence rent; the taking of both is an unreasonable distress; but if there were no other distress near the value to be found, he might reasonably have distrained one of them; but for homage, fealty, or suit and service, as also for parsonage wages, it is said that no distress can be excessive. (Bro. Abr. tit. Assise. 291; Prentice 98.) For as these distresses cannot be sold, the owner, upon making satisfaction, may have his chattels again. The remedy for excessive distresses is by a special action on the statute of Marlbridge; for an action of trespass is not maintainable upon this account, it being no injury at the common law.

iii. When the distress is taken, the next object of consideration is the disposal of it. For which purpose the things distrained must in the first place be carried to some pound, and there impounded by the taker. But in their way thither, they may be rescued by the owner, in case the distress was taken without cause, or contrary to law: as if no rent be due; if they were taken upon the highway, or the like; in these cases the tenant may lawfully make rescue. (Co. Litt. 160, 161). But if they be once impounded, even though taken without any cause, the owner may not break the pound and take them out; he they are then in custody of the law. (Co. Litt. 47). When impounded, the goods were formerly sold in the nature of a pledge or security to compel the performance of satisfaction; and upon this account it has been held (Cro. Jac. 148) that the distrainer is not at liberty to work or use a distrained beast. And thus the law still continues with regard to beasts taken damage-feasant, and distresses for suit or services; which must remain impounded till the owner makes satisfaction; or costs the right of distraining by replevying the chattel. This kind of distress, though it puts the owner to inconvenience, and is therefore a punishment to him, yet, if he continues obstinate and will have no satisfaction or payment, it is no remedy to the distrainer. But for a debt due to the crown, unless paid within forty days, the distress was always saleable at common law. (Bro. tit. Distress. 71). And for an amercement in court-leet, the lord may also sell the distress (Bro. 41); partly because, being the king's of record, its process partakes of the royal prerogative (Bro. ubi. supra. 12 Mod. 336); but principally, because it is in the nature of an execution to levy a legal debt. And so in the several tute-distresses already mentioned, which are in the nature of executions; the power of sale



ally given, to effectuate and complete it. And in like manner, by several Statute (2 W. & M. c. 5., 8 Ann. c. II. c. 28, 11 Geo. II. c. 19), in all distress for rent, if the tenant or owner within five days after the distress is taken, of the cause thereof given to him, the same with sufficient security, the distress the sheriff or constable, shall cause to be appraised by two sworn appraisers, the same towards satisfaction of the rent; rendering the overplus, if any, to himself. And, by these means, a full satisfaction may now be had for rent by the mere act of the party himself, the distress, the remedy given at common law consequent thereon, which is added to the Statute. If any distress and sale made, for rent in arrear and due, when due, the owner shall recover double full costs. 2 W. Sess. 1 c. 5. If a distress was formerly reckoned as proceeding, on account of the many that attended it: for if any irregularity attended, it vitiated the whole, and made the trespassers ab initio (1 Vent. 37). By the statute 11 Geo. II. c. 19, it is that for any unlawful act done, the act is not unlawful, or the parties trespassers; but that the party grieved shall have an action for the real damage sustained; and that, if tender of amends is made, an action is brought. *Blackst. Comm.*

**PERSONAL**, is made by distraining moveable goods, and seizing the profits and tenements, from the teste, or writ, for the defendant's contempt in not appearing to an action brought against him, or being summoned, or attached; and the goods, or profits, are forfeited to the sheriff, and are returned into the exchequer.

**REAL**, is made on immoveable goods, by an attachment in this, that the party, or any common person, with the assent of his own fee; except it be for the cattle, or other things are taken off the ground, on purpose to distress.

Distress has been termed either finite or infinite. **Finite**, is that which is limited by law, or the number of times it shall be allowed to bring the party to a trial of the distress. **Infinite**, is that which is without limit, on being made till the person appears, or farther applied to jurors that do not appear upon a certificate of assise, the process facias, habeas corpora, and distress is also divided into grand distress and petty distress: of these the former extends to lands and chattels that the party has in county. A person, of common right, is liable for rents and all manner of services; and the rent is reserved on a gift in tail, for years, &c., though there be no distress in the grant or lease, so as that the reversion: but on a feoffment made in fee, it may not be taken, unless it be expressed in the deed.

**DISTRIBUTE**, *v. a.* } *Fr. distribuer*; *Ital.*  
**DISTRIB'UTER**, *n. s.* } and *Span. distribuer*; *Lat. distribuere*; *dis*, diversely,  
**DISTRIBU'TION**, *adj.* } and *tribuo*, to bestow.  
**DISTRIB'UTIVE**, *adj.* } To divide among several; to deal forth; dispense. Distributer is, he who deals out; and distribution, the act of distributing; hence charity. Distributive, that which assigns the due portions of things. Distributively, proportionally; singly; particularly.

She did distribute her goods to all them that were nearest of kindred. *Judith* xvi. 24.

The king sent over a great store of gentlemen and warlike people, amongst whom he distributed the land. *Spenser.*

Although we cannot be free from all sin collectively, in such sort that no part thereof shall be found inherent in us; yet, distributively at the least, all great and grievous actual offences, as they offer themselves one by one, both may and ought to be by all means avoided. *Hooker.*

The spoil got on the Antiates

Was not distributed. *Shakespeare. Coriolanus.*

Of great riches there is no real use, except it be in the distribution. *Bacon's Essays.*

If Justice will take all, and nothing give,  
Justice methinks is not distributive. *Dryden.*

Observe the distributive justice of the authors, which is constantly applied to the punishment of virtue, and the reward of vice, directly opposite to the rules of their best critics. *Swift.*

There were judges and distributors of justice appointed for the several parts of his dominions. *Addison on Italy.*

Let us govern our charitable distributions by this pattern of nature, and maintain a mutual circulation of benefits and returns. *Atterbury.*

As an integral whole is distinguished into its several parts by division, so the word distribution is most properly used, when we distinguish a universal whole into its several kinds of species. *Watts.*

There remains yet to be considered the distribution of words into their proper classes, or that part of lexicography which is strictly critical. *Johnson.*

The Latin language, long the vehicle used in distributing knowledge among the different nations of Europe, is daily more and more neglected. *Franklin.*

**DISTRIBUTION**, in printing, the taking a form asunder, separating the types, and disposing them in the cases again, each in its proper cell. See **PRINTING**.

**DISTRICT**, *n. s.* *Fr. district*; *Ital. distretto*; *Span. distrito*; *Lat. districtus*, from *distringo*, to bind, as with limits. The limit, or circuit, of a given authority: hence, a region, country, or portion of a country.

His governors, who formed themselves upon the example of their grand monarch, practised all the arts of despotick government in their respective districts. *Addison.*

With stern distate avowed,  
To their own districts drive the suitor crowd. *Pope.*

Those districts which between the tropics lie,  
The scorching beams, directly darted, fry. *Blackmore.*

**DISTRINGAS**, in English law, a writ directed to the sheriff, or other officer, commanding him



to distrain for a debt to the king; or for his appearance at a certain day. There is a *distringas* against peers, and persons entitled to privilege of parliament, under statute 10 Geo. III., cap. 50; by which the effects, in law called issues, levied may be sold to pay the plaintiff's cost, and it has been held that this statute extends to all writs of *distringas*. In detinue, after judgment, the plaintiff may have a *distringas* to compel the defendant to deliver the goods by repeated distresses of his chattels. See *DISTRESS*, *EXECUTION*, and *PARLIAMENT*.

*DISTRINGAS JURATORES*, a writ directed to a sheriff, whereby he is commanded to distrain upon a jury to appear and to return issues on their lands, &c. for non-appearance. Where an issue in fact is joined to be tried by a jury, which is retained by the sheriff in a pannel upon a *venire facias* for that purpose; there goes forth a writ of *distringas juratores*, for the sheriff to have their bodies in court, &c. at the return of the writ. This writ ought to be delivered to the sheriff in such time, that he may warn the jury to appear four days before the writ is returnable, if the jurors live within forty miles of the place of trial; and eight days if they live farther off. There may be an alias, or pluries *distringas jur*, where the jury doth not appear. See *JURY*, and *TRIAL*.

*DISTRUST*, *v. a. & n. s.* } *Dis* and *trust*.  
*DISTRUSTFUL*, *adj.* } To regard with  
*DISTRUSTFULLY*, *adv.* } diffidence or sus-  
*DISTRUSTFULNESS*. } picion; not to  
 trust.

He sheweth himself unto such as do not *distrust* him.  
*Wisdom.*

To me reproach  
 Rather belongs, *distrust*, and all dispraise.  
*Milton.*

Common swearing, if it have any serious meaning at all, argues in man a perpetual *distrust* of his own reputation, and is an acknowledgment that he thinks his bare word not to be worthy of credit.  
*Tillotson.*

You doubt not me; nor have I spent my blood,  
 To have my faith no better understood:  
 Your soul's above the baseness of *distrust*;  
 Nothing but love could make you so unjust.  
*Dryden.*

Generals often harbour *distrustful* thoughts in their breasts.  
*Boyle.*

How frequently is the honesty and integrity of a man disposed of, by a smile or a shrug;—how many good and generous actions have been sunk into oblivion by a *distrustful* look, or stamp with the imputation of proceeding from bad motives, by a mysterious and seasonable whisper.  
*Sterne.*

*DISTURB*, *v. a. & n. s.* } Span. *disturbar*;  
*DISTURBANCE*, *n. s.* } Ital. and Lat. *dis-*  
*DISTURBER*, } *turbare*, from *dis-*  
*DISTURBED*, *part. adj.* } *ruptive*, and *tur-*  
 bo to disorder, a *turba* a crowd. To perplex;  
 disquiet; confound; interrupt; turn off attention,  
 or aim. Milton uses *disturb* as a substantive for  
 confusion or tumult, or synonymous with dis-  
 turbance.

And thei seyng him walkinge on the see weren  
*disturbid* and seiden that it is a fantum.

*Wiclif. Matt. 14.*

He stands in the sight both of God and a  
 justly blameable, as a needless *disturber* of the  
 God's church, and an author of dissensions.

Where love reigns, *disturbing* jealousy  
 Doth call himself affliction's sentinel,  
 Gives false alarms, suggesteth motley,  
 And in a peaceful hour doth cry, kill! kill!  
*Shak.*

Instant without *disturb* they took alarm  
 And onward move embattled.

This mischief had not then befallen,  
 And more that shall befall: innumerable  
*Disturbances* on earth through female sin.

He that has his own troubles, and the happy  
 his neighbours, to *disturb* him, has work enough.  
*Collier on*

His youth with wants and hardships must  
 Plots and rebellions must *disturb* his age.

Ye great *disturbers*, who in endless noise,  
 In blood and horror, seek unnatural joys:  
 For what is all this bustle, but to shun  
 Those thoughts with which you dare not be  
*Gra.*

They can survey a variety of complicated  
 without fatigue or *disturbance*.

Thrice round the grave Circe prints her toe  
 And chaunts the numbers which *disturb* the dead.  
*B.*

*DISTURN*, *v. a.* *Dis* and *turn*. To  
 off; turn aside. Not in use.

He glad was to *disturn* that furious stress  
 Of war on us, that else had swallowed the

*DISVAL'UE*, *v. a.* } *Dis* and *val*  
*DISVALUATION*, *n. s.* } estimate below  
 disgrace: diminution of reputation.

What can be more to the *disvaluation* of the  
 of the Spaniard, than that eleven thousand  
 should have marched into the heart of his country.

Her reputation was *disvalued*  
 In levity. *Shakspeare. Measure for Measure.*

The very same pride which prompts a man  
 and overvalue what he is, does as forcibly  
 him to contemn and *disvalue* what he has.  
*Government of the*

*DISVELOP*, *v. a.* Fr. *develop*.  
 cover.

*DISUNITE*, *v. a. & n. s.* } *Dis* and  
*DISUNITION*, *n. s.* } To separa-  
*DISUNITY*. } vide; part

While every particular member of the political  
 vides solely for itself, the several joints of  
 politick do separate and *disunite*, and so be  
 able to support the whole.

*Disunity* is the natural property of matter  
 is nothing else but an infinite congeries of  
 monads.

Rest is most opposite to motion, the cause of *disunion*.  
*Glansville's*

*Disunion* of the corporeal principles, and  
 causeth death. *Grew's Cosmology*

The strength of it will join itself to France  
 grow the closer to it by its *disunion* from the  
*Addison on the*

The beast they then divide, and *disunite*  
 The ribs and limbs. *Pope's O*



GE, *n. s.* *Dis* and usage. The  
ation of use or custom.

If presently such things as might be ex-  
isthout danger, leaving the rest to be  
*dinasse* through tract of time.

Hooker.

, *v. a.* & *n. s.* *Dis* and use. To cease  
e of; to disaccustom: with *from* or  
roperly *from*.

now me from the queasy pain  
g beloved and loving.

Donne.

though custom now diverts the course:  
nstitute is yet in force,  
though *dinasse*.

Dryden's *Fables*.

of the tongue is the only effectual re-  
these.

Addison's *Guardian*.

ation upon the lands did not prescribe,  
*dinasse*, but by fifty consecutive years.

Arbuthnot.

CH', *v. a.* *Dis* and vouch. To des-  
dit of; to contradict.

er he hath writ hath *disvouched* another.

Shakespeare.

TED, *adj.* *Dis* and wit. De-  
he wits; mad; distracted. A word

She ran away alone,  
when they heard, there was not one  
ted after to be gone,  
had been *disvited*.

Drayton's *Nymphid*.

. Dutch *dicht*. A ditty; a poem;  
solete.

but did her shrill notes sweetly sing;  
at did contain a lovely dit.

Faerie *Queene*.

ON, *n. s.* Lat. *ditatus*. The act of

ern worshippers intended rather homage  
the blessed virgin comes in the form of  
*Hall's Contemplations*.

*n. s.* & *v. a.*

Gothic,

LIVERED, *part. adj.* } *digue*; Ice.

G, *n. s.* } *diki*; Belg.

} *dijk*. See

verb comes from the noun. Ditcher  
makes ditches: the compounds of  
explain themselves.

e plagues there were seen, in divers ditches  
nds about London, many toads that had  
hes long.

Bacon.

, such as they were, were altogether dry,  
e passed over.

Knolles.

when the foul fend rages, eats cow-dung  
allows the old rat, and the *ditch-dog*.

Shakespeare.

finger of birth-strangled babe,  
sh-delivered by a crab.

Id.

on the wide seas are but narrow ditches,  
d itself too limited for their desires.

Burton.

merit new employments daily,  
atcher, ditcher, gardener, bailly.

Swift.

mployed my time, besides *ditching*, in  
travels.

Id.

ditches swell, the meadows swim.

Thomson.

more pleasure in hearing a man attempt-  
ailing, than in seeing a man trying to  
-A, and tumbling into it.

Johnson.

Up again! for every warrior  
Slain, another climbs the barrier.  
Thicker grows the strife; thy ditches  
Europe's mingling gore enriches.

Byron.

DITCH, in fortification, called also the foss and  
moat, is a trench dug round the rampart, or wall  
of a fortified place, between the scarp and coun-  
terscarp. Ditches are either dry or wet, that is,  
having water in them; both of which have their  
particular advantages. The earth dug out of the  
ditch serves to raise the rampart. The ditch in  
front should be of such breadth as that tall trees  
may not reach over it, being from twelve to  
twenty-four fathoms wide, and seven or eight  
feet deep. But the most general rule is, perhaps,  
that the dimensions of the ditch be such as that  
the earth dug out may be sufficient to build the  
rampart of a proper magnitude.

DITCH is a common fence in marshes, or  
other wet land, where there are no hedges.  
They allow these ditches six feet wide against  
high ways that are broad; and against com-  
mons, five feet. But the common ditches about  
enclosures, dug at the bottom of the bank on  
which the quick is raised, are three feet wide at  
the top, one at the bottom, and two feet deep.  
By this means each side has a slope, which is of  
great advantage; for where this is neglected, and  
the ditches dug perpendicular, the sides are  
always washing down, besides, in a narrow-bot-  
tomed ditch, if cattle get down into it, they  
cannot stand to turn themselves to crop the  
quick: but where the ditch is four feet wide, it  
should be two feet and a half deep; and where  
it is five feet wide, it should be three feet deep;  
and so in proportion.

DITHYRAMBICK, *n. s.* & *adj.* Lat. *dithy-  
rambus*. A song in honor of Bacchus; in which  
among the Italians, the distraction of ebriety is  
still imitated. Wild; distracted.

Pindar does new words and figures roll  
Down his impetuous dithyrambick tide.

Cowley.

DITHYRAMBICS were songs in honor of  
Bacchus, which first gave birth to dramatic rep-  
resentations, and are as ancient as the worship of  
Bacchus in Greece. Many of the most splendid  
exhibitions upon the stage, for the entertainment  
of the people of Athens and Rome, being per-  
formed upon the festivals of Bacchus, gave  
occasion to the calling all those that were em-  
ployed in them, whether for singing, dancing, or  
reciting, servants of Bacchus. The dithyrambus  
owes its birth to Greece, and to the transports of  
wine. Horace and Aristotle tell us, that the  
ancients gave the name of dithyrambus to those  
verses wherein none of the common rules or  
measures were observed. As we have now no  
remains of the dithyrambus of the ancients, we  
cannot exactly tell what their measure was.

DITMARSEN, a district of Holstein, Den-  
mark, separated from Sleswick on the north by  
the Eyder, and from Bremen on the south-west  
by the Elbe; and having Holstein Proper to the  
east, and the German Ocean to the west. It is  
marshy, and frequently inundated: yet by means  
of the internal navigation, a number of tracts  
have been drained, and are highly productive.



Its length is thirty-two miles, and its breadth twenty-seven. The chief towns are Meldorf and Lunden. It is fertile in corn and pasture.

**DITONE**, in music, an interval comprehending two tones. The proportion of the sounds that form the ditone is 4 : 5, and that of the semiditone is 5 : 6.

**DITRIHEDRIA**, in mineralogy, a genus of spars with twice three sides, or six planes; being formed of two trigonal pyramids joined base to base, without any intermediate column. See SPAR. The species of ditrihedria are distinguished by the different figures of these pyramids.

**DITTANDER**, *n. s.* The same with pepperwort. See LEPIDIUM.

**DITTANY**, *n. s.* Lat. *dictamnus*.

*Dittany* hath been renowned, for many ages, upon the account of its sovereign qualities in medicines. It is generally brought over dry from the Levant.

Miller.

Virgil reports of *dittany*, that the wild goats eat it when they are shot with darts.

More's Antidote against Atheism.

**DITTANY**, BASTARD, a species of marrubium.

**DITTANY**, OF CRETE. See ORIGANUM.

**DITTANY**, WHITE. See DICTAMNUS.

**DITTEAH**, a town and fortress of Bundelcund, Hindostan, about a mile and a half long, and nearly as much in breadth. It is populous and well-built; the houses being chiefly of stone, and tiled. It is surrounded by a stone wall and gates. On an eminence, which overlooks a handsome lake, stands the rajah's palace. The surrounding district yields an annual revenue of between £12,000 and £15,000 sterling. This place is mentioned in early history, and the rajah, who is one of the British allies, boasts of its having belonged to his family for several centuries. During the reign of Aurenzebe, Ditteah was the capital of Dhoolput Roy, a Bondelah rajah of some celebrity.

**DITTO**, in books of accounts, usually written Do, signifies the aforementioned. The word is corrupted from the Italian detto, 'the said:' as in our law-phrases, 'the said premises,' meaning the same as were before-mentioned.

**DITTY**, *n. s.* Sax. *tetit*; Swed. *dicht*;

**DITTEL**, *adj.* Germ. and Dutch, *dicht*, from Goth. *tia* to show, or, according to Minsheu, from Lat. *dictum*, a thing said or delivered as an oration. A poem to be sung; a song. Adapted to music.

Although we lay altogether aside the consideration of *ditty* or matter, the very harmony of sounds being framed in due sort, and carried from the ear to the spiritual faculties of our souls, is by a native puissance and efficacy, greatly available to bring to a perfect temper whatsoever is there troubled. Hooker.

Being young, I framed to the harp

Many an English *ditty* lovely well,

And gave the tongue a helpful ornament.

Shakspeare.

Strike the melodious harp, shrill timbrels ring,  
And to the warbling lute soft *ditties* sing. Sandys.

He, with his soft pipe, and smooth *dittied* song,  
Well knows to still the wild winds when they roar.

Milton.

His annual wound in Lebanon, allent  
The Syrian damsels to lament his fate,  
In amorous *ditties*, all a summer's day.

They will be sighing and singing under the  
orable windows lamentable *ditties*, and call the

**DIU**, or **DIVIPA**, THE ISLAND, an island harbour at the southern extremity of the Peninsula, in lat. 20° 43' N., long. 71° E. The island is not above four miles long and broad, but formerly contained a Hindoo temple dedicated to Somnath, celebrated for its sanctity and riches. This was plundered in 1153 by the sultan Mahmood of Ghizni, who sent the spoils to Mecca and Mehmud of Ghazni. Portuguese obtained possession of Diu in 1511, and were allowed by the sultan of Gujarat to fortify it, about twenty years after. It was, however, their establishment was surprised and plundered by the Muscat Arabs, and has dwindled away. The island has a good harbour.

**DIVAL**, in heraldry, the herb used by such as blazon by flowers and leaves instead of colors and metals, for sable and gules.

**DIVALIA**, in Roman antiquity, a festival in honor of the goddess ANGERONA, called ANGERONALIA. See these articles.

**DIVAN**, *n. s.* Arab. *deewan*; Turk. *divan*, probably from Heb. *divan*, to judge. The assembly of Oriental princes: any council assembled.

Forth rushed in haste the great consulting  
Raised from the dark *divan*, and with like  
Congratulant approached him.

Swift to the queen the herald Medon  
Who heard the consult of the dire *divan*.

Pope's

**DIVAN**, a court of justice among the nations, particularly the Turks. The word signifies the same with sofa in the Turkish language. There are two sorts of divans; that of the signior, called the council of state, consists of seven of the principal officers of the empire; and that of the grand vizier, consists of six other viziers, or counsellors of state, a chancellor, and secretaries of state, for the distribution of justice.

**DIVANDUROW**, the name of several islands in the Indian Ocean, three miles north of Maldives, and twenty-four from the Malabar, almost opposite to Cananor.

**DIVARICATE**, *v. a. & v. n.* Lat. *divaricare*.

**DIVARICATION**, *n. s.* The act of dividing into two; to be parted into two bifid. Divarication is, division into two.

To take away all doubt, or any probability, the curse is plainly specified.

Brown's Vulgar

Dogs running before their masters, or divarication of the way, till they see what masters will take.

A slender pipe is produced forward of the throat, whereinto it is at last inserted, *divaricated*, after the same manner as the vessels.

The partitions are strained across: one *divaricates* into two, and another into several.



a. & v. n. } Sax. *þippan*; Teut.  
 1. } *tufan*; Ital. *toffo*, from  
 o dip. To explore by diving: as a  
 to sink, or go under water;  
 er deeply into a question, or into  
 d to go beyond sight or observation.  
 r, thoughts, down to my soul.

*Shakspeare.*  
 ce, the untainted virtue of your years  
 died into the world's deceit,  
 aguish. *Id. Richard III.*  
 defend those pearls which lie in the  
 or Indians are eaten up by them, when  
 the pearl.

*Raleigh's History.*  
 yet informed, whether, when a diver di-  
 his eyes open, and swimmeth upon his  
 things in the air greater or less.

*Baron's Natural History.*  
 that died most deep, and soared most

's powers, have found his weakness; such.  
*Davies.*  
 have him, as I conceive it, to be no su-  
 floating artificer; but a diver into causes,  
 mysteries of proportion.

*Wotton's Architecture.*  
 as all this out of his own fund, without  
 e arts and sciences for a supply.

*Dryden.*  
 er we would proceed beyond those simple  
 ee farther into the nature of things, we  
 into darkness and obscurity. *Locke.*  
 d have died into my inmost thoughts.

*Philips.*  
 us, Rome's first martyr, I must name;  
 ravelly died the gulph of fame.

*Denham.*  
 iverance gains the deer's prize.

*Pope's Dunciad.*  
 ir in the blood-vessels of live bodies has  
 tion with the outward air, I think, seems  
 the experiments of human creatures being  
 air of much greater density in diving, and  
 s upon the tops of mountains, provided  
 be made gradually. *Arbutnot.*  
 nto this subject as deep as thou canst.  
 yself; and this knowledge of that which  
 n thee will be of more use to thee than  
 ge of all that passes in the world.

*Mason.*  
 e sage, Lo! Britain's sons shall guide  
 loons beneath the tossing tide;  
 astles, roofed with spheric glass,  
 a strong oak, and barred with bolts of  
 t.

*Darwin.*  
 be the Table Talk of clubs up stairs,  
 ich th' unwashed artificer repairs,  
 dulse his genius after long fatigue,  
 eing into cabinet intrigue.

*Cowper.*  
 in ornithology. See COLYMBUS.  
 G, the art or act of descending under  
 nsiderable depths, and remaining there  
 time. The uses of diving are very  
 le, particularly in the fishing for  
 rals, sponges, &c. Various methods  
 proposed, and machines contrived, to  
 business of diving more safe and easy.  
 point is to furnish the diver with fresh  
 out which he must either make a short  
 water or perish. Those who dive for  
 the Mediterranean, assist themselves  
 g down sponges dipt in oil in their  
 But considering the small quantity of

air that can be contained in the pores of the  
 sponge, and how much that little will be con-  
 tracted by the pressure of the incumbent water  
 such a supply cannot long maintain the respi-  
 ration of the diver. It is found by experiment,  
 that a gallon of air included in a bladder, and  
 by a pipe reciprocally inspired and expired by  
 the lungs, becomes unfit for respiration in little  
 more than one minute: for though its elasticity  
 be but little altered in passing the luings, yet it  
 loses its vivifying spirit, and is rendered effete.  
 A naked diver, Dr. Halley assures us, without a  
 sponge, cannot remain above a couple of minutes  
 enclosed in water, nor much longer with one,  
 without suffocating; nor, without long practice,  
 near so long: persons not accustomed to dive,  
 beginning to be stifled in about half a minute.  
 Hence, where there has been occasion to continue  
 long at the bottom, some have contrived double  
 flexible pipes, to circulate air down into a cavity,  
 enclosing the diver as with armour, both to fur-  
 nish air and to bear off the pressure of the water,  
 as well as to give room to his breast to dilate  
 upon inspiration; the fresh air being forced down  
 one of the pipes with bellows, and returning by  
 the other. But this method is impracticable when  
 the depth surpasses three fathoms; the water  
 embracing the bare limbs so closely as to obstruct  
 the circulation of the blood in them; and pres-  
 sing so strongly on all the junctures where the  
 armour is made tight with leather, that, if there  
 be the least defect in any of them, the water  
 rushes in, and instantly fills the whole engine, to  
 the great danger of the diver's life. People being  
 accustomed to the water from their infancy, will  
 however at length be enabled, not only to stay  
 much longer under water than the time above  
 mentioned, but put on a kind of amphibious  
 nature, so that they seem to have the use of all  
 their faculties as well when their bodies are im-  
 mersed in water as when on dry land. Most  
 savage nations are remarkable for this. The  
 inhabitants of the South Sea islands are such  
 expert divers, that, when a nail or any piece of  
 iron is thrown overboard, they instantly jump  
 into the sea after it, and never fail to recover it,  
 notwithstanding the quick descent of the metal.  
 Even among civilized nations, many persons  
 have been found capable of continuing an incre-  
 dible length of time below water. The most  
 remarkable instance of this kind is the famous  
 Sicilian diver Nicolo Pesce. See PESCE.

To obviate the inconveniences of diving dif-  
 ferent instruments have been contrived, of  
 which the chief is the diving bell. The com-  
 mon bell is made in form of a truncated cone,  
 the smaller base being closed, and the larger  
 open. It is poised with lead; and so sus-  
 pended, that the vessel may sink full of air, with  
 its open basis downward, and as near as may  
 be in a situation parallel to the horizon, so as to  
 close with the surface of the water all at once.  
 Under this covercle the diver sitting, sinks down  
 with the included air to the depth desired: and  
 if the cavity of the vessel can contain a tun of  
 air, a single man may remain a full hour, with-  
 out much inconvenience, at five or six fathoms  
 depth. But the lower he goes, the more the  
 included air contracts itself, according to the







# DIVING BELLS

Spalding's Diving Bell

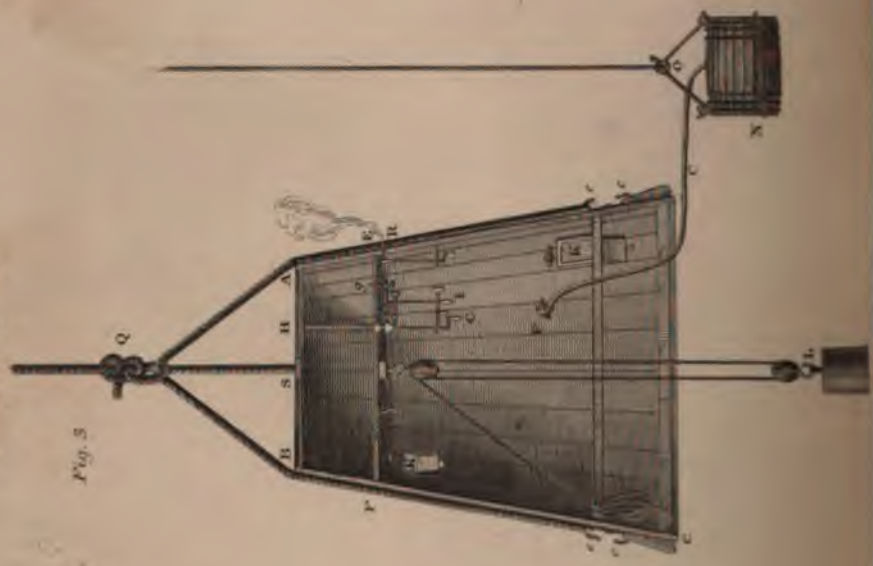


Fig. 3

D<sup>r</sup> Halley's.

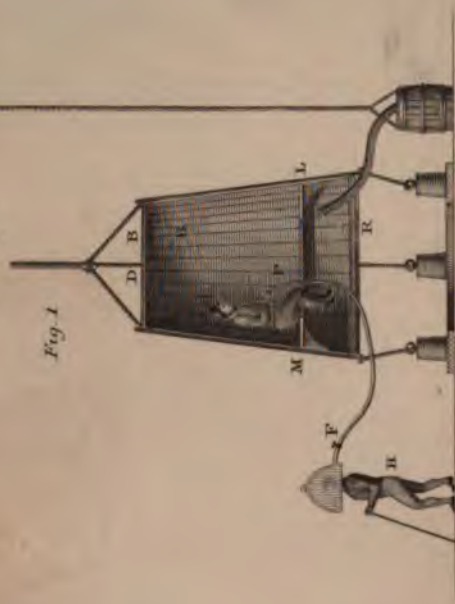


Fig. 1

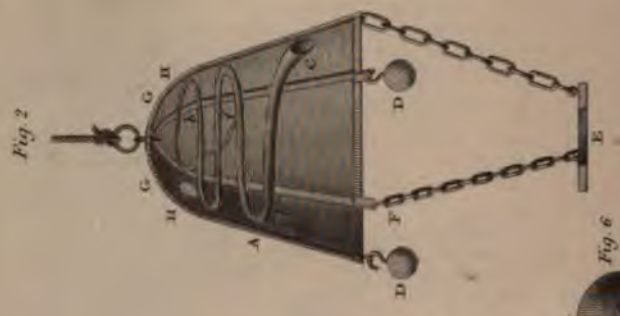


Fig. 2

Klingert's Diving Machine.



Fig. 4



Fig. 5



Fig. 6

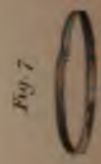


Fig. 7



am, by small flexible pipes; which pipes serve as a clue to direct him back again when he would return to the bell.' Plate, DIVING BELLS, fig. 1, shows Dr. Halley's diving

BELLS, fig. 1, shows Dr. Halley's diving bell. D B L R M represents the body of the bell; the glass which serves as a window. B, the cock for letting out the air which has been used. L M, the seats. C, one of the iron rods. H, another diver at a distance from the bell, and breathing through the flexible tube, of which F is a stop-cock, which I can turn to measure to prevent the air being forced back into the bell by the pressure of the water when stoops below the mouth of the bell. This diver is supposed to have a head-piece of lead, to fit quite close about his shoulders: this head-piece was capable of containing as much air as would supply him for a minute or two.

Mr. Triewald, F.R.S., military architect to the king of Sweden, invented a diving bell, fig. 2, which, for a single person, is thought to be more eligible than Dr. Halley's, and is constructed as follows:—A B is the bell, which is kept by lead weights D D, hung to its bottom. The bell is of copper, tinned all over in the inside, which is illuminated by two strong convex lenses, G, G, with copper lids, H, H, to defend them. The iron plate, E, serves the diver to stand on when he is at work; and is suspended at such a distance from the bottom of the bell, by chains F F, that when the diver stands upon it his head is just above the water in the bell, where the air is much better than higher up, because it is colder, and consequently more fit for respiration. But as the diver must always be within the bell, and his head of course in the lower part, the inventor has contrived, that even when he has breathed the hot air as long as he can, he may, by means of a spiral copper pipe, f b c h c, placed close to the inside of the bell, draw the cooler and fresher air from the lower parts.

But the greatest improvement which the diving bell has received was from the late Mr. Spalding, of Edinburgh. A section of his improved diving bell is represented in fig. 3. The construction is designed to remedy some inconveniences of Dr. Halley's, which are very dangerous, and of very dangerous tendency. By Dr. Halley's construction, the sinking or raising the bell depends entirely on the people who are at the surface of the water; and as the bell, when in the water, has a very considerable weight, the raising it not only requires a great deal of labor, but there is a possibility of the rope breaking by which it is raised, and thus every person in the bell would inevitably perish. And as there are, in many places of the sea, rocks which lie at a considerable depth, the figure of which cannot possibly be perceived from above, there is danger that some of their ragged promontories may catch hold of one of the edges of the bell in its descent, and thus upset it before any signal can be given to those above, which would probably be attended with the destruction of the people in the bell: and as it must always be unknown, before trial, what kind of a bottom the sea has in any place, it is plain that, without some contrivance to obviate this last danger, the descent

in Dr. Halley's diving bell is not at all eligible. How these inconveniences are remedied by Spalding's construction will be easily understood from the following description.—A B C D represents a section of the bell, which is made of wood; e, e, are iron hooks, by means of which it is suspended by ropes Q B F e, and Q A E e, and Q S, as expressed in the figure: c, c, are iron hooks, to which are appended lead weights, that keep the mouth of the bell always parallel to the surface of the water, whether the machine, taken altogether, is lighter or heavier than an equal bulk of water. By these weights alone, however, the bell would not sink: another is therefore added, represented at L, and which can be raised or lowered at pleasure, by means of a rope passing over the pulley a, and fastened to one of the sides of the bell at M. As the bell descends, this weight, called the balance weight, hangs down a considerable way below the mouth of the bell. In case the edge of the bell is caught by any obstacle, the balance weight is immediately lowered down so that it may rest upon the bottom. By this means the bell is lightened so that all danger of oversetting is removed; for being lighter, without the balance weight, than an equal bulk of water, it is evident that the bell will rise, as far as the length of the rope affixed to the balance weight will allow it. This weight therefore will serve as a kind of anchor to keep the bell at any particular depth which the divers may think necessary; or, by pulling it quite up, the descent may be continued to the very bottom. By another very ingenious contrivance, Mr. Spalding rendered it possible for the divers to raise the bell, with all the weights appended to it, even to the surface, or to stop at any particular depth, as they think proper; and thus they could still be safe, even though the rope designed for pulling up the bell was broke. For this purpose the bell is divided into two cavities, both of which are made as tight as possible. Just above the second bottom, E F, are small slits in the sides of the bell; through which the water, entering as the bell descends, displaces the air originally contained in this cavity, which flies out at the upper orifice of the cock H. When this is done, the divers stop the cock; so that if any more air was to get into the cavity A E F B, it could no longer be discharged through the orifice H as before. When this cavity is full of water the bell sinks; but when a considerable quantity of air is admitted it rises. It therefore the divers have a mind to raise themselves, they turn the cock V, by which a communication is made between the upper and under cavities of the bell. The consequence of this is, that a quantity of air immediately enters the upper cavity, forces out a quantity of the water contained in it, and thus renders the bell lighter by the whole weight of the water which is displaced. Thus, if a certain quantity of air is admitted into the upper cavity, the bell will descend very slowly; if a greater quantity, it will neither ascend nor descend, but remain stationary; and if a larger quantity of air is still admitted, it will arise to the top. It is to be observed, however, that the air which is thus let out into the upper cavity must be immediately supplied from the air-barrel; from which the air is to be let



out very slowly, or the bell will rise to the top with so great velocity, that the divers will be in danger of being shaken out of their seats. But, by following these directions, every possible accident may be prevented, and people may descend to great depths without the least apprehension of danger. The bell also becomes so easily manageable in the water, that it may be conducted from one place to another by a small boat with the greatest ease, and with perfect safety to those who are in it. Instead of wooden seats used by Dr. Halley, Mr. Spalding made use of ropes suspended by hooks *b, b, b*; and, on these ropes, the divers may sit without any inconvenience. *KK* are two windows made of thick strong glass, for admitting light to the divers. *N* represents an air-cask with its tackle, and *OCP* the flexible pipe through which the air is admitted to the bell. In the ascent and descent of this cask, the pipe is kept down by a small weight appended, as in Dr. Halley's machine. *R* is a small cock by which the hot air is discharged as often as it becomes troublesome.

A considerable modern improvement is that of supplying air to a diving-bell, by means of a syringe or pump, which forces the air down in a continual stream into the bell, whence it escapes from beneath the lower edges of the bell, or from a waste pipe, as fast as it is supplied. In this way the air is kept very pure, and the people in the bell have no kind of trouble to obtain a supply. Mr. Smeaton was the first who put in practice the method to which we allude, though it had been frequently proposed by other inventors. His first attempt was in 1786, in shallow water, the bell being only intended to enable workmen to examine and repair the foundations of a bridge at Hexham, in Northumberland.

Mr. Smeaton, a few years afterwards, constructed another bell upon the same principle, for the works at Ramsgate harbour. It was used to raise up large stones, which had formerly been thrown into the sea around the base of the pier.

The bell was made of cast iron, of sufficient weight to sink without any extra ballast. In the top were lenses for the admission of light, and a strong shackle for the chain by which the bell was suspended. A strong leathern pipe was connected with the top of the bell, to convey air into it from an air-pump placed either in a boat or on the shore.

This kind of diving-bell has since been applied to the purposes of building foundations of masonry in deep water, under the direction of the late Mr. Rennie, who constructed machinery to move the bell under water in any direction, and which acts with such facility, that the masons in the bell make great despatch in laying the stones. It was used in Plymouth Sound to sweep the bottom for old anchors, &c. At Houth, in Dublin county, Ireland, the foundations for the pier were wholly laid by this machine. In many parts the rocky bottom was too uneven to work upon, and it was then necessary to blast it with powder. The divers bored the hole in the rock, and placed the powder in a tin cartridge, which was well secured in the hole, by running in small fragments of stone. A small tin pipe

was affixed to the canister, long enough to above the surface of the water. When prepared, the bell was drawn up out of the water, and a nail or other small piece of iron heated, was dropped into the tin pipe, then descended to the powder.

As the diving bell is, however, in any improvement, necessarily very large and unwieldy, several attempts have been made to enable a man sufficiently to enable him to bear the pressure of the water. And the most successful is that of Klaus Breslau, which is made of strong tin plate, in the form of a cylinder, which goes over the head, and which consists of two parts, it may conveniently thrust his arms through put it on; also a jacket with short sleeves and drawers of strong leather. All these being tight, and closely jointed round the body, secure every part of him, but his arms and legs, from the pressure of the water, which at the depth of twenty feet, will occasion inconvenience to these parts. Plate, Diving Bell, &c., fig. 4, represents the diver covered with his harness and drawers. Figs. 5 and 6 are representations of the cylinder, the diameter of which is equal to the breadth of a man at the top of the hipbone. It is fifteen inches in height, globular top, and is made of the strong tin plate. In the inside of the cylinder, at the bottom, is a strong broad iron hoop, to enable it to with better the pressure of the water; and in the side of the top there are two pieces of a hoop of the same kind, placed over each of the form of a cross at *b*; a strong ring of wire is soldered upon the outside at *c*, the jacket may be fastened to it with an elastic bandage, to prevent it from slipping downwards. *dd* are the upper halves of the apertures for the arms; and *e, e*, are holes to afford light, in which the eye-glasses are screwed: *f* is the opening into which the mouth-piece of the breathing pipe is screwed, and *g* is an aperture for the legs, as well as for the purpose of breathing when out of the water, and which, by the cover *h* suspended from it, can be kept up before the diver enters the water.

The lower part of the cylinder, which is fifteen inches in height, is strengthened with *k* by iron hoops on the inside, in the same manner as the former. To the lower hoop are soldered four small rings, to which are strong leather straps, three inches in breadth, can be buckled across over the shoulders to support the whole machine; *l, l*, are the lower halves of the apertures for the arms; a ring of brass wire soldered to the cylinder serves to keep fast the jacket when he descends, and to support the upper cylinder *dd* slips over the under one; and on that an under one is a little smaller, so as to fit over the upper one: there is also another such ring at the bottom, in order to prevent the drawers from falling.

At *o* is a strong semicircular piece of leather, the use of which is to prevent the drawers from being pressed by the water, from touching the part of the body, otherwise the pressure of the depth of six feet, would be insupportable. As it is not possible to sew the leather to



event water from forcing its way through us, a small pump is suspended at *p* for the purpose of pumping out the water, when it is to the height of a few inches in the cylinder. Four hooks, *g, g, g, g*, soldered to the lower part of the cylinder, are for the purpose of suspending weights from them.

The jacket *r* (fig. 4), with short sleeves that the upper part of the arms, serves to prevent water from penetrating through the joints of the cylinders where the one is inserted into the other, as also through the holes for the arms; it is bound fast round both parts of the cylinder, *r*, and likewise round the arms. The case is the same with the drawers, which are bound round the knees.

*f* represents a brass elastic bandage, employed for fastening on the jacket; and which, when looked together, is screwed fast by means of a screw *s*, three inches in length; a brass plate is here used, because leather is apt to stretch, and on that account might be dangerous. A reservoir *a* (fig. 4), applied in such a manner that it can be screwed off, is for the purpose of collecting the small quantity of water that once itself into the breathing pipe when opened, and which otherwise would be in commotion, and render breathing disagreeable. A man, named Frederick William Joachim, a diver by profession, dived in the above apparatus into the Oder, near Breslau, where the depth was of considerable depth, and the current strong, on the 24th of June, 1797, before a great number of spectators, and sawed through the trunk of a tree which was lying at the bottom.

DIVING BLADDER is a machine invented by Mr. Bushnell, and by him preferred, though without reason, to the diving bell. It is a globular bladder of brass or copper, about two feet in diameter, which contains the diver's head. It is covered with a goat's skin habit exactly fitted to his head. Within the vessel are pipes, by means of which a circulation of air is contrived; and the diver carries an air-pump by his side, by which he can make himself heavier or lighter as he pleases, by contracting or dilating their air-pump. By these means he thought all the objections to which other diving machines are liable were entirely obviated, and particularly that of the want of air; the air which had been breathed, as he imagined, deprived of its noxious qualities by circulating through the pipes. These objections, however, it is evident, are only imaginary.

The diver's limbs, being defended from the pressure of the water only by a goat's skin, would infallibly be crushed if he descended to a considerable depth; and, from the discovery made, by Dr. Priestley and others, it is manifestly evident, that air, which is once rendered foul by breathing, cannot, in any degree, be purified by circulation through pipes.

The following description of a DIVING-VESSEL is given by Mr. Bushnell, of Connecticut, in the *Philosophical Transactions of America*. The external shape of the sub-marine vessel bore some resemblance to two upper torus, of equal size, joined together; the mode of entrance into the vessel being represented by the opening made by the swell of the

shells, at the head of the animal. The inside was capable of containing the operator, and air sufficient to support him thirty minutes, without receiving fresh air. At the bottom, opposite to the entrance, was fixed a quantity of lead for ballast. At one edge, which was directly before the operator, who sat upright, was an oar for rowing forward or backward. At the other edge was a rudder for steering. An aperture, at the bottom, with its valve, was designed to admit water, for the purpose of descending; and two brass forcing-pumps served to eject the water within, when necessary for ascending. At the top there was likewise an oar for ascending or descending, or continuing at any particular depth. A water-gauge, or barometer, determined the depth of descent, a compass directed the course, and a ventilator within supplied the vessel with fresh air, when on the surface.

The entrance into the vessel was elliptical, and so small as barely to admit a person. This entrance was surrounded with a broad elliptical iron band, the lower edge of which was let into the wood, of which the body of the vessel was made, in such a manner as to give its utmost support to the body of the vessel against the pressure of the water. Above the upper edge of this iron band there was a brass crown, or cover, resembling a hat with its crown and brim, which shut water-tight upon the iron band; the crown was hung to the iron band with hinges, so as to turn over sideways when opened. To make it perfectly secure when shut, it might be screwed down upon the band by the operator, or by a person without.

There were in the brass crown three round doors, one directly in front, and one on each side, large enough to put the hand through. When open, they admitted fresh air; their shutters were ground perfectly tight into their places with emery, hung with hinges, and secured in their places when shut. There were likewise several small glass windows in the crown for looking through, and for admitting light in the day-time, with covers to secure them. There were two air-pipes in the crown. A ventilator within drew fresh air through one of the air-pipes, and discharged it into the lower part of the vessel; the fresh air introduced by the ventilator expelled the impure light air through the other air-pipe. Both air-pipes were so constructed, that they shut themselves whenever the water rose near their tops, so that no water could enter through them, and opened themselves immediately after they rose above the water.

The vessel was chiefly filled with lead fixed to its bottom; when this was sufficient, a quantity was placed within, more or less, according to the weight of the operator; its ballast made it so stiff, that there was no danger of oversetting. The vessel, with all its appendages, and the operator, was sufficient to settle it very low in the water. About 200 lbs. of the lead, at the bottom for ballast, would be let down forty or fifty feet below the vessel; this enabled the operator to rise instantly to the surface of the water, in case of accident.

When the operator would descend, he placed his foot on the top of a brass valve, depressing



it, by which he opened a large aperture in the bottom of the vessel, through which the water entered at his pleasure; when he had admitted a sufficient quantity, he descended very gradually; if he admitted too much, he ejected as much as was necessary to obtain an equilibrium, by the two brass forcing-pumps, which were placed at each hand. Whenever the vessel leaked, or he would ascend to the surface, he also made use of these forcing-pumps. When the skilful operator had obtained an equilibrium, he could row upward, or downward, or continue at any particular depth, with an oar, placed near the top of the vessel, formed upon the principle of the screw, the axis of the oar entering the vessel; by turning the oar one way, he raised the vessel, by turning it the other way he depressed it.

A glass tube, eighteen inches long, and one inch in diameter, standing upright, its upper end closed, and its lower end, which was open, screwed into a brass pipe, through which the external water had a passage into the glass tube, served as a water-gauge, or barometer. There was a piece of cork, with phosphorus on it, put into the water-gauge. When the vessel descended, the water rose in the water-gauge, condensing the air within, and bearing the cork, with its phosphorus, on its surface. By the sight of the phosphorus, the ascent of the water in the gauge was rendered visible, and the depth of the vessel under water ascertained by a graduated line.

An oar, formed upon the principle of the screw, was fixed in the fore part of the vessel; its axis entered the vessel, and being turned one way, rowed the vessel forward, but being turned the other way, rowed it backward; it was made to be turned by the hand or foot.

A rudder, hung to the hinder part of the vessel, commanded it with the greatest ease. The rudder was made very elastic, and might be used for rowing forward. Its tiller was within the vessel, at the operator's right hand, fixed, at a right angle, on an iron rod, which passed through the side of the vessel; the rod had a crank on its outside end, which commanded the rudder, by means of a rod extending from the end of the crank to a kind of tiller, fixed upon the left hand of the rudder. Raising and depressing the first-mentioned tiller, turned the rudder as the case required.

A compass, marked with phosphorus, directed the course, both above and under the water; and a line and lead sounded the depth when necessary.

The internal shape of the vessel, in every possible section of it, verged towards an ellipsis, as near as the design would allow, but every horizontal section, although elliptical, yet as near to a circle as could be admitted. The body of the vessel was made exceedingly strong; and to strengthen it as much as possible, a firm piece of wood was framed, parallel to the conjugate diameter, to prevent the sides from yielding to the great pressure of the incumbent water, in a deep immersion. This piece of wood was also a seat for the operator.

Every opening was well secured. The pumps had two sets of valves. The aperture at the bottom, for admitting water, was covered with a

plate, perforated full of holes, to receive water, and prevent any thing from choiling passage, or stopping the valve from acting. The brass valve might likewise be forced place with a screw, if necessary. The vessel had a kind of hollow sphere, fixed round each, to secure the air-pipe valves from injury; these hollow spheres were perforated of holes, for the passage of the air through pipes; within the air-pipes were shutters to cure them, should any accident happen to the pipes, or the valves on their tops.

Wherever the external apparatus passed into the body of the vessel, the joints were made and formed by brass pipes, which were inserted into the wood of the vessel; the holes through the pipes were very exactly made, and the rods, which passed through them, were turned in a lathe to fit them; the joints were also full of oil, to prevent rust and leaking. Particular attention was given to bring every part, necessary for performing the operations, both within and without the vessel, before the operator, as conveniently as could be devised; so that nothing might be found in the dark, except the water gauge and the compass, which were illuminated by the light of the phosphorus, and not requiring the operator to turn to the right or to the left, to perform any thing necessary.

Description of a magazine, and its uses. A magazine, designed to be conveyed, by a sub-marine vessel, to the bottom of a ship's fore part of the brim of the crown of the marine vessel was a socket, and an iron pipe passing through the socket; the tube was fixed, and could slide up and down the socket, six inches; at the top of the tube a wood-screw, fixed by means of a rod passing through the tube, and screwed to a screw fast upon the top of the tube. By turning the wood-screw up against the bottom of the tube, and turning it at the same time, it worked the planks; driving would also answer the purpose: when the wood-screw was fixed, it could be cast off by unscrewing the tube, which fastened it upon the top of the tube.

Behind the sub-marine vessel was a magazine, for carrying a large magazine; this was made of two pieces of timber, large enough, when hollowed out, to contain 150 lbs. of powder, with the powder used in firing it, and was secured in it by a screw, turned by the operator. A piece of rope extended from the magazine to the wood-screw above-mentioned, and was fastened to both. When the wood-screw was turned, it was to be cast off from its tube, the magazine being cast off likewise by unscrewing it, and hanging to the wood-screw; it was light water, that it might rise up against the wood-screw and itself were.

Within the magazine was an apparatus constructed to run any proposed length under twelve hours; when it had run its time, it unpinioned a strong lock, releasing the gun-lock, which gave fire to the powder apparatus was so pinioned, that it could not move, till, by casting off the magazine, the vessel, it was set in motion.



The skilful operator could swim so low on the surface of the water, as to approach very near a ship, in the night, without fear of being discovered, and might, if he chose, approach the stem or stern above water, with very little danger. He could sink very quickly, keep at any depth he pleased, and row a great distance in any direction he desired, without coming to the surface; and, when he rose to the surface, he could soon obtain a fresh supply of air, when, if necessary, he might descend again, and pursue his course.

The first experiment made was with about two ounces of gunpowder, which were exploded four feet under water, to prove to some of the first personages in Connecticut that powder would take fire under water.

The second experiment was made with two pounds of powder, enclosed in a wooden bottle, and fixed under a hoghead, with a two-inch oak plank between the hoghead and the powder; the hoghead was loaded with stones as deep as it could swim; a wooden pipe descending through the lower head of the hoghead, and through the plank, into the powder contained in the bottle, was primed with powder. A match put to the priming exploded the powder, which produced a very great effect, rending the plank into pieces, demolishing the hoghead, and casting the stones and the ruins of the hoghead, with a body of water, many feet into the air, to the astonishment of the spectators. This experiment was likewise made for the satisfaction of the gentlemen above-mentioned.

There were afterwards made many experiments of a similar nature, some of them with large quantities of powder; they all produced very violent explosions, much more than sufficient for any purpose had in view.

In the first essays with the sub-marine vessel, the inventor took care to prove its strength to sustain the great pressure of the incumbent water, when sunk deep, before he trusted any person to descend much below the surface; and he never suffered any person to go under water without having a strong piece of rigging made fast to it, until he found him well acquainted with the operations necessary for his safety. After that, he made him descend, and continue at particular depths, without rising or sinking, row by the compass, approach a vessel, go under her, and fix the wood-screw, mentioned before, into her bottom, &c., until he thought him sufficiently expert to put any design in execution.

It required many trials to make a person of common ingenuity a skilful operator; the first employed was very ingenious, and made himself master of the business, but was taken sick in the campaign of 1776, at New York, before he had an opportunity to make use of his skill, and never recovered his health sufficiently afterwards.

Experiments made with a sub-marine vessel. After various attempts to find an operator to his wish, Mr. Bushnell sent one, who appeared more expert than the rest, from New York, to a fifty-gun ship, lying not far from Governor's Island. He went under the ship, and attempted to fix the wood-screw into her bottom, but struck, as

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he supposed, a bar of iron, which passes from the rudder-hinge, and is spiked under the ship's quarter. Had he moved a few inches, which he might have done, without rowing, he would probably have found wood where he might have fixed the screw; or, if the ship were sheathed with copper, he might easily have pierced it, but not being well skilled in the management of the vessel, in attempting to move to another place, he lost the ship; after seeking her in vain, for some time, he rowed some distance, and rose to the surface of the water, but found day-light had advanced so far, that he durst not renew the attempt. The adventurer said he could easily have fastened the magazine under the stem of the ship, above water, as he rowed up to the stern, and touched it before he descended. Had he fastened it there, the explosion of 150 lbs. of powder, the quantity contained in the magazine, must have been fatal to the ship. In his return from the ship to New York, he passed near Governor's Island, and thought he was discovered by the enemy on the island; being in haste to avoid the danger he feared, he cast off the magazine, as he imagined it retarded him in the swell, which was very considerable. After the magazine had been cast off one hour, the time the internal apparatus was set to run, it blew up with great violence.

Afterwards, there were two attempts made in Hudson's river, above the city, but they effected nothing. Mr. Fulton, we believe, afterwards improved on this machine in England, but the attempts to use it proved equally abortive.

DIVERGE, *v. n.* ? *Lat. divergo.* To tend  
DIVERGENT, *adj.* Various ways from one point.

Homogeneous rays, which flow from several points of any object, and fall perpendicularly on any reflecting surface, shall afterwards *diverge* from so many points. *Newton.*

Thus when the mother-bird on moss-wove nest  
Lulls her fond brood beneath her plumy breast  
Warmth from her tender heart diffusive springs  
And charmed she shields them with *diverging* wings. *Darwin.*

DIVERGENT, or DIVERGING LINES, in geometry, are those which constantly recede from each other. They are opposed to convergent, or converging lines, whose distances continually approach nearer to each other, and become still less and less. Those lines which converge the one way, *diverge* the other.

DIVERGENT RAYS, in optics, are those which going from a point of the visible object, are dispersed, and continually depart one from another in proportion as they are removed from the object: in which sense it is opposed to convergent. See OPTICS.

DIVERS, *adj.* *Lat. diversus.* Several; sundry; more than one. Out of use.

We have *divers* examples in the church of such as, by fear, being compelled to sacrifice to strange gods, repented, and kept still the office of preaching the gospel. *Whitgift.*

The teeth breed when the child is a year and a half old: then they cast them, and new ones come about seven years; but *divers* have backward teeth come at twenty, some at thirty and forty.

*Bacon's Natural History.*

2 A



Time travels in *divers* paces with *divers* persons.  
I'll tell you who time ambles withal, who time trots  
withal, who time gallops withal, and who he stands  
still withal. *Shakespeare.*

DIVERSE', *v. n. & adj.* } Lat. *diversus*. See  
DIVERS'ITY, *n. s.* } DIVERSIFY. To  
DIVERSE'LY, *adv.* } differ: different; in

various directions. Diversity, is dissimilitude;  
variety; distinct existence. Diversely, differently;  
variously.

A nothir clerenesse is of the sunne, a nothir clere-  
nesse of the moone, and a nothir clerenesse is of  
sterres, and a sterre *diversith* fro a sterre in clerenesse.  
*Wiclif. 1 Cor. 15.*

Mi britheren, deme al ioie whanne ye fallen into  
*dyvur*e temptacions. *Id. James 4.*

Four great beasts came up from the sea, *diverse* one  
from another. *Dan. vii. 3.*

And for there is so grete *diversite*  
In English and in writing of our tonge  
So prae I to God, that none misurte the  
Ne the misse-metre for defeaute of tonge.

*Chaucer. Troilus and Cressida.*

Then is there in this *diversity* no contrariety.

*Hooker.*

But yet their various and perplexed course,  
Observed in *diverse* ages, doth enforce  
Men to find out so many eccentricque parts,  
Such *diverse* downright lines, such overthwarts  
As disproportion that pure form. *Donne.*

Both of them do *diversely* work, as they have their  
medium *diversely* disposed. *Bacon's Natural History.*

Leicester bewrayed a desire to plant him in the  
queen's favour, which was *diversely* interpreted by such  
as thought that great artizan of courts to do nothing  
by chance, nor much by affection. *Wotton.*

Eloquence is a great and *diverse* thing, nor did she  
yet ever favour any man so much as to be wholly his.  
*Ben Jonson.*

They cannot be divided, but they will prove oppo-  
site; and, not resting in a bare *diversity*, rise into a  
contrariety. *South.*

Considering any thing as existing at any determined  
time and place, we compare it with itself existing at  
another time, and thereon form the ideas of identity  
and *diversity*. *Locke.*

William's arm  
Could nought avail, however famed in war;  
Nor armies leagued, and *diversely* assayed  
To curb his power. *Philips.*

On life's vast ocean *diversely* we sail;  
Reason the card, but passion is the gale. *Pope.*

The most common *diversity* of human constitutions  
arises from the solid parts, as to their different degrees  
of strength and tension. *Arbuthnot on Aliment.*

And in the whole there is a magnificence like that  
ascribed to Chinese plantation, the magnificence of  
vast extent and endless *diversity*. *Johnson.*

DIVER'SIFY, *v. a.* } Fr. *diversifier*; Sp.  
DIVERSIFICA'TION, *n. s.* } Portug. and Italian  
*diversificare*, from Lat. *diversum*, i. e. *dis*, di-  
versely, and *verto*, or *verso* to turn, and *facio* to  
make. To make different; discriminate; varie-  
gate: diversification is variety of form, color, or  
quality; change.

There is, in the producing of some species, a com-  
position of matter, which may be much *diversified*.  
*Bacon.*

If you consider how variously several things may  
be compounded, you will not wonder that such fruitful

principles, or manners of *diversification*, should  
rate differing colours. *Boyle on C.*

This, which is here called a change of will,  
a change of his will, but a change in the  
which seems to make a *diversification* of the  
indeed is the same will *diversified*.  
*Hale's Origin of M.*

The country being *diversified* between hills and  
woods and plains, one place more clear,  
more darksome, it is a pleasant picture. *S.*

It was easier for Homer to find proper words  
for Grecian generals, than for Milton to *diver-*  
sify infernal council with proper characters.  
*Addison's Sp.*

Nor less attractive is the woodland scene  
*diversified* with trees of every growth,  
Alike yet various. *C.*

DIVERT, *v. a.* } Fr. *divertir*;  
DIVER'SION, *n. s.* } *divertir*, from  
DIVER'TER, *n. s.* } away, and *verto*;  
DIVER'TISE, *v. a.* } To turn off, or  
DIVER'TISEMENT, *n. s.* } a particular o-  
DIVER'TIVE, *adj.* } hence, to amuse

please; to exhilarate. 'Diversion,' says  
Johnson, 'seems to be somewhat lighter  
amusement, and less forcible than pleas-  
ure.' Vertise is an obsolete synonyme of *diver-*  
tissement is an old word recently re-  
applied to musical compositions of a  
lar cast. Divertive is recreative, amusing

Knots, by the conflux of the meeting  
Infect the sound pine, and *divert* his grain  
Tortive and errant, from his course of gro-  
*Su.*

Frights, changes, horrors  
*Divert* and crack, rend and deracinate  
The unity and married calm of state

Cutting off the tops, and pulling off the  
retention of the sap for a time, and *diversify*  
the sprouts that were not forward.  
*Bacon's N.*

The kings of England would have had a  
conquest of Ireland, if their whole power  
employed; but still there arose sundry  
which divided and *diverted* their power some-  
*Davies's*

Alas, how simple, to these cates com  
Was that crude apple that *diverted* Eve  
*Milton. Paradise*

Angling was, after tedious study, a rest  
a cheerer of his spirits, and a *diverter* of sad

Let orators instruct, let them *divertise*, an  
move us; this is what is properly meant by  
salt.

He finds no reason to have his rent abate  
a greater part of it is *diverted* from his land

You for those ends whole days in co  
And the *diversions* of your youth forge

How fond soever men are of bad *divers*  
will prove mirth which ends in heaviness.

*Government of the*

What can that man fear, who takes care  
a Being that is so able to crush all his adv  
Being that can *divert* any misfortune from  
him, or turn any such misfortune to his adv  
*Addison's*

They *diverted* railly from improper  
gave a new turn to ridicule. *Id. P*



ductions of wit and humour as exposure, furnish useful *diversions* to readers.

*Id.*

more is requisite for producing all the various, and degrees of refrangibility, than of light be bodies of different sizes; the which may make violet, the weakest and dark-lours, and be more easily *diverted* by recesses from the right course; and the rest, bigger and bigger, make the stronger and colours, blue, green, yellow, and red, and more difficultly *diverted*.

*Newton.*

not exclude the common accidents of life, ngs of a pleasant and *diverting* nature, so ocent, from conversation.

*Rogers.*

anked this *diversion* of Christian practice effects of our contentions.

*Decay of Piety.*

Fr. *devestir*; *v. a. & n. s.* } Lat. *devestire*, from  
URE, *n. s.* } *de*, privative, and  
lothe, *à vestis*; Gr. *εσθης*, a garment.  
strip: divesture the act of disrobing  
his arms Androgeus he *divests*;  
his shield, he takes, and plumed crests.

*Denham.*

neest the gay phantom of temporal happiness that false lustre and ornament in which he passions, and the folly of men have p.

*Rogers.*

ature of mortality dispenses them from ous and avocating duties which are here be performed.

*Boyle's Seraphick Love.*

E, *v. a. & v. n.* } Fr. *diviser*; Span.  
BLE, *adj.* } and Port. *dividir*; Ital.  
NT, *adj.* } and Lat. *dividere*, from  
ND, *n. s.* } *dis*, diversely, and  
in, } *video*, to see, a di-  
IAL, *adj.* } vided thing being seen  
arts than one.—Ainsworth. To part  
ent pieces; hence to disunite; separ-  
tribute: as a neuter verb, to sunder;  
cord or friendship; differ. A dividend  
ted share; in arithmetic, however, it is  
be divided: *dividual* is used by Mil-  
dred; and *dividant* by Shakspeare, for  
distinguishable.

be be a firmament in the midst of the  
let it *divide* the waters from the waters.

*Genesis.*

all five in one house be *divided*.  
us in sunder, thou canst not *divide*  
ies so, but that our souls are tied,  
can love by letters still and gifts,  
ughts, and dreams; love never wanteth  
hfts.

*Donne.*

love cools, friendship falls off,  
divide.

*Shakspeare. King Lear.*

How could communities maintain  
commerce from *dividable* shores?

*Shakspeare.*

Twinned brothers of one womb,  
procreation, residence, and birth,  
e *dividant*, touch with several fortunes. *Id.*  
ag as the body moved, the *divider* did more  
enter into the *divided* body; so it joined  
ome new parts of the medium, or *divided*  
did in like manner forsake others.

*Digby on the Soul.*

She shines,

Revolved on heaven's great axle, and her reign  
With thousand lesser lights *dividual* holds,  
With thousand thousand stars!

*Milton.*

If on such petty merits you confer  
So vast a prize, let each his portion share:  
Make a just *dividend*; and, if not all,  
The greater part to Diomedes will fall.

*Dryden's Fables.*

You must go

Where seas, and winds, and deserts will *divide* you.

*Dryden.*

Cham and Japhet were heads and princes over their  
families, and had a right to *divide* the earth by families.

*Locke.*

Money, the great *divider* of the world, hath, by a  
strange revolution, been the great uniter of a divided  
people.

*Swift.*

Each person shall adapt to himself his peculiar  
share, like other *dividends*.

*Decay of Piety.*

To remedy this inconvenience, it will be necessary  
to *divide* their troughs into small compartments, in  
such a manner, that each of them may be capable of  
containing water; but this is seldom or never done.

*Franklin.*

It so happened that persons had a single office  
*divided* between them who had never spoken to each  
other in their lives; until they found themselves,  
they knew not how, pigging together, heads and points,  
in the same truckle-bed.

*Burke. Character of Lord Chatham.*

DIVIDEND. See ARITHMETIC.

DIVIDEND OF STOCKS is a share of the interest  
of stocks erected on public funds, as the  
South Sea, &c., divided among and paid to the  
adventurers half-yearly.

DIVINE', *v. a., v. n., n. s., & adj.* } Fr. *di-*  
DIVINATION, *n. s.* } *vin*; Ital.  
DIVINE'LY, *adv.* } Span. and  
DIVINER, *n. s.* } Port. *di-*  
DIVINE'NESS, } *vino*; Lat.  
DIVINERESS, *n. s., fem.* } *divinus*;  
DIVIN'ITY, *n. s.* } from *divi*,

the gods; Gr. *διος*. See DEITY. To foreknow,  
foretell, or presage, truly or falsely: as a neuter  
verb to utter prognostics, or feel presages; to  
conjecture: divination is the foreseeing, or fore-  
telling, future events, or pretending so to do:  
diviner and divineress those who make this pre-  
tension. Divine, as an adjective, is partaking  
of the nature of, or proceeding from, God;  
superhuman; excellent: divinely, a correspond-  
ing adverb: divineness and divinity, participa-  
tion of the nature of God; Godhead: THE God-  
head, the Supreme Being.

And it was don whanne we gheden to preir, that  
a damysel that hadde a spirit of *dyuynacioun* meete  
us which ghaif greet wynnyn to her lordis in *dyuynyn*.  
*Wiclif. Dedis. 16.*

Surely there is no enchantment against Jacob, nei-  
ther is there any divination against Israel. *Numbers.*

Certain tokens they noted in birds, or in the entrails  
of beasts, or by other the like frivolous *divinations*.

*Hooker.*

The Grecians most *divinely* have given to the active  
perfection of men, a name expressing both beauty and  
goodness.

*Id.*

Then is Caesar and he knit together.—If I were  
to *divine* of this unity, I would not prophesy so,

*Shakspeare.*



If secret powers

Suggest out truth to my *divining* thoughts,  
This pretty lad will prove our country's bliss. *Id.*

By Jupiter, an angel ! or, if not,  
An earthly paragon : behold *divineness*  
No elder than a boy. *Id. Cymbeline.*

Hear him but reason in *divinity*,  
And, all admiring, with an inward wish  
You would desire the king were made a prelate,  
*Shakspeare.*  
Give Martius leave to proceed in his discourse ;  
for he spoke like a *divine* in armour.

*Bacon's Holy War.*

The *divinest* and the richest mind,  
Both by art's purchase and by nature's dower,  
That ever was from heaven to earth confined.

*Davies.*

As with new wine intoxicated both,  
They swim in mirth, and fancy that they feel  
*Divinity* within them breeding wings,  
Wherewith to scorn the earth. *Milton.*

In the very shapes and colours of brute creatures  
there is a *divine* hand, which disposeth them to his  
own ends. *Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

This man born and now up grown,  
To shew him worthy of his birth *divine*  
And high prediction, henceforth I expose  
To Satan. *Milton.*

She fair, *divinely* fair ! fit love for gods. *Id.*

The eternal cause in their immortal lines  
Was taught, and poets were the first *divines*.  
*Denham.*

Her line

Was hero-make, half human, half *divine*.  
*Dryden.*

His countenance did imprint an awe,  
And naturally all souls to his did bow ;  
As wands of *divination* downward draw,  
And point to beds where sovereign gold doth grow. *Id.*

The mad *divineress* had plainly writ,  
A time should come, but many ages yet,  
In which sinister destinies ordain,  
A dame should drown with all her feathered train. *Id.*

If he himself be conscious of nothing he then  
thought on, he must be a notable *diviner* of thoughts,  
that can assure him that he was thinking. *Locke.*

Faith, as we use the word, called commonly *divine*  
faith, has to do with no propositions but those which  
are supposed to be *divinely* inspired. *Id.*

When he attributes *divinity* to other things than  
God, it is only a *divinity* by way of participation.

*Stilling fleet.*

Is it then impossible to distinguish the *divineness* of  
this book from that which is human ? *Grew.*

The excellency of the soul is seen by its power of  
*divining* in dreams : that several such *divinations* have  
been made, none can question who believes the holy  
writings. *Addison.*

'Tis the *Divinity* that stirs within us,  
'Tis Heaven itself that points out an hereafter,  
And intimates eternity to man. *Id.*

Vain idols, deities that ne'er before  
In Israel's lands had fixed their dire abodes,  
Beastly *divinities*, and droves of gods. *Prior.*

A *divine* has nothing to say to the wisest congrega-  
tion, which he may not express in a manner to be un-  
derstood by the meanest among them. *Swift.*

God doubtless can govern this machine he could  
create, by more direct and easy methods than employ-  
ing these subservient *divinities*. *Cheyne.*

This topick was very fitly and *divinely* mad  
by our apostle, in his conference with philo-  
sophers and the inquisitive people of Athens. *B.*

Instructed, you'd expect  
*Divine* contrivance, and a God adorn. *Blair.*

I reduced the study of *divinity* into as narrow  
compass as I could ; for I determined to study  
but my Bible, being much unconcerned about  
opinions of councils, fathers, churches, *divines*,  
other men, as little inspired as myself. This  
proceeding being opposite to the general one, es-  
pecially to that of the Master of Peterhouse, was  
a great reader, he used to call me a *divine* *Bp. W.*

Glowing, and circumfused in speechless love,  
Their full *divinity* inadequate  
That feeling to express, or to improve,  
The gods become as mortals, and man's fate  
Has moments like their brightest. *B.*

DIVINATION, in antiquity, was divided  
into two species, viz. artificial and natural.  
Artificial divination was so called, because  
not obtained, or pretended to be obtained  
immediate inspiration, but proceeded upon  
certain superstitious experiments and observ-  
arbitrarily instituted. Of this sort there  
various kinds, as by sacrifices, entrails,  
cakes, flour, wine, water, birds, lots, or-  
omens, &c. In the sacred writings nine dif-  
ferent sorts of divination are mentioned. The first  
formed by the inspection of planets, stars,  
clouds. The practisers of this are suppo-  
sed to be those whom Moses calls *מעוּנִים meonim*,  
*anan*, a cloud, Deut. xviii. 10. 2. Those  
the prophet calls in the same place *מַחְשֵׁי  
חֶשֶׁךְ cheshch*, which the vulgate and general-  
ly interpreters render *augurs*. 3. Those who  
same place are called *מַכְשֵׁף mekashaph*,  
the septuagint and vulgate translate 'a man  
to ill practices.' 4. Such *augurs* whom  
in the same chapter, ver. 11, calls *חֹזְרֵי  
כֹּחַ chozrei koch*. 5. Those who consult the spirits called *פְּרֹכִים  
or*, as Moses expresses it in the same  
place *שְׂאֵל אוֹב se'el oob*, 'those who ask questions of  
the dead.' 6. Witches or magicians, whom Moses  
calls *יֹדְעֵי יָרְעֵי yodei yerei*. 7. Those who consult the  
necromancers. 8. The prophet Hosea, c.  
12, mentions such as consult staves, *מַכְלֵי  
machelei*, which kind of divination is called *rhadda*.  
9. The last kind is hepatoscopy, or the  
inspection of the liver. Divination of all  
these kinds being the offspring of credulity, nursed  
in error, and strengthened by superstition,  
necessarily an occult science, retained  
the hands of the priests and priestesses, the  
soothsayers, the *augurs*, and other like  
persons, till the time of the coming of  
Christ. Since then the pure doctrines of  
Christianity, and the spirit of philosophy, have  
every day more widely diffused their  
light, and concurred in banishing these visionary op-

The following are the principal kinds of  
divination practised among the ancients. 1. A more  
minute description of which see the  
separate articles. 1. Aeromancy, the art  
of divining by the air. 2. Astrology ; divides



ral astrology and judicial. 3. Augury consisted in observing the flight, singing, &c., of birds. 4. Chiromancy, the art which pretends to discover, by inspecting the hand, not only the fortunes of a man, but his future destiny also. 5. Geomancy was a divination made by observing cracks or clefts in the earth. 6. Haruspicy consisted in the inspection of the bowels of animals, but principally of victims; and from these predicting incidents relative to the republic, and the good or bad events of its enterprises. 7. Horoscopy is a branch of Astrology, which see. 8. Hydromancy is the art of divining by water. The Persians, according to Herodotus, invented it; and Pythagoras and Numa Pompilius made great use of it. 9. Physiognomy, or physiognomancy, is a science that pretends to teach the nature, the temperament, the understanding, and the inclinations of men, by inspection of their countenances, and is there thought by many, to be little less frivolous than chiromancy; though Aristotle, and the celebrated Lavater, have written express treatises concerning it. But as it is an undeniable fact, that our passions, especially when frequently and violently agitated, make indelible impressions on our features, by their repeated action on particular muscles, insomuch that the temperaments of many people may be known at first view in their looks; and as it is not improbable, that certain habits of vice may make impressions equally uniform and perhaps equally legible, if we were accustomed to study them, physiognomy appears to be worthy of rather more attention. 10. Pyromancy is a divination made by the inspection of a flame, either by observing which side it turns, or by throwing into it some combustible matter, or a bladder filled with wine, or any thing else from which they imagined they were able to predict. Natural divination was called, because it was supposed to be not attainable by any rules or precepts of art, but induced or inspired into the diviner, without his requiring any further care about it, than to purify himself by fasting, and prepare himself for the reception of the divine afflatus.

**DIVINING ROD.** We have anticipated, in the article *BAGUETTE DEVINATOIRE*, which see, all we feel disposed to give credence to on this subject: but an ingenious gentleman has lately created the pretensions of the hazel or willow rod to be naturally, under proper management, a discoverer of metals and springs of water, at great depths; and we insert, just as they are applied to us, his directions for choosing the rod, and observations on their properties.

*Directions for choosing the Rods.*—The hazel and willow rods he has, by experience, found, will actually answer with all persons in a state of health, if they are used with motion, and at some distance of time, and at different meals, when the operator is in good spirits. The hazel, willow, and elm, are all attracted by springs of water. Some persons have the rod intermittently; the rod in their hands will rest one half-hour, and repel the next. The rod is attracted by all metals, coals, amber, and stone, but with different degrees of strength. The best rods are those from the hazel or nut-tree, as they are pliant and tough, and cut in the

winter months; a shoot that terminates, equally forked, is to be preferred, about two feet and a half long; but as such a forked rod is rarely to be met with, two single ones of similar length and size may be tied together with thread, and they will answer as well as the other.

The most convenient and handy method of holding the rod, is with the palms of the hands turned upwards, and the two ends of the rod coming outwards: the palms should be held horizontally, as nearly as possible; the part of the rod in the hand ought to be straight, and not bent backward or forward. The upper part of the arm should be kept pretty close to the sides, and the elbows resting on them; the lower part of the arm making nearly a right angle with the upper, though rather a little more acute. The rod ought to be so held, that in its working the sides may move clear of the little fingers.

The best manner of carrying the rod is with the end extended in an angle of about eighty degrees from the horizon, as by this method of carrying it, the repulsion is more plainly perceived than if it was held perpendicularly. But after all the directions that can be given, the adroit use of it can only be attained by practice and attention.

It is necessary that the grasp should be steady, for if, when the rod is going, there be the least succussion or counteraction in the hands, though ever so small, it will greatly impair, and, generally, totally prevent its activity, which is not to be done by the mere strength of the grasp; for provided this be steady, no strength can stop it.

*II. Properties observed in the Rod, and Directions for using it.*—As soon as the person's foremost foot comes near the attracting body (as far as I can observe its semi-diameter), the end of the rod is repelled towards the face; then open the hands a little, replace the rod, and approach nearer, and the repulsion will be continued until the foot is on or over the attracting body. When this is the case, the rod will first be repelled a little, viz. two or three inches, and then be attracted towards the metallic body, viz. its end will be drawn down towards it.

When it has been drawn down, it must not be thrown back without opening the hands, a fresh grasp being necessary to every attraction, but then the least opening of the hand is sufficient. As long as the person stands over the attracting body, the rod continues to be attracted; but as soon as the forefoot is beyond it, then the rod is drawn backward to the face.

Metals have different degrees of attraction; gold is strongest, next copper, then iron, silver, tin, lead, bones, coals, springs of water, and limestone.

In using the rod to discover springs and metals, let the person hold the rod as already directed, and then advancing north or south with a slow pace, just one foot before the other, at first the rod may be repelled; but as the person advances slowly, and comes over the spring or vein of ore, the rod will be strongly attracted.

A person who, by frequent practice and experience, can use the rod tolerably, may soon give the greatest sceptics sufficient satisfaction, except they are determined not to be convinced.



Some have supposed that the science called Rhabdomancy (divination by a rod), is alluded to in the following verse of Hosea:—'My people ask counsel at their stocks, and their staff declareth unto them,' ch. iv. As Europe received in very early times many superstitious customs from the east, together with many useful inventions, the conjecture is not improbable. Divination by arrows, a method of a similar kind mentioned in Ezekiel, chap. xxi., continued among the Arabs till the days of Mahomet, who, in the Koran, forbade his followers this idle attempt at prescience.

**DIVISION**, *n. s.*

**DIVIS'IBLE**, *adj.*

**DIVIS'IBLENESS**, *n. s.*

**DIVISIBIL'ITY**, *n. s.*

**DIVISOR**.

divided; the separated part, and that which separates: hence disunion, discord, dispute; a rule of arithmetic: divisible is capable of division; divisibility, quality of admitting it. Divisor, an arithmetical term for a given number by which another is divided.

I will put a *division* between my people and thy people.

*Exodus.*

Thy tongue

Makes Welsh as sweet as ditties highly penned

Sung by a fair queen in a summer's bower,

With ravishing *division*, to her lute.

*Shakspeare. Henry IV.*

Naturalists disagree about the origin of motion, and the indefinite *divisibleness* of matter.

*Boyle.*

This will easily appear to any one, who will let his thoughts loose in the vast expansion of space, or *divisibility* of matter.

*Locke.*

Express the heads of your *divisions* in as few and clear words as you can, otherwise I never can be able to retain them.

*Swift.*

If we look into communities and *divisions* of men, we observe that the discreet man, not the witty, guides the conversation.

*Addison's Spectator.*

The effects of human industry and skill are easily subjected to calculation: whatever can be completed in a year, is *divisible* into parts, of which each may be performed in the compass of a day.

*Adventurer.*

When we frame in our minds any notion of matter, we conceive nothing else but extension and bulk, which is impenetrable, or *divisible* and passive.

*Bentley's Sermons.*

In dread *divisions* marched the marshalled bands,  
And swarming armies blackened all the lands.

*Darwin.*

**DIVISIBILITY**, in physics, is that property by which the particles of matter in all bodies are capable of a separation or disunion from each other. The Peripatetics and Cartesians hold divisibility to be an affection of all matter. The Epicureans, again, allow it to agree to every physical continuum; but they deny that this affection agrees to all bodies, for the primary corpuscles or atoms they maintain to be perfectly insecable and indivisible.

**DIVISIBILITY OF MATTER.** As it is evident that body is extended, so it is no less evident that it is divisible; for since no two particles of matter can exist in the same place, it follows, that they are really distinct from each other; which is all that is meant by being divisible. In this sense the least conceivable particle must still be

divisible, since it will consist of parts which will be really distinct. To illustrate this by a familiar instance.—Let the least imaginable piece of matter be conceived lying on a smooth plane surface, it is evident the surface will not touch it every where: those parts, therefore, which does not touch may be supposed separable from the others, and so on as far as we please; and this is all that is meant when we say that matter is *infinitely divisible*. The infinite divisibility of mathematical quantity is demonstrated geometrically. All that is supposed, however, in static geometry, says Mr. Maclaurin, concerning the divisibility of magnitude, amounts to no more than that a given magnitude may be conceived to be divided into a number of parts equal to any given or proposed number. The number of parts, into which a given magnitude may be conceived to be divided, is not to be fixed or limited, because no given number is so great but a greater may be conceived and assigned: but there is not, therefore, any necessity of supposing the number of parts actually infinite; and if some have drawn very absurd consequences from such a supposition, yet geometry ought not to be loaded with them. How far matter may be divided, may, in some measure, be conceived from this fact, that a piece of wire gilt with so small a quantity of eight grains of gold, may be drawn out to a length of 13,000 feet, the whole surface of it still remaining covered with gold. We have also a surprising instance of the minuteness of some parts of matter from the nature of light and heat. Let a candle be lighted, and placed in an open plain, it will then be visible two miles round, and consequently were it placed two miles above the surface of the earth, it would fill with luminous particles a sphere whose diameter was four miles, and that before it had lost any sensible part of its weight. A quantity of vitriol being dissolved, and mixed with 9000 times as much water, will tinge the whole; consequently will be divided into as many parts as there are visible portions of matter in that quantity of water. With respect also to coloring substances, particularly carmine, which is a kind of powder obtained from the insect commonly called cochineal: dilute a small quantity of this powder, to the weight of about three quarters of a grain, by putting it at the bottom of a vessel, in which is afterwards poured nearly thirty pounds of water; the color will be so diffused as to be perceptible throughout the whole volume of the water. The weight of this water being 300,000 times greater than that of five centigrammes of carmine, if it be supposed that each centigramme of the fluid mixture contains only two molecules of the coloring principle, there will be 3,000,000 of vitriol parts in five centigrammes of carmine. Many perfumes also, without a sensible diminution of their quantity, fill a very large space with their odoriferous particles; which must therefore be of an inconceivable smallness, since there will be a sufficient number in every part of that space sensibly to affect the organ of smelling. Dr. Keill demonstrates, that any particle of matter how small soever, and any finite space, how large soever, being given, it is possible for that small particle of matter to be diffused through



all that space, and to fill it in such a manner, as that there shall be no pore in it whose diameter shall exceed any given line. The chief objections against the divisibility of matter in infinitum are, That an infinite cannot be contained by a finite: and that it follows from a divisibility in infinitum, either that all bodies are equal, or that one infinite is greater than another. But the answer to these is easy; for the properties of a determined quantity are not to be attributed to an infinite considered in a general sense; and who has ever proved, that there could not be an infinite number of infinitely small parts in a finite quantity, or that all infinities are equal? The contrary is demonstrated by mathematicians in innumerable instances. Sir Isaac Newton is said to have derived from the system of Epicurus, the following opinion relative to the limits prescribed to the divisions of body in the actual state of things. We confess it seems to us nothing but a bold conjecture. This great philosopher conceives that the Supreme Being, in creating matter, formed it of various species of elementary molecules, solid, hard, unchangeable, the figures and the different qualities of which were appropriated to the respective ends they were proposed to answer. But such is the fixity of these molecules that no process of art, nor even any force existing in nature, can either divide or alter them, unless the essence of the body should be changed with time. Thus all the modifications experienced by bodies depend solely upon this, that these durable molecules separate the one from the other, and then become reunited in various ways forming new combinations. These different molecules are, hence, the simple substances of chemistry; and the results of the operations which they would present singly, should be the design of the efforts of this science; in the mean time we may consider as simple the substances which we have not yet been able to decompose, and wisely imagine simplicity to reside at the place where observation stops. See the article INFINITE.

**DIVISION**, in sea affairs, a select number of ships in a fleet or squadron of men of war, distinguished by a particular flag or pendant, and usually commanded by a general officer. A squadron is commonly ranged into three divisions, the commanding officer of which is always stationed in the centre. When a fleet consists of sixty sail of the line, that is, of ships having at least sixty cannon each, the admiral divides it into three squadrons, each of which has its divisions and commanding officers. Each squadron has its proper colors, according to the rank of the admiral, and every division its proper mast. Thus in Britain, the first admiral, or the admiral of the fleet, displays the union flag at the main-top-mast head; next follows the white flag with St. George's cross; and afterwards the blue. The private ships carry pendants of the same color with their respective squadrons at the mast of their particular divisions; so that the last ship in the division of the blue squadron carries a blue pendant at her mizen-top-mast head.

**DIVISIONS OF AN ARMY**, in the military art, the several brigades and squadrons into which it is cantoned.

**DIVISIONS OF A BATTALION** are the several platoons into which it is divided in marching or firing, each of which is commanded by an officer.

**DIUM**, in ancient geography, the name of a town of Macedonia, in Pieria, on the west side of the Sinus Thermaicus. Strabo and Livy place it on the borders of Pieria to the south, at the foot of mount Olympus towards Thessaly. That it was a splendid city, appears from Polybius; who relates, that its gymnasium and walls were overthrown by the Ætolians. From which overthrow, however, it again recovered, Alexander adding new splendor to it, by the brass statues cast by Lysippus and erected there in memory of those slain at the Granicus: an ornament which was continued down to the time of the Romans; who made it a colony, called Diensis.

**DIVODORUM**, in ancient geography, a town of the Mediatrix in Gallia Belgica; situated on the Moselle, in the spot where Metz now stands. See METZ.

**DIVORCE**, *v. a. & n. s.* } Fr. *divorcer*; It. *di-*

**DIVORCEMENT**, *n. s.* } *divorzare*; from Barb.

**DIVOR'CE**. } Lat. *divortere*; *dis*

and *vertere*, *à marito*, to turn, from her husband. The legal separation of a husband and wife, the verb being derived from the noun: hence disunion, or separation generally; and separation by authority or force. Divorcement seems synonymous with the substantive; and a divorcer is, he who causes or procures a divorce.

Write her a bill of *divorcement*, and give it in her hand, and send her out of his house. *Deut.* xxiv. 1.

If so be it were possible, that all other ornaments of mind might be had in their full perfection, nevertheless the mind that should possess them, divorced from piety, could be but a spectacle of commiseration.

*Hooker.*

To restore the king,

He counsels a *divorce*, a loss of her,

That like a jewel has hung twenty years

About his neck, yet never lost her lustre.

*Shakespeare. Henry VIII.*

Go with me, like good angels, to my end;

And, as the long *divorce* of steel falls on me,

Make of your prayers one sweet sacrifice,

And lift my soul to heaven.

*Id.*

The continent and the island were continued together within men's remembrance by a drawbridge; but are now *divorced* by the downfallen cliffs.

*Carew's Survey of Cornwall.*

Such motions may occasion a farther alienation of mind, and *divorce* of affections, in her, from my religion.

*King Charles.*

So seemed her youthful soul not easily forced,

Or from so fair, so sweet a seat *divorced*.

*Waller.*

*Divorce* is a lawful separation of husband and wife, made before a competent judge, on due cognizance had of the cause, and sufficient proof made thereof.

*Ayliffe's Parergon.*

Death is the violent stranger of acquaintance, the eternal *divorce* of marriage.

*Drummond's Cyprian Grove.*

Aerial pasture the lungs with gentle force

Constant embrace by turns, by turns *divorce*.

*Blackmore.*

**DIVORCE**. This is a topic connected with many moral and legal considerations; and those of sufficient importance, we apprehend, to justify



our entering upon it at some length. Scarcely has the country survived the moral effects of a recent discussion of it in the highest quarters, and in the inner sanctuary of British justice. It will be sufficient to remark, with regard to that unhappy circumstance, that both the learned professions appeared in a state of even unusual obscurity and doubt upon the subject. Lawyers, unquestionably well versed in the institutions of their country, were as singularly divided with regard to the fair effect of some of our statutes and usages respecting divorce, as the learned prelates were disagreed among themselves respecting what was really the law of God.

The writer of this paper has had occasion to pay considerable attention to this subject, both in a moral and legal point of view. He has seen the laws of his country to be in a remarkable state of confusion respecting it; he is convinced that their ordinary course, with regard to divorces, is opposed to the simple provisions of the law of Jesus Christ. He would therefore offer to the reader a brief statement of the actual laws and practices of this country on the subject, with a view to the examination of their moral effect and propriety; then compare them with the provisions and usages of antiquity generally: and finally, with the express injunctions of Holy Writ.

1. There are many kinds of divorce, say the law authorities mentioned in our books; as *causa præcontractus*; *causa frigiditatis*; *causa consanguinitatis*; *causa affinitatis*; *causa professionis*, &c. But the usual divorces are of two kinds, i. e. *à mensa et thoro*, from bed and board; and *à vinculo matrimonii*, from the very bond of marriage. A divorce *à mensa et thoro* does not dissolve the marriage; for the cause of it is subsequent to the marriage, and supposes the marriage to be lawful: this divorce may be by reason of adultery in either of the parties, for cruelty of the husband, &c. And as it does not dissolve the marriage, so it does not debar the woman of her dower, or bastardise the issue, or make void any estate for the life of husband and wife, &c. Co. Lit. 235; 3 Inst. 89; 7 Rep. 43. The woman under separation by this divorce must sue by her next friend; and in her own name she may sue her husband for alimony.

A divorce *à vinculo matrimonii*, absolutely dissolves the marriage, and makes it void from the beginning, the causes of it being *precedent* to the marriage; as præcontract with some other person, consanguinity or affinity, within the Levitical degrees, impotency, impuberty, &c. On this divorce dower is gone; and if, by reason of præcontract, consanguinity, or affinity, the children of the marriage are bastards. But in these divorces, the wife, it is said, shall receive all again that she brought with her, because the nullity of the marriage arises through some impediment; and the goods of the wife were given for her advancement in marriage, which now ceases: but this is where the goods are not spent; and if the husband give them away during the coverture, without any collusion, it shall bind her: if she knows her goods unspent, she may bring action of detinue for them; and as for money, &c., which cannot be known, she must sue in the

spiritual court. This divorce enables the parties to marry again.

In regard to the former case, it is the practice in the higher walks of life to apply to parliament to complete the divorce by an *ex post facto* law, when, if the divorce is grounded, as it almost invariably is, on adultery, it is necessary that a clause be inserted in the proposed bill, intending the offending parties from intermarriage. Evidence must be given, on the bill, that no action for damages has been brought against the seducer, and judgment for the plaintiff had thereon, or a sufficient reason given why no action was not brought, or judgment obtained. Upon the second reading of the bill in the house of lords (where, indeed, it usually originates), it is necessary that an official copy of the proceedings, and definitive sentence of divorce *à mensa et thoro*, in the ecclesiastical court, at the suit of the petitioner, be delivered at the bar on oath; and that the petitioner attend the house to be examined, if the house think fit, whether there be any collusion respecting the act of adultery, or the divorce, or any action for criminal conversation; and whether the wife was living apart from her husband under articles of separation.

If after a divorce *à mensa et thoro*, either of the parties marry again, the other being living, such marriage is a mere nullity; and by sentence to confirm the first contract, she and he first husband become husband and wife to all intents, without any formal divorce from the second. Also on this divorce, as the marriage continues, marrying again while either party is living, hath been held to be bigamy within the stat. 1 Jac. c. 11.

A divorce for adultery was anciently *à vinculo matrimonii*; and therefore in the beginning of the reign of queen Elizabeth the opinion of the church of England was, that after a divorce for adultery, the parties might marry again; but in Foliambe's case, H. 44 El. in the star-chamber, that opinion was changed; and archbishop Bancroft, by the advice of divines, held, that adultery was only a cause of divorce *à mensa et thoro*. Sentence of divorce must be given in the life of the parties, and not afterwards: but it may be repealed in the spiritual court, after the death of the parties.

It should be added that divorce is, according to our law, a judgment spiritual; hence it must be sued for and pronounced in the spiritual court, where also, 'says Coke upon Littleton,' if there be occasion, it ought to be reversed; and that the canon law, by which these courts are regulated, is followed by the common law, in considering the nuptial tie so strong as not to be capable of being *unloosed* for any cause whatever. Our law, in fact, refers throughout to the Romish notion of the sacrament of marriage, and its utter indissolubility. Such, without entering into minute provisions, is the law and practice of our enlightened country on this important subject.

2. Divorce was allowed in much greater freedom in all the celebrated nations of antiquity. At Rome, barrenness, age, disease, madness, and banishment, were the ordinary causes of divorce. Spurius Carvilius, between 500 and 600 years



ing of Rome, under the consulship and P. Valerius, was the first who wife because she was barren; th, in his Roman questions, main- nition was the first who permitted inian afterwards added impotence, astity, and the profession of a as valid reasons of divorce. The is distinguish between repudium ; making the former to be the contract or espousal, and the latter r matrimony. Romulus enacted a ich suffered not a wife to leave her ave the man the liberty of turning for adultery, for poisoning her counterfeiting his private keys. ater times, the women as well as sue for a divorce. The common ng was by sending a bill to the oing the reasons of separation, and her goods which she brought with was called *repudium mittere*; or rmed in her presence, and before s, and accompanied with the for- aring the writings, refunding the away the keys, and turning the doors.

Laws concerning divorces were Cretans allowed divorce to any afraid of having too many children. eldom divorced their wives; and ly scandalous for a woman to de- usband. The Athenians allowed small grounds, by a bill contain- of the divorce, and approved, if led, by the chief magistrate; and re allowed to leave their husbands ions. Persons divorcing their liged to return their portions; Athenian laws obliged them to i a month for alimony. The ng the separation of men and ch other were different; the men *μηνον* or *απολειναι*, to dismiss their es, *απολειπειν*, to leave their hus-

o Ricaut (State, Ottom. Emp. ch. among the Turks three degrees of first only separates the man and same house and bed, the mainte- life being still continued: the se- lvides them in that manner, but s compelled to make good her is a jointure or dowry promised , so as to have no interest in him d to remain in a free condition to

The third sort of divorce, which i Talae, is made in a solemn and inner, with more rigorous terms and in this case the husband, re- divorce, and desirous of retaking t by the law be admitted to her nsenting to, and contenting him- being temporarily possessed by which the law requires as a pun- husband's lightness and incon- sages seem to have grown out of homet, who, in the second chap- an, has ordered that if a man di-

vorce his wife the third time (for he may divorce her twice without being obliged to part with her) if he repent of what he has done, it shall not be lawful for him to take her again, until she has been first married and bedded by another, and divorced by such second husband. (Koran, ch. ii. p. 27). The precaution, on the whole, has had so good an effect, that the Mahommedans are seldom known to proceed to the extremity of divorce, notwithstanding the liberty given them; it being reckoned a great disgrace so to do: and there are few, except those who have little or no sense of honor, that will take a wife again on the condition enjoined. (Seld. ubi. Sup. l. iii. c. 21; Ricaut's Ottom. Emp. b. ii. c. 21). It must be observed, also, that though a man is allowed, by the Mahommedan law, to repudiate his wife, even on the slightest disgust, yet the women are not allowed to separate themselves from their husbands, unless it be for ill usage, want of proper maintenance, neglect of conjugal duty, impotency, or some cause of equal import; but then she generally loses her dowry, which she does not lose if divorced by her husband, unless she has been guilty of impudicity or notorious disobedience. (Koran, ch. iv. p. 62). When a woman is divorced she is obliged, by the direction of the Koran, to wait three months before she marry another; after which time, in case she be not found with child, she is at full liberty to dispose of herself as she pleases; but if she prove with child she must wait till she be delivered: and, during her whole term of waiting, she may continue in her husband's house, and is to be maintained at his expense; it being forbidden to turn a woman out before the expiration of the term, unless she be guilty of dishonesty. (Koran, ch. ii. p. 26, 27; ch. lxxv. p. 454). Where a man divorces a woman before consummation, she is not obliged to wait any particular time (Koran, ch. xxxiii. p. 348); nor is he obliged to give her more than one-half of her dower. (Koran, ch. ii. p. 28). If the divorced woman have a young child, she is to suckle it till it be two years old; the father, in the mean time, maintaining her in all respects: a widow is also obliged to do the same, and to wait four months and ten days before she marry again. (Koran, ch. ii. p. 27).

The divine law to the Jews on this subject is to this effect (Deut. xxiv. 1, &c.): 'When a man hath taken a wife, and married her, and it come to pass that she finds no favor in his eyes, because he has found in her some uncleanness; then let him write her a bill of divorcement, and give it into her hand, and send her out of his house. And when she is departed, she may go, and be another man's wife; and if her second husband hate her, and write her a bill of divorce, or if he chance to die, her former husband shall not take her again to be his wife, after she is defiled, for that is an abomination to the Lord.' A question has occurred respecting the interpretation of this law, What is meant by the words, 'if he find any uncleanness, turpitude, or nakedness in her?' and the critics are divided in opinion about it. Dr. Geddes has rendered the Hebrew words, פרות רכר, 'some defect,' but they are by Montanus rendered nuditatem verbi —by our translators, 'something unclean.' Sept.



*ασχημον πραγμα.* Vulg. aliquam feditatem, and so equivalently Onk. Syr. and both Arabs. But Tharg. פתח עבירה, 'some transgression;' and this transgression is supposed by Rabbi Sammai and his followers to be adultery. R. Hillel and his party extend the עבירה to whatever may displease the husband; and such appears to have been the loose construction of this law in our Saviour's time. The opinion of the Sammaites is untenable; for adultery was punished with death; while that of the Hillelites appears to be too lax. It was probably either some very great bodily blemish, or some base immoral habit, that was meant by the legislator. The form of the bill of divorce was to this effect: 'Such a day, month, or year, I, such an one, of such a place, upon, or, near such a river, do, of my own free consent and choice, repudiate thee, such an one, my late wife, banish thee from me, and restore thee to thy own liberty; and thou mayest henceforth go whither, and marry whom thou wilt: and this is thy bill of divorcement, and writing of expulsion, according to the law of Moses and Israel.' This writing was signed by two witnesses, and delivered in the presence of as many, at least. From this time, the wife was as much at her liberty, as if she had been a widow; only, in both cases, she was obliged to stay at least ninety days, before she was married to another, lest she should prove pregnant by the last. It does not appear that women were indulged by the law of Moses with the privilege of divorcing their husbands upon the same ground; unless in the case of a virgin betrothed by her parents before she was twelve years of age, who might then refuse to ratify the contract which her parents had made, without giving any other reason than that she did not like the person designed for her; but this cannot be called a divorcement, because there is no marriage in the case. Josephus, therefore, thinks (Ant. lib. xv. c. 11; xviii. 7; xx. 15), that a divorce was so far from being permitted to women, that, if the husband forsook his wife, it was not lawful for her to marry another, till she had first obtained a divorce from him. He adds, that Salome, sister of Herod the Great, was the first who took upon her to repudiate her husband, whose example was soon followed by others, mentioned by the same author.

3. Let us now regard the subject more particularly in its various relations to society, and as a topic of legislation with the great Christian lawgiver.

Divorce is always an evil. The sufferings of the innocent, the regrets of the wise and virtuous, and the abhorrence of God, attend upon it; while it opens a breach in the foundations of human society to which no other domestic evil is comparable. That it may be the refuge of a good man from the vices of an incorrigible companion, and the prospect of indefinite future injuries, who can deny? but never can it be his remedy for the past; never will it offer any thing to his mind in the shape of compensation. It is of that species of punishment on the guilty, of which the innocent is compelled to share the shame and the suffering, in a peculiar manner; and to bear, perhaps, in this life the chief mis-

ries. The feelings of the mind that preserve that innocence, the very affections that group and support him in the path of duty, prepare for him present sufferings, against which the criminal party must be hardened; and to the same remote generations, that bear the tale of delinquency on the one side, the humiliation, and, generally, the groundless blame of the other, will be faithfully conveyed.

As far as the immediate parties to a divorce are concerned, all the objects and uses of marriage are ruinously overthrown and defeated by it. The husband (following the supposition of his being the innocent party), can no longer—never more, perhaps, can he—regard the character of woman in its true light. No longer can she power to infuse a peculiar sensibility into his heart, to give candor and patience to his mind, or sweetness to his disposition. All his reflections of her influence are calculated to excite just the opposite feelings. 'More bitter than death,' have been the consequences of his submission to it. And when the husband is the guilty, and the wife the innocent party (for the only just cause of divorce will compel the Christian moralist to hold the balance even between the sexes), what must the widowed heart of an all-confiding female endure? It is hardly possible that she should ever more look up to man; that she should again believe that his judgment can strengthen hers, or his character become a safe pillar of her hope.

The mischiefs of divorce are but too often capable of a still greater aggravation, i. e. when children are connected with its consequences. For a father's authority (in our boyish days particularly) it is as impossible to find a substitute as for a mother's care in earlier life. Let us parents forget, that no hireling, however faithful or respectable, can do their duty to their children—a duty ever, as a whole, intransferable, because he is a hireling; but divorces generally break into a family when all that is most important in the character of each parent should be in full exercise; when, if there are children, they are in tender years, and every thing in relation to the character and hopes is in the bud, or in blossom. Now, either 'father,' or 'mother' (names especially in conjunction, of greater moral power than any other that belong to creatures), become a term worse than unmeaning, worse than dead. As soon as the mind can be influenced by the paternal example, it is weakened on the side of virtue and influenced to evil by one or other of the endearing and important names; which it connects for life with the ideas of tyranny, cruelty, and profligacy—or with those of tenderness, and folly, and female shamelessness. It is this all; though one of the less direct, it is not one of the least blessings of marriage to society, that it frequently draws together numerous collateral parties into kindred, and, like a wide branch of an inland navigation, unites the sources and bleeds the interests of distant neighbourhoods. Imagine this one branch be obstructed or annihilated, and the effect felt wherever its waters flow. Something like this, or worse than this, occurs in every case



rer just. Amongst all the parties affinity with the original tie, the it distils evil. Where only ordi- shes were increased by it, and ts and smiling cousins felt it but mber the relationship when it did n their selfishness, or on prior rnest discussion of the facts and the merits and demerits of the ad; and wounded pride will be ctive of hatred and of falsehoods, ties ordinarily are of affection. is thus a party affair with a num- and individuals, an evil unseen, with the increasing intelligence of —and proportionably destroying of virtue amongst them, by fami- with the details of the worst of

remarkable that we have a most aquisition on this subject from the

As his prose writings generally, ical sentiments in particular, have ed considerable public notice, we d to notice his views of divorce detail. He had made what he a disastrous and misyoked mar- xiless mistake; in which it were about to compel the unhappy flesh, as to weave a garment of pel the vegetable and nutritive re to assimilations and mixtures alterable each by the other; or ctive stomach to turn that into so totally unlike that substance wrought upon.' In other words, oets had proved himself but man a wife; and because she was not nan in bearing with his learned home, and not a well advised or , in refusing to return home after e at her father's house, Milton s 'no wife,' 'an adversary,' 'a l actually paid his addresses to ith a view to supplying her place. the poet's history speaks of a ro- ation taking place between them is feet in tears at the house of a after a short reluctance, he sacri- tment to her entreaties, and the urrounding friends. To this event, mton, we owe much of the paint- ethetic scene in *Paradise Lost*, in resses herself to Adam for pardon ow then, the 'mistake' was re- congenial 'assimilations' mixed; ion of divorce and his 'adver- one flesh:' but he had published, t, his work on Divorce, and ence of it; and he through e theory he had, under these un- stances, espoused. Milton com- ets on the treatment he received , and particularly from the clergy, hese works. In one he says:—

of late, called Tetrachordon  
ose, both matter, form, and style;  
w: it walked the town awhile,  
intellects; now seldom pored on.

Cries the stall-reader, 'Bless us! what a word on  
A title-page is this!' And some in file  
Stand spelling false, while one might walk to Mile-  
End-Green.—

In the other he is more serious:—

I did but prompt the age to quit their clogs  
By the known rules of ancient liberty,  
When straight a barbarous noise environs me  
Of owls and cuckoos, asses, apes, and dogs:  
As when those hinds that were transformed to frogs,  
Railed at Latona's twin-born progeny,  
Which after held the sun and moon in fee.  
But this is got by casting pearls to hogs,  
That bawl for freedom in their senseless mood,  
And still revolt when truth would set them free.

A definition of marriage, which the poet fur- nishes in due form and order, certainly lies at the basis of the 'Doctrine of Divorce.'

'The material cause of matrimony,' says Milton, 'is man and woman; the author and efficient, God and their consent. The internal form and soul of this relation is conjugal love, arising from a mutual fitness to the final causes of wedlock,—help, and society in religious, civil, and domestic conversation, which includes, as an inferior end, the fulfilling of natural desire and specifical increase; these are the final causes, both moving the efficient and perfecting the form.' p. 272.

Or again, and with all the eloquence of a dis- appointed lover:—

'Marriage is a divine institution, joining man and woman in a love fitly disposed to the helps and comforts of domestic life. A divine insti- tution. This contains the prime efficient cause of marriage: 'Joining man and woman in a love, &c. This brings in the parties' con- sent, until which be, the marriage hath no true being. When I say 'consent,' I mean not error: for error is not properly consent; and why should not consent be here understood with equity and good to either part, as in all other friendly covenants—and not be strained and cruelly urged to the mischief and destruction of both! Neither do I mean that singular act of consent which made the contract; for that may remain, and yet the marriage not true nor law- ful; and that may cease, and yet the marriage both true and lawful, to their sin that break it. So that either as no efficient at all, or but a trans- itory, it comes not into the definition. That consent I mean which is a love fitly disposed to mutual help and comfort of life; this is that happy form of marriage, naturally arising from the very heart of divine institution in the text, in all the former definitions either obscurely, and under mistaken terms expressed, or not at all. This gives marriage all her due, all her benefits, all her being, all her distinct and proper being. This makes a marriage not a bondage—a bless- ing not a curse—a gift of God not a snare. Unless there be a love, and that love born of fitness, how can it last? Unless it last, how can the best and sweetest purposes of marriage be attained? And they not attained, which are the chief ends, and with a lawful love con- stitute the formal cause itself of marriage, how can the essence thereof subsist? How can it be,



indeed, what it goes for? Conclude, therefore, by all the power of reason, that where this essence of marriage is not, there can be no true marriage; and the parties, either one of them or both, are free, and without fault, rather by a nullity than by a divorce, may betake them to a second choice, if their present condition be not tolerable to them. If any shall ask, why 'domestic' in the definition? I answer, that because both in the Scriptures, and in the gravest poets and philosophers, I find the properties and excellencies of a wife set out only from domestic virtues; if they extend further, it diffuses them into the motion of some more common duty than matrimonial.' pp 276, 7.

We have but one objection to both these definitions. They envelope in a cloud of words the chief design of marriage; or rather they wholly mis-state its chief design to be the personal comfort of the immediate parties. 'Help and society in religious, civil, and domestic conversation;' 'a love fitly disposed to the help and comfort [of each other] in domestic life.' The relative bearing of the institution, or its aspect towards society at large, is almost wholly overlooked. Now we are not about to tempt an unequal warfare with the able quills, or still more formidable frowns, of our fair countrywomen, by denying for one moment the reality of the 'only want' of our primitive sire; or disputing the superior personal comforts he enjoyed, after the formation of his bride. But even a Milton must not be allowed to stigmatise, in prose, the dearest hope of the marriage state, the possession of children, as 'an inferior end' of marriage. We contrast such a sentiment with the nobler views of the author of *Paradise Lost*, and smile at the versatility of our nature:—

Hail wedded love, mysterious law, true source  
Of human offspring, sole propriety  
In Paradise, of all things common else!  
By thee adulterous lust was driven from men  
Among the bestial herds to range; by thee,  
Founded in reason, loyal, just, and pure,  
Relations dear, and all the charities  
Of father, son, and brother, first were known.

The Roman moralist (Cicero) understood the matter better than either of these definitions state it: or rather, unbiassed by his private grievances in respect to marriage (for he too had them, it will be remembered), he expressed its great objects far more correctly, when he called it 'The beginning of a city, the seminary of the commonwealth.' In fact, if either the Mosaic narrative of the original institution, or the positive declaration of the almighty Author, is to be held decisive on the subject, the relative objects of marriage, as a 'source of human offspring,' and a natural guarantee of their education, far from being subordinate to any other, constituted his principal design in it. Every other part of creation is represented by the sacred historian as containing, at its birth, some provision for its perpetuity. Light is divided into successive days; the gramineous tribes are secured against destruction in the seed which they yield, and the fruits in that which they contain; all the inferior creatures of the deep, the earth, and the air, are created 'after their kind:' and God saw this arrangement,

in particular, to be טוב 'good,' perfect, complete. The male of the human species only was, it has produced 'alone;' perhaps to teach man more distinctly some of the lessons we are about to consider. This was 'not good,' not a perfect arrangement with regard to man; it did not provide for the complete development of the divine plans concerning him. Marriage was accordingly instituted; and the nuptial benediction pronounced in these terms: 'Be fruitful, and multiply, and replenish the earth, and subdue it, and have dominion over the fish of the sea, and over the fowl of the air, and over every living thing that moveth upon the earth.' Jehovah's formal for man 'a companion, a covenanted wife.' Did he not make (two) one flesh? And is there not one spirit thereto? And what doth he seek? A godly seed.' Abp. Newcome's version of *Mal. ii. 15*. The endearing names of husband and wife are subordinated by revelation to the important duties of parents. It is truly surprising to see so accurate a textuary, so good a moralist, and so profound a divine, as Milton unquestionably was, bringing together a ponderous volume on marriage and divorce, in which this consideration does not occupy the extent of one page.

The parties then, as we contend, who are in the first instance capable of forming a good and binding marriage, are incapable afterwards of dissolving the contract. The will that binds becomes bound by its own act, and the tie can neither be less strong nor less reasonable on that account. Too common is the notion of measuring the obligation of this, the most important of our voluntary engagements, by the same sort of capricious feeling in which it often originates. With regard, indeed, to the particular persons we marry, we are and may justifiably be directed by our own inclinations and preference; but if hence it is assumed, that inclination rather than duty may be a safe future rule, a decent recollection of the ends of marriage will show the fallacy of the conclusion; while to the Christian, who sincerely feels that 'the way of man is not in himself,' it will appear perfectly monstrous. Various are the contracts that bring us into such new relations to others, that, after having once voluntarily engaged in them, no power of withdrawal is reserved to us. The formal promises and promissory undertakings of the merchant, most of the actual engagements of the learned professions, the acceptance of political office and military rank, but all marriages pre-eminently, are contracts of this description. They bring us into a new moral state; we disengage ourselves from one class of duties, and undertake another; and our good or evil conduct supports the good or evil, promotes the prosperity or adversity, of all men of our class. If we would retreat, we cannot replace numerous other interested parties, nor can we be ourselves replaced in our respective situations before contracting. Amongst these other interested parties to marriage, the appointment of God and nature places pre-eminently—children. Their being is to be considered as a matter of course, and the promotion of their moral well-being as a matter of duty, attendant upon every marriage;—a seed,



and 'a godly seed.' The cases in which this relation may be lawfully entered into, without any view to the obtaining a family, are to be regarded as exceptions to the general purposes of the institution; they are clearly out of analogy with what we have seen to be its chief design.

We would press particularly on the consideration of the moral reader, married or unmarried, the divinely established connexion between marriage and education. Men and women are united, when God is duly acknowledged to join them together, for objects worthy their own future destiny. A new tribe of creatures, wearing the image of our Almighty Maker, is designed to spring from the union—creatures whose duties, and whose happiness, whose temporal, and whose everlasting destiny, will be more materially affected by the conduct of their parents, as such, than by that of any other human beings. These are the parties, for the sake of whom Christianity has banished polygamy, and restrained divorce; for the sake of whom, even the course of nature seems to dictate the expediency of pairing, and the permanency of the marriage tie, all animals, whose care is necessary for the rearing of their young, having a similar instinct; and none discharging them while their parental care is important:—but what animal has eternal destinies connected with that care, except man? In an age greatly distinguished for the promotion of education by substitute, we have never seen these considerations sufficiently insisted upon in print. Let us educate by substitute, we say, and let any adequate moral superintendence be introduced, when there are no means (from whatever cause) of bringing the parent to watch over and control the machinery of education. But where this can be done, let it be done. It ought to be done. It is the Divine appointment that it should be done; and in those classes of society that have so laudably stood forward for the benefit of others, it is ever practicable—it should ever be borne in view.

Our poet's 'Doctrine of Divorce,' proportionally defective with his definition of marriage, would place the most important of our voluntary contracts on the weakest of all possible grounds. With him, the peculiar temperament of mind and character which first determines us to marry a particular person may, if afterwards reversed, reverse and annul the bond. 'Indisposition, unfitness, or contrariety of mind!' It would be irreverence to the memory of this great man, to multiply quotations from his mode of reasoning on the subject.

Milton defends his doctrine by contending that the law of Moses on this subject is not, in point of fact, repealed by Jesus Christ; and that as other reasons of divorce than actual adultery were allowed by the Jewish legislator, the Christian magistrate should yet admit of them. He minutely examines the celebrated text, Deut. xxiv. 1; and compares it with the original institution of marriage; insisting that no covenant whatever obliges against the main end of itself and the parties covenanting, which main end he calls, in marriage, the 'remedy of loneliness' in man. He then objects to the ignorance and in-

equity, as he terms it, of the 'canon law, providing for the right of the body in marriage, but nothing for the wrongs and grievances of the mind.' He contends, that the ordinary construction of Matt. v. 32, as repealing the Mosaic law, in reality charges that law with conniving at open and common adultery among the chosen people of God. Nine reasons are given (chap. ii. to xiii.) for the Mosaic precept, thus assumed to be still in force. 1. A meet and proper conversation is the chiefest end of marriage. 2. Without this law, marriage, as it happens oft, is not a remedy of that [kind] which it promises [to be]. 3. Without it, he who finds nothing but remediless offences and discontents, is in greater temptations than ever before. 4. God regards love and peace in the family more than a compulsive performance. 5. Nothing more hinders and disturbs the whole life of a Christian, than a matrimony found to be incurably unfit. 6. To prohibit divorce sought for natural causes is against nature. 7. Sometimes the continuance in marriage may be evidently the shortening or endangering of life. 8. It is probable, or rather certain, that every one who happens to marry hath not the calling. 9. Marriage is not a mere carnal coition, but a human society. Such are the contents of book I. of the *Doctrine and Discipline of Divorce*.

He examines, in his second book, the Christian doctrine on the subject. Christ, it is insisted, neither 'did nor could' abrogate the law of divorce, but only reprobated the abuse thereof. He afterwards combats the common exposition of divorce being permitted to the Jews, 'because of the hardness of their hearts,' and insists, that the law cannot permit, much less enact a permission of, sin; that to allow sin by law is against the nature of law; that if divorce be no command, neither is marriage; and that divorce could be no dispensation, if it were sinful.

He further objects, that if a dispensation of the real law of marriage be supposed, Christians need it as much as the Jews did, and that the gospel is apter to dispense than the law. In defining (chap. viii.) the true sense in which Moses suffered divorce for hardness of heart, he says:—

'Moses, Deut. xxiv. 1. established a grave and prudent law, full of moral equity, full of due consideration towards nature, that cannot be resisted, a law consenting with the laws of wisest men and civilised nations; that when a man hath married a wife, if it come to pass that he cannot love her, by reason of some displeasing natural quality or unfitness in her, let him write her a bill of divorce. The intent of which law undoubtedly was this, that if any good and peaceable man should discover some helpless disagreement or dislike, either of mind or body, whereby he could not cheerfully perform the duty of a husband, without the perpetual dissembling of offence and disturbance to his spirit; rather than to live uncomfortably and unhappily, both to himself and to his wife; rather than to continue undertaking a duty, which he could not possibly discharge, he might dismiss her whom he could not tolerably, and so not conscionably, retain. And this law, the spirit of God by the mouth of



Solomon, Prov. xxx. 21, 23, testifies to be a good and a necessary law, by granting it that 'a hated woman' (for so the Hebrew word signifies rather than 'odious,' though it come all to one) that 'a hated woman when she is married, is a thing that the earth cannot bear.' What follows then, but that the charitable law must remedy what nature cannot undergo? pp. 99, 100.

The opening of chap. ix. of this book is, perhaps, the most remarkable part of his whole reasoning. It shows indeed the difficulty of making the worse appear the better cause, in this instance. We recollect no equal display of dignified quibbling:—

'And to entertain a little their overweening arrogance,' he is speaking of our Lord's reply to the Pharisees on this subject, Mark x., 'as best befitted, and to amaze them yet further, because they thought it no hard matter to fulfil the law, he draws them up to that unseparable institution, which God ordained in the beginning before the fall, when man and woman were both perfect, and could have no cause to separate: just as, in the same chapter, he stands not to contend with the arrogant young man, who boasted his observance of the whole law, whether he had indeed kept it or not, but screws him up higher to a task of that perfection, which no man is bound to imitate. And in like manner, that pattern of the first institution he set before the opinionative Pharisees, to dazzle them, and not to bind us. For this is a solid rule, that every command, given with a reason, binds our obedience no otherwise than that reason holds. Of this sort was that command in Eden, 'Therefore shall a man cleave to his wife, and they shall be one flesh;' which we see is no absolute command, but with an inference, 'therefore': the reason then must first be considered, that our obedience be not disobedience. The first is, for it is not single, because the wife is to the husband 'flesh of his flesh,' as in the verse going before. But this reason cannot be sufficient of itself; for why then should he for his wife leave his father and mother, with whom he is far more 'flesh of flesh, and bone of bone,' as being made of their substance? And besides, it can be but a sorry and ignoble society of life, whose inseparable injunction depends merely upon flesh and bones. Therefore we must look higher, since Christ himself recalls us to the beginning; and we shall find that the primitive reason of never divorcing, was that sacred and not vain promise of God to remedy man's loneliness, by 'making him a meet help for him,' though not now, in perfection, as at first, yet still in proportion as things now are.—To make a meet help is the only cause,' he goes on to assert, 'that gives authority to this command of not divorcing to be a command. And it might be further added, that if the true definition of a wife were asked at good earnest, this clause of being 'a meet help' would show itself so necessary and so essential, in that demonstrative argument, that it might be logically concluded; therefore she who naturally and perpetually is no 'meet help' can be no wife; which clearly takes away the difficulty of dismissing such a one.' p. 102—104.

According to the same lax mode of interpreta-

tion, 'whom God hath joined together,' only describes a married pair, 'when their minds are fitly disposed and enabled to maintain a close conversation to the solace and love of each other,' p. 127, and the term 'fornication,' in the extensive clause of Matt. v. 32, &c., will include 'such things as give open suspicion of adulterous conduct, the wilful haunting of feasts, and invitations to men not of her near kindred, the lying lock of her house, without probable cause, the frequenting of theatres against her husband's name,' p. 136.

We are not acquainted with the writings of any modern advocate of these notions who is also a believer in Christianity. The great name of Milton, however, will ever confer a degree of interest on his sentiments generally; while with pleasure reflect, how little it weighs in England, in point of authority on the subject of divorce:—a proof of the predominance of moral feeling on that topic in this country. Let us retain our English household virtues, and the springs of virtuous life and life eternal will be still untouched. But modern infidelity, with its characteristic indifference to all our real good, has spun similar theories to those of Milton on the subject of marriage, even in this land of Bibles; and we cannot forget that the political reign of that abortion of the human mind in France was distinguished for its numerous and most prodigal divorces. Infidelity has recently reared its head amongst us; and is ever likely to renege and act in this way. The idea of marriage, and all its engagements, being mere matters of public right and private feeling, rather than of eternal and irrevocable law between God and man, is perhaps natural to us; but it is not a Christian sentiment: and because all classes of society are warmly interested in reprobating it, we shall venture a little deeper into the topics of marriage and divorce.

We are advocates for adverting at once to revelation, upon every subject on which it professedly treats; and few are the moral duties that are more copiously, or more definitely, exhibited in Scripture, than those of the marriage state. Few are the needful remedies for worse evil, that, in our judgment, are more clearly prescribed in Scripture, than the unhappy one of divorce. The divine Saviour, in referring to the original institution of marriage, calls his heavenly Father, as Chrysostom long ago remarked, 'the Maker of all holy matches.' He professes to republish the primitive law of the institution; he defines it as embracing only two persons, 'They twain shall be one flesh;' he restores the woman to her station of equality, as to the nature and duration of the tie; while he shows that it binds equally both parties from all others, and through the whole of life. The apostolical epistles dwell upon its purposes, honors, and duties. The earliest and most distinguished of the Christian teachers had 'commandments' from 'the Lord' on the topic (1 Cor. vii. 10, 11), which he distinguishes from his own warmest recommendations. He endeavours to illustrate the most profound Christian doctrines by a figurative use of the institution and its duties; which he presses, in detail, as



most important parts of Christian

a of morals Christianity must be decidedly friendly to marriage. It resolutely all the most abominable vices in world to 'forsaking' its whole-ness, while, externally, it exhibits most beneficial influences in society, as it has produced in the condition wherever it has spread. Unhallowed before it. They are not merely re-im-politic, inconvenient, and ruin-emporal consequences, which they are declared to exclude men from of God, 1 Cor. vi. 9, Gal. v. 19.

Other systems of religion trans-ities of human passion and lust to—Christianity brings down heat-into all our earthly affections and interposes a positive command in tuations of society: 'Let every man a wife, let every woman have her ' 'I will that the younger women children, guide the house, give none the adversary to speak reproach-

cts in St. Paul's writings, which, l from their connexion, have been xpress a general preference for ce-m inculcating any such sentiment, when duly compared with their con-blish the very opposite doctrine. e effect, that when marriage may be t degree imprudent, from circum-lerations, it is not in all cases sinful; it may be advisable, and in others 1 Cor. vii. 9. In circumstances of ess, tribulation, (compare Luke xxi. some instances, as had not been e history of the world, and never ded; when all the powers of the ayed in open hostility against the se; when a false philosophy insti-most able, and most amiable disciples, r Pliny and others, watched inqui-the execution of a deliberate at-ruptate Christianity from the earth; advocates and professors (for all the primitive Christianity were its open ome intelligible way) not only were meet in cells and 'caves of the character, but had no certain dwell-individuals; then, indeed, wrote I suppose—it is good, for the pre-for a [single] man so to be.' But adds, 'Art thou bound to a wife? e loosed.' Fear not, despair not. y, thou hast not sinned; and if a she hath not sinned.' Let this ntrusted with the too common spe-arents for the splendid misery of, in either persuading or compel-matches for the mere love of mo-compared with the undue severity hat are called imprudent marriages, are not the advocates, are ordina-y parents, amongst whom adultery le gaiety, especially if committed

with 'the lower orders,' and fornication a mere peccadillo; let it even be taken as a test of the antichristian application and effect of that part of our marriage law which respects the royal family; and the recent unhappy agitation of these topics may yield some ultimate good.

The clear and definite limitations of divorce in the Christian Scriptures occur but infrequently, for the best of all reasons—sincere and discreet Christians can very rarely be interested in them. It is a moral question, upon which no man need seek to be experimentally informed; and the Gospel would teach us to be 'simple concerning that which is evil.' But our great Master more than once delivers a formal judgment on the topic: and the apostle Paul enlarges and confirms the spirit of the Saviour's rule.

The great duties of marriage, common to both parties, are fidelity, the cultivation of love and peace, the joint pursuit of God's glory in the order of the family, and the education of children. All the individual duties of a husband are comprehended, by inspired wisdom, under one great admonition, 'Husbands, love your wives;' on the proofs of which, however, the New Testament is not silent: while those of a wife are contained in another, 'Let the wife see that she reverence her husband.' These duties supply the best view of the nature of the tie. In point of fact, they can never be fully exercised by one party, without the concurrence of the other. So far, then, there is an essential reciprocity in them: they impart rights to each; from both they command corresponding duties. Christianity knows nothing of human rights that are not thus connected with duty. Without meaning to afford to either a justification for individual negligence on this ground—or to give at once, even to the innocent party, all the power and right of punishing the guilty—clear it is, that revelation regards marriage as a mutual interchange of rights and privileges. Does it grant a husband peculiar, and almost absolute authority? It demands of him a peculiar and equivalent protection of the gentler sex. Does it give him the ruling arm? It also describes him as the moral head of his family, particularly of his wife (Eph. v. 23); and requires from him spiritual and moral wisdom, spiritual and moral conduct, accordingly. On the other hand, has Christianity conferred on woman privileges unknown to her in the ancient world, and even amongst God's chosen people? She is exhorted also to an intelligent submission and obedience, and to exhibit an unreserved devotion to the wants and comforts of man, never before required, and fully equal to the protection she claims. They are formed to develop each other's excellencies—to bear with, and to win away each other's faults: 'The man is not without the woman,' not himself—not the man that God made, ere he would rest from his works—says this unimpeachable authority; 'nor the woman without the man, in the Lord.' Only such views of the institution can give us a correct idea of its rupture.

The same divine system clearly regards marriage as a constant interchange of duties. It



knows nothing of the modern fashion of separation; it allows no sanction, as we think, to the modern laws of partial divorce. The consideration of these subjects will necessarily lead to the only legitimate cause of divorce the Scriptures acknowledge. Separation by mutual consent, as it is called, is nothing less (and how, in point of bad faith, could it be more!) than two accountable human beings undertaking privately to contradict and renounce what they had sworn publicly, in the name of God, to do and perform. Apart from its being wholly opposed to the general obligation of lawful vows, it holds up a man and woman to the world, it sends them into the world, as neither married nor unmarried—both and neither. 'Joined together' of God, or in obedience to a law under which he has placed them, and separated by the inconveniences of keeping it! The express determination of Scripture anticipates the awful moral evils to which such a monstrous system leads. 'I wish not myself any other advocate, nor you any other adversary,' says the devout bishop Hall, to a friend who inclined to a separation, 'than St. Paul who never gave, I speak boldly, a direct precept, if not in this.' Should the remaining part of our quotation grate a little ungraciously on a delicate ear, let the substantial interests of religion and virtue, and the possible prevention of such mischiefs in other ranks, as have lately stared upon us from a throne, be our apology. His express charge whereupon I insisted is, 'defraud not one another; except with consent, for a time, that you may give yourselves to fasting and prayer: and then come again together, that Satan tempt you not for your incontinency.' Every word, if you weigh it well, opposes your part, and pleads for mine. By consent of all divines, ancient and modern, 'defrauding' is refraining from matrimonial conversation. See what a word the Spirit of God hath chosen for this abstinence—never taken but in ill part!

But there is no fraud in consent, as Chrysostom, Athanasius, Theophylact, expound it: true. Therefore St. Paul adds, 'unless with consent;' that I may omit to say, that in saying, 'unless with consent,' he implies, both that there may be a defrauding without it, and with a consent a defrauding, but not unlawful. But see what he adds—'for a time.' Consent cannot make this defrauding lawful, except it be temporary: no defrauding without consent; no consent for a perpetuity. 'How long then, and wherefore? Not for every cause; not for any length of time: but only for a while, and for devotion, ut vacetis, &c. Mark how the apostle adds, 'that you may give yourselves to fasting and prayer.' It is a solemn exercise which the apostle here intends, such as is joined with fasting and external humiliation; wherein all earthly comforts must be forborne. 'But what if a man list to task himself continually?' No: 'Let them meet together again, saith the apostle; not as a toleration, but a charge. 'But what if they can both live safely thus severed? This is more than they can undertake: there is danger, saith our apostle, in this abstinence, 'lest Satan tempt you for your incontinence.' What can be more plain? Bishop

Hall's *Epistles*, decad, 7. ep. 9.; *Works*, vol. 2. p. 249.

The application of these remarks to our present legal practice with regard to divorce is plainly this. The apostolic rule will include a prohibition of the divorce à thoro et mensa, except in cases of adultery. *It sanctions no partial divorce.* There is but one scriptural cause for any divorce, and then it is to be a complete one. By the ecclesiastical law (Can. 107) it is enjoined, 'that in all sentences pronounced only by divorce and separation à thoro et mensa, there shall be a caution and restraint inserted in the act of the said sentences, that the parties separated shall live chastely and continently; neither shall they, during each other's life, contract matrimony with another person. And for the better observation of this last clause, the said sentences of divorce shall not be pronounced, until the party or parties requiring the same have given good and sufficient caution and security into the court, that they will not at any break or transgress the said restraint or prohibition. We are not acquainted with the kind of caution or security which is found to satisfy the learned judges of this court in such cases, but St. Paul would not have taken any. He estimated human nature, it would seem, according to a different rule; and would not believe that even devout Christians could offer such security. He would prevent the crime of adultery, by removing the temptations to it. His language is not, Meet again when ye are—but lest ye be tempted.

Permanent separation of every kind is contrary, our old English word for adultery. It is a contrary to vow. 'God will contemn adulterers and whorekeepers,' says an old version of Heb. xiii. 4, now before us. So again Wicliffe's translation of Matt. xv. 19, is, 'Of this herte gon out yvel thoughtis, mansleynge, covetries, &c. And of Mark x. 11. 'Whomsoever leevith his wife, and weddith another, he doth avourie.' We vow, in marriage, 'Forsoaking all other to keep to the object of our choice, 'so long as we both do live.' To take another is a final and irrevocable breach of this vow, but not to keep to the espoused object is a breach of it: it proves and encourages alienated affection; it is the harbinger of all that is evil in the violation of this tie. Look at its consequences again in this way; the Jewish law of divorce, upon which the Christian system was introduced as an improvement, when it sent the wife away, provided for her freedom. 'When she is departed out of the house of her husband, she may go,' said Moses, 'and become another man's wife.' It particularly provided, that the repudiating husband was never afterwards to reclaim her; Deut. xxiv. 4. This was a moral and merciful system, compared with which all articles of separation are both impious and cruel. They 'send away' a wife, but they keep her bound; they expose her to second attachments, which she cannot lawfully entertain; they suspend over her a husband's power, while they deprive her of his protection and his smile.



of these remarks, we apprehend, legislator pronounced the repudiation of the marriage vow. No man's morals can be more firm or the sermon on the Mount; and conspicuously the simple and unequivocal. 'Whosoever shall put away his wife, the cause of fornication, πορνεία, redom, Campbell] causeth her to ; and whosoever shall marry her committeth adultery.' The same was calculated in reply to the question on this point, 'Is it lawful for a man to put away his wife? He answered and said, 'Moses command you? And we suffered to write a bill of divorcement, and put her away. And Jesus said unto them, For the hardness of your hearts, I wrote you this precept: but from the beginning of the creation God made man and [a] female.'—'And in the law he asked him again of the same man, 'Whosoever shall put away his wife, and marry another, committeth adultery against her. And if a woman shall put away her husband, and be married to another, she committeth adultery.' The exception here added; but it is clear, on the passage in St. Matthew, is fully understood.

The Christian moralist ask, why one kind of law upon this subject, and another, or rather no law at all in the majority of cases, for other real divorce is unattainable by the ordinary course. It must be an expedient made for each specific case, and in the first instance, at an enormous expense, the highest court of appeal in the law, in all instances of its occurrence, the imperfect and crude state in which it is left in the statute-book, and the expensive manner of proceeding to the greater portion of the people themselves of it. Is this a commendable mode of legislating? Legislators pay the middle and the extremes of the crime, so conspicuously, never to desolate these. We are quite sure that the affectionate feelings of these classes in protection as those of the law. Let the same courts and course of law, which are now appealed to to prove the fact of adultery, proceed, where it is sought for, the remedy of divorce to poor or rich, without additional expense.

In conclusion, that Dr. Paley is of opinion, 'the law of this country, our Saviour's injunction, canon of the marriage contract to forbear adultery in the wife,' for all this evil, such as they are, to the husband or wife, as equally a crime; but we fully and heartily agree, 'Whether a law might not be made, 'the fortune of the adulteress in case of her natural death :—PART 2.

reserving a certain proportion of the produce of it, by way of annuity, for her subsistence (such annuity in no case to exceed a certain sum), and also so far suspending the estate in the hands of the heir, as to preserve the inheritance to any children she might bear to a second marriage, in case there was none to succeed in the place of their mother by the first, and whether such a law would not render female virtue in higher life less vincible, as well as the seducers of that virtue less urgent in their suit? I would recommend this,' continues he, 'to the deliberation of those who are willing to attempt the reformation of this important but most incorrigible class of the community. A passion for splendour, for expensive amusements and distinctions, is commonly found in that description of women who would become the subjects of such a law, not less inordinate than their other appetites. A severity of the kind proposed applies immediately to that passion. And there is no room for any complaint of injustice, since the provisions above stated, with others which might be contrived, confine the punishment, so far as it is possible, to the person of the offender; suffering the estate to remain to the heir, or within the family of the ancestor from whom it came, or to attend the appointments of his will.'

DIURETIC, *adj.* διουρητικός. Having the power to provoke urine.

*Diuretics* are decoctions, emulsions, and oils of emollient vegetables, that relax the urinary passages: such as relax ought to be tried before such as force and stimulate. Those emollients ought to be taken in open air, to hinder them from perspiring, and on empty stomachs. *Arbuthnot.*

Graceful as John, she moderates the reins,  
And whistles sweet her diuretick strains. *Young.*

DIURETIC, DIURETICUS, διουρητικός; from διουρησις, a discharge of urine. That which, when taken internally, augments the flow of urine from the kidneys. It is obvious that such an effect will be produced by any substance capable of stimulating the secreting vessels of the kidneys. All the saline diuretics seem to act in this manner. They are received into the circulation; and, passing off with the urine, stimulate the vessels, and increase the quantity secreted. Murray, in his *Elements of Materia Medica*, classes the super-tartrate of potassa, or cream of tartar, and nitrate of potassa, or nitre, the muriate of ammonia, or crude sal-ammoniac, potassa, and the acetate of potassa, or kali acetatum, among the saline diuretics; and selects the following from the vegetable kingdom:—*scilla maritima*, *digitalis purpurea*, *nicotiana tabacum*, *solanum dulcamara*, *lactuca virosa*, *colchicum autumnale*, *gratiola officinalis*, *spartium scoparium*, *juniperus communis*, *copaifera officinalis*, *pinus balsamea*, and *pinus larix*; and the *lytta vesicatoria* from the animal kingdom. The principal articles included by Dr. Cullen, in his catalogue of diuretics, are *dulcamara*, *digitalis*, *scilla*; some of the *alliaceæ* and *siliquosæ*; the balsams and resins; *cantharides*, and the diuretic salts.

DIURNAL, *n. s. & adj.* } Lat. *diurnalis* :  
DIURNALLY, *adv.* } from *dies*, a day.  
DIURNE', *adj.* } See DAY. A jour-  
2 B



nal, or record of daily transactions: relating to or constituting the day; daily.

Performed hath the sonne his arke diurne,  
No longer may the body of him sojourne  
On the orisont, as in that latitude.

Chaucer. *Cant. Tales.*

We observe in a day, which is a short year, the greatest heat about two in the afternoon, when the sun is past the meridian, which is the diurnal solstice, and the same is evident from the thermometer.

Browne's *Vulgar Errors.*

The prime orb,

Incredible how swift, had thither rowled

Diurnal.

Milton.

The diurnal and annual revolution of the sun have been, from the beginning of nature, constant, regular, and universally observable by all mankind.

Locke.

Why does he order the diurnal hours

To leave earth's other part, and rise in ours?

Prior.

In my former I represented that the diurnal rotations of the planets could not be derived from gravity, but required a divine arm to impress them.

Sir Isaac Newton. *Letters to Bentley.*

As we make the enquiries, we shall diurnally communicate them to the publick.

Tatler.

You with soft breath attune the vernal gale,  
When breezy evening broods the listening vale;  
Or wake the loud tumultuous sounds, that dwell  
In echo's many-toned diurnal shell.

Darwin.

DIUTURNITY, *n. s.* Latin, *diuturnitas*. Length of duration.

Such a coming, as it might be said that that generation should not pass till it was fulfilled, they needed not suppose of such diuturnity.

Browne's *Vulgar Errors.*

DIVULGE', *v. a.* } Fr. *divulguer*; Span.

DIVULGE'R, *n. s.* } and Port. *divulgar*; Lat. and Ital. *divulgare*; *dis* and *vulgo*, to spread a report, from *vulgus*; Gr *πολλος*, the common people. To publish; make universally known; proclaim.

Men are better contented to have their commendations suppressed, than the contrary much divulged.

Hooker.

I will pluck the veil of modesty from the so seeming mistress Page, and divulge Page himself for a secure and wilful Acteon.

Shakespeare. *Merry Wives of Windsor.*

I think not any thing in my letters could tend so much to my reproach, as the odious divulging of them did to the infamy of the divulgers. K. Charles.

This is true glory and renown, when God,  
Looking on the earth, with approbation marks  
The just man, and divulges him through heaven  
To all his angels, who with true applause  
Recount his praises.

Milton's *Paradise Lost.*

These answers, in the silent night received,  
The king himself divulged, the land believed.

Dryden's *Æneid.*

The cabinets of the sick, and the closets of the dead, have been ransacked to publish private letters, and divulge to all mankind the most secret sentiments of friendship.

Pope.

DIVULSION, *n. s.* Lat. *divulsio*. The act of plucking away.

Aristotle, in his *Ethics*, takes up the conceit of the beaver, and the *divulsion* of his testicles.

Browne's *Vulgar Errors.*

DIXAN, a large town of Tigré, Abyssinia, on the side of Taranta, under the government of the Baharnegash. It is built on the top of a round hill: a deep valley surrounds it like a trench, and the road winds spirally up the hill. The houses are flat-roofed and without chimneys. Dixan is the seat of a considerable trade in slaves. The other commodities most common here are tobacco, black pepper, white cloths, looking glasses, snuff, spirits, and large beads. It was formerly a fief under Axum. The prince is very active in the disgraceful traffic in slaves.

DIXCOVE, a British African fort, in the country of Ahantah, on the Gold Coast. It stands at the entrance of a small cove, which will admit vessels of thirty or forty tons at high water. The channel is narrow but safe, and the situation strong. It is forty miles south-west of Cape Coast Castle.

DIXMUYDEN, a town of West Flanders, in the kingdom of the Netherlands, situated in the tract called the Freye Lande, on the river Yperle. The trade has of late declined; but there is still a great yearly horse-fair in the month of June, and the place is noted for its butter and cheese. The sea came at one time up to the walls forming a small harbour. Here are salt refineries, soap works, and breweries. The great church is a fine building. Eleven miles south of Ostend, and twenty-four east of Dunkirk.

DI'ZEN, *v. a.* (Corrupted from *digit*.) To dress; to deck; to rig out. A low word.

Your ladyship lifts up the snash to be seen;  
For sure I had *dizened* you out like a queen.

Keats.

DIZIER (St.), a town of France, in the department of Upper Marne, and ci-devant province of Champagne, seated on the Marne, at the place where it becomes navigable by boats, seventeen miles south-east of Vitry le François, and 157 east of Paris. The road between these two towns, being levelled and planted with trees, is one of the finest walks in France. St. Dizier is famous for boat-building, and contains 3000 inhabitants. It was formerly a strong fortress, being remarkable for a siege which it sustained in 1544, for six weeks against the emperor Charles V. A sharp action took place here between the French and allies on the 27th of January 1814, and again on the 26th of March of the same year.

DIZUK, a district of the province of Mikna, Persia, forming part of the country of Baluchistan. Within its precincts are seven or eight villages, designated by the general term *Dizuk*, though each has also a distinct name. It is governed by a chief, who receives a tenth of the produce, in wheat and dates. His revenues are computed at 60,000 or 70,000 rupees, or from £8000 to £9000 yearly.

DI'ZZY, *v. a. & adj.* } Sax. *deuzigh*; Belg.

DIZ'ZINESS, *n. s.* } *deuzigh*. See DIZ.

DIZ'ZARD, *n. s.* } Giddy; vertiginous;

having a swimming or whirling sensation in the head; thoughtless; the verb being derived from the adjective. Dizzard, says Johnson, is a blockhead; a fool.



How fearful  
 'tis to cast one's eyes so low!  
*Shakespeare. King Lear.*

Not the dreadful spout,  
 When men do the hurricano call,  
 With more clamour Neptune's ear  
 Cent, than shall my prompted sword  
 Diomedes. *Id. Troilus and Cressida.*

Sudden miserable pain  
 Hee, dim thine eyes and dizzy swam  
 In. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*  
 Business heats the brain in some to dis-  
 Cause an aching and dizziness in  
 A. *Glanville.*

Have stood all storms and never sunk,  
 Up to the pinnacle of power,  
 Inted by the way, and stand  
 Can look down steadily  
 With beneath, and ne'er feel dizzy.

*Byron.*

SS (John Longinus); a Polish divine,  
 1415. Having received his educa-  
 tion, he was taken into the service of  
 who gave him some considerable  
 and appointed him one of his ex-  
 1450 Dlugoss went to Palestine,  
 on his return tutor to the sons of

He was at one time disgraced,  
 at the end of three years, and em-  
 pany state affairs. At length he be-  
 shop of Leopold, but died in 1480,  
 veneration. His principal work is  
 Plonica, 1615, folio; and 1712. His  
 ages are 1. Vita St. Stanislai,  
 Polocensium Episcoporum Vite, fol.  
 iscoporum Postpasienium, 4to.

DU, a town and circle of European  
 the government of Moscow, on the  
 ma. The environs are celebrated for  
 white apples, as also for a beautiful  
 he counts of Soltikof, to which the  
 fire in 1812. Here are manufactories  
 uth, porcelain, and a yearly fair for  
 be 5th of September, which lasts a  
 it is thirty-two miles north of Moscow.  
 ER, DNEPER, or NIEPER, the ancient  
 a large river of Europe, rising in  
 ent of Smolensko, running a long  
 south direction, and falling into the  
 between Cherson and Ockzakov.  
 ource to its mouth, it flows entirely  
 Russian dominions, a course of above  
 and its navigation is only once inter-  
 series of cataracts which begin below  
 of the Samara, and continue for about

They are not so dangerous but they  
 sed in spring by loaded barks. At  
 us, the goods are landed at Kemensk,  
 rted by land to Kitchkase, six miles  
 adrowsk, where they are again em-  
 descend the river to Cherson. These  
 ight be rendered navigable at all  
 and, although the expense would be  
 t, the navigation would soon repay  
 t the empress Catherine II. caused  
 rocks which occasioned these water-  
 lown up, but without any material  
 e navigation. Above its mouth the  
 s into a kind of lake or marsh, called

Liman. The lower part of its course has been  
 the scene of many conflicts between the Turks  
 and Russians, and the upper part, in the neigh-  
 bourhood of Smolensko, was the scene of some  
 severe conflicts in Buonaparte's retreat in Novem-  
 ber 1812. Its principal tributary streams are  
 the Berezyna, the Priepitz, the Rose and the Bog.  
 The water, though often unfit for domestic use,  
 abounds in fish, particularly shad, sturgeon, pike,  
 and carp. The chief towns which it passes are  
 Smolensko, Orcha, Mohilev, Bobryow, Kiev,  
 Crementchong, Ekaterinoslav, Nicopol, and Cher-  
 son.

DNIESTER, or NIESTER, the ancient Tyras,  
 a fine river of Europe, which rises in Austrian  
 Galicia, and running south-east visits Choczim,  
 dividing Podolia from Moldavia: it then sepa-  
 rates the Turkish province of Bessarabia, from  
 the Russian government of Catherinenslav, and  
 after watering Egerlik, Bender, &c., falls into the  
 Black Sea, between the mouths of the Dnieper  
 and the Danube. At its mouth it forms a large  
 bay, and though somewhat dangerous to navigate,  
 on account of rocks, the improvements lately  
 made in it by the Russian government have in-  
 duced the Poles to send a considerable portion  
 of the produce of their soil through its medium,  
 to the port of Odessa.

DO, v. a. & v. n. } Sax. *don*; Teut. *thuen*;  
 Do'ER, n. s. } Goth. *doga*, from Goth.

Do'ING. } *taujan*; Gr. *τενω*, to  
 build. Coming into our language in modern  
 times from the same root as *to*, Mr. Tooke  
 (Diversions of Purley) contends that it is the  
 same word; and that, as we still put *to* before  
 the infinitive, *do* used formerly to mark other  
 parts of a verb not distinguished by their termi-  
 nations. See *To*. We still, indeed, often say,  
 when we wish to speak emphatically or formally,  
 I do love; I did go, &c. Its present office, as  
 an auxiliary verb, is, however, as Mr. Tyrwhitt  
 observes, not very easy to define. But if a dis-  
 tinguishing termination is used with a verb, it is  
 always omitted. It has a peculiar expletive use:  
 thus it will perform the office of a substitute for  
 other verbs, expressed or understood, as, I shall  
 go, but if I Do not, will you? and beside giving  
 emphasis on other occasions, as we have noticed,  
 it adds vehemence to a command or entreaty,  
 as, Do come, do; and strength to a question  
 or negative, as, Do you love him? I do not  
 believe him. As an active verb it signifies to  
 practise; perform; execute with any degree  
 of success; as also to finish and complete: Spen-  
 ser uses it for to cause to be done. As a neuter  
 verb it signifies to behave in any manner; to  
 fare in regard to health; to succeed; to cease.  
 The meaning of the nouns obviously follows.

Therefore whanna thou doist almes, nyle thou  
 trumpe before thee as yporcites don in synagogs and  
 stretis, that thei be worschippid of men.

*Wiclif. Matt. vi.*

To him not without desert was ghoun power to  
 write the *doynge* of apostlis in her mynysterie.

*Wiclif. Prologue to Dedie.*

Unto this day they *do* after the former manners:  
 they fear not the Lord, neither *do* they after the law  
 and commandment which the Lord commanded the  
 children of Jacob.

*2 Kings.*



What will ye *do* in the end thereof? *Jer. v. 31.*  
*Do* thy diligence to come shortly unto me.

2 *Tim. iv. 9.*

We *do* you to wit of the grace of God bestowed on  
 the churches of Macedonia. *Bible. 2 Cor. viii. 1.*

He for despit, and for his tyrannie,  
 To *don* the ded bodies a vilanie,  
 Of alle our lordes, which that ben yslavee,  
 Hath alle the bodies on an hepe ydrawe.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

My lute, adieu! perform the last  
 Labour that thou and I shall waste,  
 And end that I have now begun;  
 For when this song is sung and past,  
 My lute, be still, for I have *done*. *Wyatt.*

For steward was excessive Gluttony,  
 That of his plenty poured forth to all:  
 Which *doen*, the chamberlain Slowth did to rest them  
 call. *Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

A fatal plague which many *did* to dye. *Spenser.*

In this we shew ourselves weak, and unapt to be  
*doers* of his will, in that we take upon us to be con-  
 trollers of his wisdom. *Hooker.*

Dangerous it were for the feeble brains of man to  
 wade far into the *doings* of the most High. *Id.*

They are great speakers but small *doers*; greater in  
 show than in deed. *Knolles's History.*

Thou canst not say I *did* it. *Shakspeare.*

Off with the crown, and with the crown his head:  
 And whilst we breathe take him to *do* him dead. *Id.*

May one, that is a herald and a prince,  
 Do a fair message to his kingly ears?

*Id. Troilus and Cressida.*

If there be any good thing to be *done*,  
 That may to thee *do* ease, and grace to me,  
 Speak to me. *Id. Hamlet.*

The lord Aubrey Vere  
 Was *done* to death. *Id. Henry VI.*

Good woman, how *dost* thou?

—The better that it pleases your good worship  
 to ask. *Shakspeare.*

Perdition catch my soul  
 But I *do* love thee; and when I love thee not,  
 Chaos is come again. *Id. Othello.*

Fear not, my lord, we will not stand to prate;  
 Talkers are no good *doers*: be assured,  
 We go to use our hands and not our tongues.

*Shakspeare.*

I have but killed a fly.—

—But how if that fly had a father and mother?  
 How would he hang his slender gilded wings,  
 And buz lamented *doings* in the air? *Id.*

No man, who bath to *do* with the king, will think  
 himself safe, unless you be his good angel and guide  
 him. *Bacon.*

The jury prayed of the senate a guard, that they  
 might *do* their consciences. *Id.*

The Turks *do* acknowledge God the Father creator  
 of heaven and earth, being the first Person in the  
 Trinity, though they deny the rest.

*Bacon's Holy War.*

Too much thinking doth consume the spirits; and  
 oft it falls out, that while one thinks too much of  
*doing*, he leaves to *do* the effect of his thinking.

*Sir P. Sidney.*

Hitherto appertaineth the saying of St. John, how  
 that the children of God cannot sin; speaking not  
 of the present time only, but finally and perpetually,  
 no less attributing to God's seed, which he saith *loth*

abide in them that are born of God, than is  
 of the devil in our corrupt nature and flesh.

*Manuscript Note of Bradford the*

To will implies delay, therefore *now do*.

The same act varies in the manner of *do*  
 the intention of the *doer*. *Bp. Hall. Costes*

No sooner he does peep into

The world, but he has *done* his *doe*.

Go to the reading of some part of the M  
 ment, not carelessly, or in haste, as if y  
 mind to have *done*; but attentively, as i  
 to give some account of what you have read

But God like his unwearied bounty  
 First loves to *do*, then loves the good he

*Denham. Cog*

At length a reverend sire among them  
 And of their *doings* great dislike declared  
 And testified against their ways.

Thus painters Cupids paint, thus poets  
 A naked god, blind, young, with arrows

*Doing* good is the only certainly happy  
 man's life.

I have been deterred by an indispo  
 having much to *do* with steams of so d  
 nature.

Men are many times brought to that  
 that, if it were not for God, they woul  
 what to *do* with themselves, or how to s  
 selves for one hour.

When all is *done*, there is no man can s  
 interest better than by serving God.

No men would make use of disunited  
 destroy one body, unless they were sur  
 them when they had *done* with them.

It may be indeed a public crime, or a m  
 chief; yet it is but a private act, and th  
 may chance to pay his head for his presu

As every prince should govern as he w  
 to be governed, so every subject ought to  
 would desire to be obeyed, according to th  
*doing* as we would be *done* by.

—Loose me.—I will free thee.

—Do, and I'll be thy slave.

*Dryden's Kn*

When *did* his pen on learning fix a le  
 Or rail at arts he did not understand?

Gigantick hinds, as soon as work was  
 To their huge pots of boiling pulse woul

Though lending to foreigners, upon us  
 at all alter the balance of trade between  
 tries, yet it *does* alter the exchange bet  
 countries.

What had I to *do* with kings and cou  
 My humble lot had cast me far beneath

'Tis true, I *did* so; nor was it in vain  
 She *did* me right, and satisfied my vengeance  
 Come, 'tis no matter; we shall *do* with

You may ramble a whole day, and ev  
 discover something new; but when you  
 you will have but a confused notion of it

They *did* their work and dined.

What is the reason a man's arm won  
 frown, and *do* all the intellectual pow  
 countenance?



of mercy *done* to the poor, shall be accepted  
rewarded as *done* to our Saviour himself.

*Atterbury.*

do her too much honour : she hath neither sense  
ate, if she dares to refuse you. *Swift.*

er such miraculous *doings*, we are not yet in a  
ion of bringing France to our terms. *Id.*

Expletives their feeble aid *do* join. *Pope.*

ring *done* with such amusements, we give up  
we cannot disown. *Id.*

t of the work being already *done*, more care is  
lly bestowed on the other part. *Johnson.*

my soul, look back but a few years, and thou  
nothing !—And how *didst* thou spring out of that  
eg !—Thou couldst not make thyself. *Mason.*

What I have *done* is *done* ; I bear within  
torture which could nothing gain from thine :  
e mind which is immortal makes itself  
equital for its good or ill. *Byron.*

DO, in music, a note of the Italian scale, cor-  
responding to *ut* of the common gamut. See  
sic.

DOAB; a name which, according to Mr.  
Milton, should include all the territory between  
Jumna and the Ganges; but the term is  
lly restricted to the southern portion of it,  
prehended, for the most part, in the province  
Agra, and, during the Mogul government,  
divided into the districts of Furruckabad,  
oge, Etawah, Korah, Currah, and Allahabad.  
re are several Doabs in Hindostan, the name  
sing any tract of country included between  
rivers.

he cultivated part of this country is very fer-  
re; the millet is also raised, and, although a  
ll-eared grain, furnishes straw ten feet long,  
ch is of great use as provender. Barley and  
sugar-cane are likewise cultivated; and, in  
neighbourhood of Kanoge, considerable  
cities of tobacco. Indigo is found in a wild  
e, and of superior quality. The cattle are  
erally small. The climate of the Doab is  
essively sultry in April and May, before the  
enancement of the rains; and even in the  
ter season it is the morning only that is cool.

natives manufacture a coarse cotton cloth,  
d red with cheap materials. Dowlet Row  
ia on the 30th December 1803, ceded his part  
his country to the British. The southern part  
he Doab was ceded, during the administration  
e marquis Wellesley, in 1801, by the reign-  
Nabob of Oude, Saadet Ali.

DOABEH BARRY, or BARI RESIDENCE, a  
rict in the province of Lahore, situated be-  
the Beyah and Ravey rivers, and the  
th and thirty-first degrees of north latitude.  
modern maps this territory is placed in Mool-  
; but, according to Abul Fazel's arrangement,  
1582, says Mr. Hamilton, it belonged to  
ore. This country, named also Manjha,  
tains the cities of Lahore and Amritseer;  
becomes, in consequence, the great centre  
the power of the seiks. It is of the same  
eral climate and soil as

DOABEH JALINDER, another district in  
province of Lahore, included between the

Sutuleje and Beyah rivers, and for the most part  
between the thirtieth and thirty-first degrees of  
north latitude. This is the most fruitful of all  
the possessions of the seiks. The soil is light,  
but well watered and very productive; and the  
country, which is open and level, abounds in  
grain. The principal towns are Jalindra and  
Sultanpoor. This territory is principally occu-  
pied by the Malawa Singh Seiks, who are called  
the Doabeh Singhs, or Singhs who dwell betwixt  
two rivers.

DOAT, *v. n.* See DOTE.

DOBSON (William), an eminent English  
portrait and historical painter, born at London in  
1610. He served an apprenticeship with one  
Peck, a stationer and picture dealer; and owed  
his improvement to the copying some pictures of  
Titian and Van Dyck, whose manner he always  
retained. A picture of Dobson's being exposed  
at a shop in Snowhill, Van Dyck passing by was  
struck with it; and enquiring after the author,  
found him at work in a garret. Van Dyck  
generously equipped him in a manner suitable  
to his merit; and presented him to king Charles  
I. who took him under his protection, kept him  
with him at Oxford all the time he continued in  
that city, and not only sat to him several times  
for his picture, but caused the prince of Wales,  
prince Rupert, and most of the lords of his court,  
to do so too. Dobson, however, being extrava-  
gant, did not improve the many opportunities he  
had of making his fortune; and died very poor  
in 1647, at his house in St. Martin's Lane.

DOBUNI, or BODUNI, an ancient people of  
Britain, who possessed the territory which now  
forms the counties of Oxford and Gloucester.  
Both the names of this British people seem to  
have been derived from the low situation of a  
great part of the country which they inhabited:  
for both Duvn and Bodun, signify profound, or  
low, in the ancient language of Gaul and Britain.  
The Dobuni are not mentioned among the British  
nations who resisted the Romans under Julius  
Cæsar, which was probably owing to the distance  
of their country from the scene of action; and  
before the next invasion under Claudius, they had  
been so much oppressed by their ambitious  
neighbours the Cattivellauni, that they willingly  
submitted to the Romans. Cogidunus, who was  
at that time prince of the Dobuni, recommended  
himself so effectually to the favor of Claudius, by  
his ready submission, that he was not only con-  
tinued in the government of his own territories,  
but had other states put under his authority.  
This prince remained so steady a friend and ally  
to the Romans, that his subjects never revolted,  
nor stood in need of forts or forces to keep them  
in subjection. So that we meet with very few  
Roman towns and stations in the country an-  
ciently inhabited by the Dobuni. The Durocor-  
novium of Antoninus, and the Corinium of  
Ptolemy, are believed by antiquaries to have  
been the same place, the capital of the Dobuni,  
and situated at Cirencester, in Gloucestershire,  
where there are many marks of a Roman station.  
Clevum or Glevum, in the thirteenth iter of  
Antoninus, stood where the city of Gloucester  
now stands; and Abone, in the fourteenth iter,  
was probably situated at Avinton on the Severo,



The country of the Dobuni was comprehended in the Roman province, *Britannia Prima*.

DOCE RIO, a river of Brasil, which rises near the town of Villa Rica, and after a north course, through a fine country, turns eastward and discharges itself into the Atlantic, in lat.  $19^{\circ} 30'$  S. It has a course of about 500 miles. Until lately the fertile neighbourhood of this river has been totally neglected: otherwise the abundance of timber, cotton, and sugar, it is capable of yielding, would long since have found their way to European markets. There is another river of this name, which falls into the ocean in lat.  $8^{\circ} 10'$  S.

DOCETÆ, from *δοκεῖν*, to appear, in ecclesiastical history, the followers of Julius Cassianus, one of the Valentinian sect, towards the close of the second century, who revived a notion that had been adopted by a branch of the Gnostics, against whom St. John, Ignatius, and Polycarp, had asserted the truth of the incarnation. They believed and taught, as their name imports, that the actions and sufferings of Jesus Christ were not in reality, but only in appearance.

DOCILITY, *n. s.* } Fr. *docile*; Span. and  
Do'CILE, *adj.* } Portug. *docil*; Ital. and  
Do'CIBLE, *adj.* } Lat. *docibile, docile*, from  
Do'CIBLENESS, *n. s.* } *facilis* easy, and *doceo*  
to teach; Gr. *δοκεῖν*, to judge, *πρῶτον*, a Chald. to observe. Teachableness; aptness to receive instruction. The adjectives and substantives are respectively, synonymous.

The asinine feast of sow-thistles and brambles is commonly set before them, as all the food and entertainment of their tenderest and most docile age.

Milton.

I might enlarge in commendation of the noble hound, as also of the docibleness of dogs in general.

Walton's Angler.

What is more admirable than the fitness of every creature for our use? the docility of an elephant, and the insistency of a camel for travelling in deserts?

Grew.

All the perfection they allowed his understanding was aptness and docility, and all that they attributed to his will was a possibility to be virtuous.

South.

Soon docile to the secret acts of ill,

With smiles I could betray, with temper kill.

Prior.

Dogs soon grow accustomed to whatever they are taught, and, being docile and tractable, are very useful.

Ellis's Voyage.

DOCIMASIA, in Greek antiquity, a probation of the magistrates and persons employed in public business at Athens. It was performed publicly in the forum, where they were obliged to give account of themselves and their past lives before certain judges. Among several questions proposed to them, we find the following: whether they had been dutiful to their parents, had served in the wars, and had a competent estate?

DOCIMASTIC ART, a name given to the art of assaying by operations in small, the nature and quantity of metallic or other matters which may be obtained from mineral or other compound bodies. See METALLURGY and REFINING.

DOCIMENUM MARMOR, a name given by the ancients to a species of marble of a bright and clear white, much used in large and sumptuous buildings.

It had its name from Icos, a city of Phrygia, near which it was and whence it was sent to Rome. It was counted little inferior to the Parian in not capable of so elegant a polish; but was less used by the statuary, or smaller works. Adrian used this marble in building the temple of Jupiter; and many of the great Roman buildings are formed of it.

DOCK, *n. s.* Sax. *docca*. A plant;

Nothing teems

But hateful docks, rough thistles, kecksins,

Losing both beauty and utility.

Shakespeare. *He*

My love for gentle Dermot faster grows  
Than you tall dock that rises to thy nose:  
Cut down the dock, 'twill sprout again; but  
Love rooted out again will never grow.

The species are seventeen, ten of which grow several of them being used in medicine; a sort called the oriental burdock, is said to be a rhubarb.

Dock, in botany. See RUMEX.

DOCK, *v. a. & n. s.* } From Fr. *decoquer*.

DOCK'ET, *n. s.* } to dock, à Lat. *caudare*.

To cut short, or trim: as a substantive, the trimmed or cut short: a docket is an abridging, a summary of legal proceedings.

The Reve was a slender colerike man,

His berd was shave as neighe as ever he was

His here was by his eres round yshorne;

His top was docked like a priest before.

Chaucer. *Prologue to Cant.*

The tail of a great rhinoceros is not well by Bontius. The dock is about half an inch and two inches broad, like an apothecary's

Grew's H

One or two stood constant century, who favours handed down; and spread a huge net between the prince and subject, through nothing of value could pass.

Swift's E

Dock, *n. s. & v. a.* Flem. *dok*; Ten Swed. *docka*; Suid-Goth. *docka*; *peris dekken*, to cover, protect, secure; and from Gr. *δοχεῖον*, a receptacle; *reservoir* (ship-house), a dock. An enclosed place for ships: see the article. Also an place for prisoners in a court of justice verb, to put in dock.

The boatswain and mariner may bring what dock they please.

There are docks for their galleys and as well as work-houses for all land and sea rations.

Duck, in the manege, is used for a of leather, as long as the dock of a horse which serves it for a cover. The French dock troussequeue. It is made fast by the crupper, and has leathern thongs between his thighs, and along his flanks saddle straps, in order to keep the tail to hinder it from whisking about.

Docks, for shipping, are enclosures or basins formed in rivers and for the receiving, building, or repairing. They are constructed of brick, stone, with locks or flood-gates, pointed to a tide, to keep the water in or out, as the nature of the docks require.



**WET DOCKS** are for the reception of ships to lie afloat while loading or unloading, with gates pointed from the tide, to keep the water in at low water. Locks are attached to them, generally with double gates, for the more easy admission and egress of shipping; and, to aid the operation of opening and shutting these gates, sluices are made within to regulate the water, until the same level is produced within as without. A wet dock without gates is called, both by the French and ourselves, a *basin*; a dry dock is with them *une forme*, and a slip, *un calle*. Wet docks are in fact artificial harbours for the keeping a vessel afloat at all periods of the tide; and to no other modern improvement do our great commercial towns owe so much of their general superiority and opulence. Liverpool, as it has been often remarked, might still have remained a poor fishing village without them.

**Basins, or docks open to the tide**, are called **DRY DOCKS**, because the vessels frequenting them ground at low water, and lie dry on the ebb tide, and float again on the next rise of the tide. They are used at Liverpool as entrances to the wet docks, and are frequented by coasters, and small or light vessels, that do not injure by lying on the shore. Dry as well as wet docks are enclosed with gates which exclude the tide as circumstances may require; and often have the interior water completely pumped out by means of horses and machinery, or the steam engine. Here ships are conveniently built and floated out: though generally there are places set apart for this purpose, called *slips*. The port of Liverpool, from the badness of its harbour, the rapidity of the river Mersey, and the shifting of its sands, resorted to the construction of docks in 1708. The management of the first undertaking of this kind was invested in the corporation for the term of twenty-one years, which gave for this purpose four acres of land; and they were empowered to borrow the sum of £6000. In 1717 the term was prolonged for fourteen years, and they were authorised to borrow £4000 more. In 1737 the term was further extended to thirty-one years, and powers given to make an additional dock, to build a pier in the open harbour, and to light the docks. The corporation on this occasion gave seven acres of land, and they were empowered to borrow £6000. In 1761 the commerce of Liverpool was so much increased, and its shipping had become so numerous, and so enlarged in size, that further accommodation was wanting. The term of the corporation's management was again extended for twenty-one years, with powers to make another dock, and to erect a light-house for the benefit of the port; for these purposes they were authorised to borrow the sum of £25,000, and to raise the further sum of £2000 on the light-house duties. In 1784 the powers of all the former acts were enlarged, and the term extended to forty-one years, with liberty to make two additional docks and piers, and to borrow for this purpose £70,000. In 1799 an act was passed to alter and enlarge the powers of former acts, and to render the docks and the port more commodious and safe; by which a further extension of term was granted

for thirty years. The corporation again gave some lands, and they were empowered to make two additional docks, and other docks; with liberty to raise the sum of £120,000, and to double the former tolls.

Under the authority of these various acts of parliament the several docks have been constructed, and it has been found that each successive improvement, by affording additional convenience to foreign trade, has been followed by its increase, and prepared the way for the further extension of this excellent system of accommodation. In the course of the last century there were established within this port six wet and three dry docks, and five graving or repairing docks, independent of the Duke of Bridgewater's dock, for canal purposes. In the ten years, ending with 1808, the number of ships that entered these docks was 48,497, tonnage 4,954,204; and the dock duties received £329,566; in the following ten years, ending in 1818, the number of ships was 60,200, the tonnage 6,375,560, and the amount of duties £666,438. Hull, Bristol, and Leith, have successfully emulated this example.

In 1794 a general meeting of merchants was convened, to consider the great inconveniences of the port of London, arising from the crowded state of the river, and the confined extent of the legal quays; when a committee was appointed to consider of the best mode of relief, who took into consideration all the plans which had been suggested, when they approved of the plan for making *wet docks* in Wapping with wharfs and warehouses on their borders, as the most effectual means of remedying the evils of the port. In consequence of this determination, Mr. Daniel Alexander, an ingenious architect and surveyor, who was conversant with operations connected with the tide, was directed to make a survey, and prepare plans and estimates for forming docks at Wapping, with the addition of a cut or canal leading to them, from that part of Blackwall where the present East India docks are now situated, and a long line where the West India docks have been since constructed. The plan and estimates were laid before a meeting of merchants, held 22d December, 1795, and the sum of £800,000 subscribed towards their completion in a few hours. A committee was appointed to make application to parliament, who presented a petition in January 1796, which was referred to a select committee of the house of commons, who were directed 'to enquire into the best mode of providing sufficient accommodation for the increased trade and shipping of the port of London.' The project of the merchants experienced great opposition both from the corporation of the city of London and from private interests; and a great variety of plans and projects were brought forward for the extension of the legal quays above and below the bridge, and the improvement of the river with or without docks. At length, through the great exertions and perseverance of William Vaughan, esq. assisted by several other highly respectable mercantile characters, the various obstacles to the plan of the London docks were successively overcome, and in August, 1798,



the subscribers gave notice, that in the ensuing session of parliament they meant to renew their application for forming docks at Wapping. In December following they petitioned for leave to bring in a bill for this purpose. A few days after a petition was presented by the corporation of London, with a view to similar objects, by making a navigable canal or passage across the Isle of Dogs from Blackwall to Limehouse, purchasing the mooring-chains in the river, which were mostly private property, and appointing harbour-masters to regulate the navigating and mooring of vessels in the port; they also proposed to make wet-docks in some part of the Isle of Dogs for the reception and discharge of West India shipping. The latter part of the plan had, however, been taken up by a number of *West India* merchants and planters, who had formed themselves into a company distinct from the subscribers to the London docks, for the purpose of forming docks for the reception of the *West India* trade only, either alone, or in conjunction with the other improvements projected by the corporation. The general conviction of the necessity of some measure of this kind was not sufficient to produce a union of interests in favor of either of the proposed plans. At length the committee of the house of commons made a report, recommending the formation of wet-docks as the only remedy for the evils of the port, and that they should be made both at Wapping and the Isle of Dogs, but that the latter should be adopted first. The corporation and the *West India* merchants of London forming a junction, the act for making the *West India* docks passed in July, 1799. In the next session, on the 30th June, 1800, an act was passed for forming the docks at Wapping, which was followed by other acts for making docks at Blackwall for the *East India* trade.

The first stone of these last docks was laid in March 1805, and the first ship entered them in August, 1806. The dimensions of the dock for unloading, inwards, are 1410 feet in length, and 560 feet in width, containing about eighteen acres and one-eighth: the dock for loading outwards, which was a part of Mr. Perry's dock, is 780 feet in length, and 520 feet in width, containing nine acres and one-fourth. The extent of the entrance basin, which connects them with the river, is two acres and three-fourths; the length of the entrance lock 210 feet; the width of the gates forty-eight feet in the clear, and the depth of water at ordinary spring-tides twenty-four feet. The great *West India* dock is 420 yards in length, and 230 yards in width, covering an area of twenty acres. A basin of three acres nearly connects it with the river. The warehouses are most noble buildings: the tobacco warehouse is the most spacious erection of the kind in the world; being capable of containing 25,000 hogsheads of that article, and the vaults underneath as many pipes of wine. This single building, under one roof, is said to occupy upwards of four acres of ground. These docks were opened in February 1805.

The dry docks and slips of his majesty's yards have recently added to their other improvements, that greatest of the whole, the actual

covering or roofing in of vessels, a plan which seems to have been long since used at Venice. Roofs have been thus constructed at Plymouth of ninety-five feet span, without a single support, and one at Chatham, under the direction of Mr. Seppings, of 100 feet, and having an end width of 150 feet.

The wicket-gate of docks, a contrivance resorted to where the abutments are too weak for swinging gates, is represented below. Fig. 1 the plan; fig. 2 the elevation. It consists of three parts, which, when opened, are raised separately, and is the most simple, though perhaps the most effective, contrivance for letting out the water.

Fig. 1.

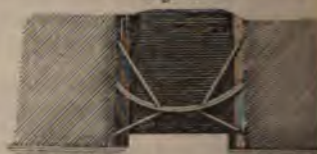


Fig. 2.



We also give below a diagram of swinging gates, which open in the middle, and lie flat part against each wharf or side-wall of the passage, leading into the dock or basin. The frame of gate is made with sound timber, and the hinges of iron, of great strength, and the gudgeons which the hinges turn, must be well secured to the abutments. The bottom of the passage of the gates, must be also perfectly kept parallel, to prevent leakage, and give facility to their opening and shutting. This is aided by rollers fixed in a groove, and the means of a small capstern on each pier. It is often placed a foot bridge with railing.



In docking a ship formerly, if her keel required inspection or repair, it was found necessary to lift up her whole immense weight off the ground, but about twenty years ago, Mr. Seppings contrived a very simple and excellent improvement by which twenty men will suspend the ship in the navy, or, which amounts in effect to the same thing, will disengage any other vessel that may be required in the space of three minutes, without the necessity of suspending her. This improvement may be thus explained.





the keel; W the wedge on which the keel having its obtuse angle equal to  $170^{\circ}$ , and are two inclined planes, having each an angle of  $3^{\circ}$ . The wedge is of iron or wood, having its two sides lined with iron; the inclined planes are of cast iron. A few blows on the two sides of the inclined planes will disengage them, when the middle of the wedge drops.

**DOCK-YARDS**, in the navy, are magazines of stores, and timber for ship-building; the principal dock-yards in England are those at Chatham, Deptford, Pembroke, Plymouth, Portsmouth, Sheerness, and Woolwich. In time of war, ships of war are laid up in these docks, in ordinary; those of the first rates mostly at Chatham, where, and at other yards, they receive, from time to time, such repairs as are necessary. Chatham dock-yard consists of a line of wall, extending 5500 feet along the right bank of the Medway, being 400 feet in width at the upper end, at the lower end, and 1000 feet in the middle. Its superficial area is about ninety acres.

In front it has six building-slips of different sizes, and four dry-docks. At the southern extremity is the ropery, hemp, and yarn houses, and general storehouses, 1000 feet in length, by about fifty in breadth; in front of which, along the wharf, are the anchor racks, nearly 600 feet long. Next to these are the slips and docks, with the working sheds and artificers' shops in the rear, an excellent smithery, timber-sheds, deal and iron yard, seasoning sheds, &c. The commissioner's house and garden are in the centre, and, on the eastern extremity of the yard, the officers' houses and gardens. The lower north-east part is occupied by mast-ponds, mast-houses and slips, store boat-houses and ballast-wharf, timber-births, and saw-pits. The river Medway forms the principal wet-dock or basin appertaining to this yard; and it is sometimes so shallow, and the navigation so intricate, that vessels are obliged to take in their stores and provisions at various different points of circumstance that often delays them here much longer than even at Deptford.

The improved saw-mill of Mr Brunell, erected in 1810, is supposed to be equal to the power of 1000 saw-pits, and one hundred sawyers; and is capable of supplying the dock-yards of Chatham and Sheerness with all their straight-sawn timber.

The greatest advantage of the plan is its simplification of the steam-engine to the management and arrangement of the timber, by which the labor and expense of a vast number of vessels are saved. See **SAW-MILL**.

In war the dock and rope-yard of Chatham employed together about 2250 men.

**Deptford** yard has a front or wharf wall facing the Thames, of about 1700 feet in length, the breadth of the yard 650 feet, and the superficial area about thirty acres. It has three slips for ships of the line, and two for smaller vessels on the face next the river, with a basin, wet-dock, 260 by 220 feet. Here are also three dry-docks, one of them a double dock, communicating with the Thames. The proximity of Deptford Dock-yard to the capital is a great convenience, and it became, during the last

war the general magazine of stores and necessities for the fleet, whence they were transmitted as occasion required to the other yards, the out-ports, and foreign stations.

The great storehouse is a large quadrangular building surrounding a square, of three stories in height, with cellars underneath, for pitch, tar, rosin, &c. Its length is about 210 feet, but the sides vary in width from forty-six to twenty-four feet. Parallel to the west front is the rigging-house and sail-loft, 240 feet, and nearly fifty feet wide, in which all the rigging is fitted for ships and stowed away. On the eastern side is the pavilion, a long range of buildings, in which the beds, hammocks, and slop-clothing are kept, and in which also are the house-carpenters', the joiners', and wheelwrights' shops. This range is about 580 feet long by twenty-six feet wide. Other buildings are an excellent blacksmith's shop, plumbers', glaziers', and painters' shops, seasoning-sheds, store-cabins, saw-pits, mast-house and pond, boat-houses, mould-loft, timber-births, besides houses and gardens, coach-houses and stabling, for the officers. The number of men employed here, in time of war, was about 1500, of whom about one-half were shipwrights. There were, besides, in constant employ, eighteen or twenty teams, of four horses each. Adjoining to the dock-yard is the victualling-yard, the most complete establishment of the kind in the kingdom. The principal naval stores kept at Deptford are small cordage, canvas and ship sails, hammocks, beds and hair for beds, slops and marine clothing, and anchors under the weight of about seventy-five cwt.

**Pembroke** dock-yard was a small establishment for the building of vessels undertaken at the close of the war. It contains an area of sixty acres, ascending from the southern shore of Milford Haven, about two miles from the town of Pembroke. Here are two dry-docks and twelve building-slips which are built of wood on a limestone foundation. There have never been above 500 hands employed here.

**Plymouth** dock-yard extends along the shores of Hamoaze, in a circular sweep of 3500 feet, its width about the middle being 1600, and at each extremity 1000 feet. Its superficial area is about ninety-six acres. In the front towards the harbour are two dry-docks for ships of the first rate, a double dock for seventy-four gun ships, communicating with Hamoaze, and another dock for ships of the line, opening into the basin, which is 250 feet long by 180 feet wide. There is also a graving dock without gates, and a canal or camber, similar to that in Portsmouth yard, for the admission of vessels bringing stores. This, communicating with the boat-pond, cuts the dock-yard nearly into two parts. Five jetties project from the entrances of the dry-docks into Hamoaze, along side of which ships are brought to be undocked. These are situated between the centre and the northern extremity of the harbour line. On the south are three building-slips for the largest class of ships, and two for smaller vessels, the smithery, the outer mast-pond and mast-houses, timber-births, and saw-pits. Higher up on this end is an extensive mast-pond and mast-locks, with



plank-houses over them; and above these three hemp magazines, close to which is the noble ropery of this establishment, consisting of two ranges of buildings, one the laying-house, the other the spinning-house, each being 1200 feet in length, and three stories high. No wood has been used in the construction of the rope-house, excepting the shingles of the roof, to which the slates are fastened. All the rest is of iron; so that the whole building is considered as fire-proof.

The northern part of the yard, besides the docks and basin, working sheds and artificers' shops, contains a quadrangle of elegant stone buildings, the longer sides being about 450 feet, and the shorter 300 feet. Within are also two new ranges of magazines, built principally with iron instead of wood. The upper and northern part of the yard is occupied by a range of handsome houses, with good gardens, for the commissioner and principal officers of the yard, the chapel, guard-house, pay-office, stabling for the officers and teams, and a fine reservoir of fresh water. Plymouth is an excellent refitting yard, and employed, during the war, upwards of 3000 hands of various descriptions. Here, as at Portsmouth, is an unconnected victualling establishment.

In the time of Edward VI. Portsmouth was the only dock-yard that could be considered as a national one; indeed it was almost the only naval station in England. All the ships in the public service, amounting to fifty-three in number, lay in this port, with the exception of three, two of which lay at Deptford and one at Woolwich. The crews belonging to these vessels, including soldiers, marines, and gunners, did not amount to 8000 men; yet, from such beginnings has the naval power of England risen to a height unparalleled in history. Edward, sensible of the great consequence of this port to the future glory of his kingdom, augmented its fortifications by the addition of two strong castles. But Portsea has the advantage of having both the dock-yard and gun-wharf within its precincts.

The former is entered from the town by a lofty gateway, after passing which the first objects that attract attention, are the porter's residence, the mast-houses, and a large modern guard-house. A little further on stands the pay-office; and beyond it is the royal naval academy, which consists of a centre and two wings. This building is furnished with every requisite accommodation for naval instruction, and has an excellent observatory on its summit. The commissioner's house next appears, and to it succeeds an immense range of store-houses, to the right of which is a handsome modern chapel; thence a visitor is generally conducted through the anchor-wharf, where hundreds of anchors of every size and description are piled up ready for immediate service; then to the rope-house, a spacious pile three stories high, fifty-four feet broad, and 1094 feet long. Here the cables are formed with immense labor; but of late years the operation is much facilitated by the use of machinery. The operations in this division of the yard are particularly ingenious and highly interesting. Leaving it, and passing various store-houses, stables, and other buildings, and

many vast piles of timber for the service of the yard, a sort of square presents itself to the eye, and displays in its centre a statue of William III. in a Roman habit. On the east side of the square is a row of handsome houses appropriated for the residence of the chief officers of the yard, and on the north and south sides are repair offices, store-houses, &c. Proceeding north, the next impressing object that arrests the attention is the vast building called the ankerage, and, on entering it, both the eye and ear are struck by the terrific noise and scenes, which spread throughout this Vulcanic abode. Many of the anchors which are here wrought weigh from seventy to ninety tons each.

Approaching nearer the harbour the view beholds, in time of war, numerous masts, the stocks, either building or repairing, on the jetty heads, with the basins and dock in order, and, with the shipping in the yard, present a very grand and imposing spectacle, which the extraordinary capaciousness of the range of docks greatly contributes. Immense works are all peculiarly adapted to respective purposes, and while the ships under repair are kept completely dry; but, in the immediate vicinity, the depth of water is sufficient to float the largest vessels in the world. Many other parts of this celebrated arsenal, particularly the rigging houses, claim the attention of the curious. The number of workmen employed in this dock-yard is very great, and varies considerably. In time of peace scarcely fewer than 2000 are kept at constant work in different departments. Here, as at Plymouth, workmen receive sixpence a day as a compensation for their former perquisite of chips.

The sea-wall of this yard extends from north to south about 3800 feet, and has a mean depth of about 2000 feet. The area enclosed is about 100 acres. The great basin, into which enter four fine dry-docks, is 380 feet in length by 560, and contains an area of two acres and one-third. Here are two docks, at the ends, opening into the harbour; the whole six being capable of receiving vessels of the largest dimensions. Here is also a camber, with a wharf-wall on each side 660 feet in length, and of sufficient width to admit of transports and merchant-ships bringing stores to the yard. In the same face of the yard are three building-slips capable of receiving the largest ships; a small one for sloops; two building slips for frigates on the northern face of the yard, and a smaller slip for sloops. The range of store-houses on the north-east side, and the rigging-house and sail-loft on the south-west side of the camber, are magnificent buildings. The two hemp-houses and the two sea-store houses occupy a line of building which extends 800 feet. The rope-house, tarring-house, and other appendages of the ropery, are on the same scale. The two sets of quadrangular store-houses, and the two corresponding buildings, with the intervening timber-births and saw-pits, at the head of the dry-docks, issuing from the great basin, are also all excellent. The smithery is on a large scale, and close by is an iron-mill, a copper-mill, and a copper refinery, at which is remelted and rolled all the old copper which is taken from ships.



bottoms: here, also, are cast bolts, gudgeons, and various articles of copper used in the navy. The number of sheets manufactured in one year of the war amounted to about 300,000, weighing above 12,000 tons.

The Wood Mills are at the head of the north dock, at which every article of turnery, rabbiting, &c., is made for the use of the navy. The principal part of these mills is the machinery for making blocks contrived by Mr. Brunell. See our article BLOCK-MACHINERY.

Notwithstanding that every precaution that can be devised is taken, to guard against the destructive element of fire, three great conflagrations have occurred in this dock-yard since the year 1760. The first, which appears to have been accidental, broke out in the night of the 3rd of July, 1761, and raged for a long time with dreadful fury. The night had been extremely tempestuous; and the fire was attributed to the lightning striking upon the hemp store-house, the windows of which had been left open to air it. By this conflagration many hundred tons of tar, 500 tons of cordage, 700 sails, and 1050 tons of hemp, were totally consumed. The second fire occurred on the morning of the 27th of July, 1770, when the damage done was still greater; and it was even for some time doubtful whether any part of the yard would escape destruction. From its bursting forth at different places at one time, and various other circumstances, great suspicions were entertained of its having been occasioned intentionally, but the officers were unable to discover the offenders. The third fire happened on the 7th of December, 1776, and in this instance was undoubtedly the effect of design, as the incendiary was traced, tried, condemned, and executed, upon incontestable proof, afterwards confirmed by his own confession. The real name of this malefactor was John Aitken; but the appellation by which he is commonly known is that of 'Jack the Painter.' He is supposed to have acted under foreign influence, and had previously attempted to destroy the docks at Plymouth and Bristol, but failed in both those attempts, though he excited very considerable alarm. His plans were laid with great sagacity and forethought; and, in order the more effectually to ensure their success and avoid suspicion, he had invented a very ingenious machine, which he contrived to lodge among the cordage over night, and setting fire to it left it, and passed out of the gates in the morning unmolested. In the course of the same day the fire broke out, as it luckily happened, several hours before the incendiary had purposed, for, had it not begun to display itself till after the fall of night, the destruction would probably have been much greater than it was. The immediate and effective assistance which was given to check the progress of the flames, and the favorable direction of the wind, confined the damage to the rope-house, and a few adjoining store-houses. The incendiary immediately quitted Portsmouth, but was apprehended about two months afterwards, and, his villany being distinctly traced, he suffered the penalty of the law on the 7th of March, 1777, having previously made all the reparation to his country in his power, by pointing

out some effectual measures for securing the dock-yards from similar attempts.

Portsmouth dock-yard, during the war, employed above 4000 workmen, of whom about 1500 were shipwrights and caulkers; 500 joiners and house-carpenters; the smiths nearly 200; the sawyers 250; the riggers 200; other laborers about 700; and the ropers 350.

Sheerness dock-yard is situated on the island of Sheppey, on a point of land composed of sand and mud, brought from the sea on the one side and down the Medway on the other. It commands the mouths of both this river and the Thames. Till a short time ago this was a very unhealthy and disagreeable place, and as a dock-yard totally destitute of convenience or arrangement. The whole premises of the dock-yard, indeed, divided among wharfs and buildings belonging to the ordnance department, did not exceed fifteen acres of ground. It had at this period only two small inconvenient docks for frigates or small vessels. These inconveniences of Sheerness suggested at one time an extensive project for a new naval arsenal at Northfleet, but a committee of engineers and others being appointed to report on the possibility of improving this station, among whom were Watt, Huddart, and Jessop, their plan was afterwards examined, and some improvements suggested in it by Mr. Rennie. The first stone of a new establishment was laid on the 19th of August, 1814. This plan embraced the addition of nineteen acres to the area of the dock-yard, on the west shore of the Medway; the construction of a wet-dock or basin 520 feet long by 300 feet in width, entered by a lock from the Medway; the erection of three dry-docks on the east side of this basin; the enclosure of Major's marsh, as a further addition of ten to twelve acres of area; and the construction of store and mast houses, mast-ponds, a smithery, governor's and officers' houses, as at the other royal yards. The whole area of the new yard is about fifty acres.

We come, lastly, to the most ancient of our dock-yards, that at Woolwich. This occupies a frontage to the Thames 3300 feet; the breadth extends irregularly from 250 to 750 feet: the whole enclosed area being about thirty-six acres. It has five slips, which open into the river, three of which are for ships of the line, one for frigates, and one for small vessels. It has likewise three dry-docks, one double and one single dock; all of these are capable of receiving ships of the line.

Woolwich yard has produced some of the largest and finest ships in the navy, and is chiefly important as a building yard; but of late years the increasing shallowness of the river, and the immense accumulation of mud, which is often found in a few weeks to block up all the entrances into the docks and slips, has much injured it. In the Eighth Report of the Select Committee on Finance (1818) it is stated, that 'the wharf wall at Woolwich, owing to the action of the tide on the foundation, is in a falling state, and in danger of being swept into the river, it being secured only in a temporary manner, and requiring to be immediately rebuilt in a direction that will preserve it from similar injury hereafter.' This re-



commendation has been acted upon; but the works are as yet, we believe, incomplete.

The new mast-houses and mast-slip, the new mast-ponds, and the houses here for stowing yards, topmasts, &c., with the locks under them, are all excellent. The timber births are also well arranged, and the addition lately made to the western extremity of the yard will allow the stacking and classing of several thousand loads of timber.

The present situation of the ropery, at a distance from the yard, is very inconvenient: but it is of good dimensions, being 180 fathoms long, and having store room for 2000 tons of hemp and 6000 barrels of pitch and tar. The process of tarring, or passing the yarns through heated tar, and then drawing them through apertures in an iron plate, is here performed by four horses. The laying of a cable of twenty-two or twenty-three inches is performed by the labor of 170 or 180 men, and requires upwards of an hour of the most severe exertion of strength, especially on the part of those who are stationed at the cranks. Woolwich dock-yard is pretty complete in its work-shops, store-cabins, offices for the clerks, houses and gardens for the commissioner and principal officers. The number of men employed during the war amounted to about 1800, of whom nearly 1100 were shipwrights and artificers. The spinners, knitters, layers, laborers, &c., in the ropery, were about 260. Upwards of twenty teams of horses were also employed here daily.

Henry VIII. first established a royal dock-yard at Woolwich; where it appears that the *Harry Grace de Dieu*, of 1000 tons, was built in 1512. This ship is stated to have been in length 128 feet, and in breadth forty-eight feet: she had three flush decks, a fore-castle, half-deck, quarter-deck, and round-house, and carried 176 pieces of ordnance: she had eleven anchors, the largest of which weighed 4400lbs. M. Dupin, who regarded all our establishments with the eye both of a man of science and of a jealous rival, says of our present ship-building: 'The English ships of war, with all the improvements which we have just made known, are superior to French ships of war, 1st. As fabrics that are solid, durable, and, as preserving their form, nearly unchangeable; 2d. As military machines, without any weak points, being capable, within the same space, to discharge a mass of fire much more considerable; and nevertheless to exercise more at ease this accumulated artillery; 3d. As habitable fabrics. They have banished from these ships of war the fantastical mixture of mean and highly finished ornaments, of a species of decoration more suited for dwelling houses, and fit only to degrade the austere beauties of naval architecture. They have banished all those refinements of bad taste; refinements which always produced a most miserable effect, which, nevertheless, giving to the exterior an air of luxury and magnificence, encourage naval officers to expend in the interior a still greater degree of luxury; in short, which pervert from its purpose a floating fortress, by changing it into a furnished hotel, supported at a great expense to the nation.' tom. i. p. 165.

The officers of an established dock-yard are,  
1. The commissioner. 2. The master attendant.  
3. The master shipwright. 4. The clerk of the check. 5. The store-keeper. 6. The clerk of the survey; to which have recently been added the subordinate officers of timber-master, and the master measurer. There are besides several assistants to the master attendant and master shipwright, foremen, sub-measurers, quartermen, and converters, surgeon, chaplain, boatswain, warden, &c. The establishment at Portsmouth, which will convey an idea of the others, consisted, at the close of the war, of—

1. The commissioner, having a salary of £1100 a year (all others £1000); three clerks with salaries from £400 to £120.

2. Two masters attendant, one at £650, the other at £500 a year; one clerk to both.

3. Master shipwright, £720 a year; three clerks from £300 to £120.

4. Clerk of the check, salary £600; eight clerks from £400 to £80.

5. Storekeeper, salary £600 a year; twelve clerks from £400 to £80.

6. Clerk of the survey, £500; eight clerks from £400 to £80.

7. Clerk of the rope-yard, £350; one clerk.

8. Engineer and mechanist, £600 (at Portsmouth only), with a draughtsman; one clerk.

9. Timber-master, salary £500; seven clerks from £250 to £80.

10. Three assistants to the master attendant at £220 each; one assistant to the timber-master, £200; three assistants to the master shipwright, £400 each.

11. The master-measurer, £250 a year; ten clerks from £200 to £80.

12. Thirty-five foremen, from £250 to £80 each.

13. Sub-measurers, quartermen, and converters, from £180 to £160 each.

14. The master mast-maker, sail-maker, boat-builder, joiner, house carpenter, bricklayer, smith, rope-maker, rigger, painter (wood-mills, metal-mills, mill-wright, at Portsmouth only); with salaries each, from £260 to £200 a year.

15. Twenty-two cabin-keepers from £100 to £60 each.

16. A surgeon, £500; assistant, £200.

17. Chaplain, £500.

18. Boatswain, £250.

19. Warden of the gate, £200.

Watchmen, warders, and rounders.

The total amount of the salaries paid to the above mentioned officers in the year 1817, in Portsmouth yard alone, was £50,065. *See—Estimates of the Ordinary of the Navy, 1817.*

According to the above estimates the expenses of the principal of these establishments in 1817 were as follow:

Deptford dock-yard	£27,582	0	0
Woolwich ditto	32,440	12	0
Chatham ditto	36,883	10	4
Sheerness ditto	26,659	6	0
Portsmouth ditto	59,969	3	0
Plymouth ditto	45,299	13	0

See NAVY.

DOCKUM, a town of the Netherlands, in Friesland, seated at the mouth of a canal which



at high water brings up large vessels. It has a good harbour, built in 1248, by Ubbo, duke of Friesland. The town is very well built, and fortified by ramparts and bastions. It is ten miles north-east of Lewarden, and thirty-three west of Deltzyl. Population 3100. The trade is in salt, cheese, and butter.

DOCTOR, *n. s. & v. a.* } Fr. *docteur*; Sp. *doctor*; and Port. *dotor*; }  
DOCTORAL, *adj.* } Ital. *dottore*; Lat. *doctor*, from *doceo*,  
DOCTORALLY, *adv.* } to teach. See DO-  
DOCTORATE, *n. s.* }  
DOCTORSHIP.

CILE. He who teaches in any faculty; hence, one who has taken a high degree in the learned professions, and is an able or skilful man, generally. The verb is a low word derived from the noun. Doctorate and doctorship are the degree or rank of a doctor.

And prophetis and *doctouris* weren in the church that was at Antioche. *Wiclif. Dedis. 13.*

No woman had it, but a civil doctor,  
Who did refuse three thousand ducats of me,  
And begged the ring.

*Shakespeare. Merchant of Venice.*

By medicine life may be prolonged, yet death  
Will seize the doctor too. *Id. Cymbeline.*

Changing hands without changing measures, as if  
a drunkard in a drowsy should change his doctors,  
and not his diet. *Saville.*

The physicians resorted to him to touch his pulse,  
and consider of his disease doctorally at their depart-  
ure. *Hakewill.*

From a scholar he became a fellow, and then the  
president of the college, after he had received all the  
graces and degrees, the proctorship and the doctor-  
ship. *Clarendon.*

Then subtle doctors scriptures made their pride,  
Casuists, like cocks, struck out each other's eyes.  
*Denham.*

To 'pothecaries let the learned prescribe,  
That men may die without a double bribe;  
Let them but under their superiors kill,  
When doctors first have signed the bloody bill.  
*Dryden.*

He that can cure by recreation, and make pleasure  
the vehicle of health, is a doctor at it in good earnest  
*Collier.*

In truth, nine parts in ten of those who recovered,  
owed their lives to the strength of nature and a good  
constitution, while such one happened to be the  
doctor. *Swift.*

I thank you, my dear Lord, for your congratulations  
on my advancement to the doctorate; though I doubt  
it will seem a little incongruous in me to combat the  
scarlet whore in her own vestments. *Bp. Hurd.*

DOCTOR, *Διδασκαλος*, in the Greek church, is a  
particular officer appointed to interpret part of  
the Scriptures: he who interprets the gospels is  
called doctor of the gospels; he who interprets  
St. Paul's epistles doctor of the apostle; he who  
interprets the psalms doctor of the psalter.

DOCTOR is also an appellation adjoined to several  
specific epithets, expressing the merit of some  
of the schoolmen: thus, Alexander Hales is called  
the irrefragable doctor; Thomas Aquinas, the  
angelic doctor; St. Bonaventure, the seraphic  
doctor; John Duns Scotus, the subtle doctor;

Raimond Lully, the illuminated doctor; Roger  
Bacon, the admirable doctor, &c.

DOCTOR OF THE CHURCH, a title given to cer-  
tain fathers whose doctrines and opinions have  
been the most generally followed and authorised.  
Of these there are four of the Greek church, and  
three of the Latin. The first are St. Athanasius,  
St. Basil, St. Gregory Nazianzen, and St. Chry-  
sostom. The latter are St. Jerome, St. Augustine,  
and Gregory the Great. In the Roman breviary  
there is a particular office for the doctors. It  
only differs from that of the confessors, by the  
anthem of the Magnificat, and the lessons.

DOCTOR OF THE LAW, a title of honor among  
the Jews. The investiture of this order was  
performed by putting a key and table book in  
their hands; which is what some authors imagine  
our Saviour alluded to, when, speaking of the  
doctors of the law (Luke xi. 52), he says, 'Woe  
unto you doctors of the law, for you have taken  
away the key of knowledge: you entered not in  
yourselves, and them that were entering you  
hindered.'

The establishment of the doctorate, such as  
now is in use among us, is ordinarily attributed to  
Irnerius, who himself drew up the formulary.  
The first ceremony of this kind was performed  
at Bologna, in the person of Bulgarnus, who be-  
gan to profess the Roman law, and on that oc-  
casion was solemnly promoted to the doctorate,  
i. e. installed juris utriusque doctor. But the  
custom was soon transferred from the faculty of  
law to that of theology; the first instance whereof  
was given in the university of Paris, where Peter  
Lombard and Gilbert de la Portree, the two  
chief divines of those days, were created doctors  
in theology, sacre theologie doctores. Spelman  
takes the title of doctor not to have commenced  
till after the publication of Lombard's sentences,  
about 1140, and affirms, that such as explained  
that work to their scholars were the first that had  
the appellation of doctors. Others go much  
higher, and hold Bede to have been the first  
doctor at Cambridge, and John de Beverly at  
Oxford, which last died A. D. 721. But Spelman  
will not allow doctor to have been the  
name of any title or degree in England, till the  
reign of king John, about 1207. By stat. 37,  
Hen. VIII. c. 17, sect. 4, a doctor of the civil  
law may exercise ecclesiastical jurisdiction,  
though a layman.

To pass D. D. at Oxford, it is necessary for  
the candidate to have been four years bachelor  
of divinity. For LL. D. he must have been  
seven years in the university; to commence  
LL. B. five years, after which he may be ad-  
mitted doctor. Otherwise, in three years after  
taking the degree of M. A., he may take the de-  
gree of LL. B., and in four years more that of  
LL. D., which method and time are likewise re-  
quired to obtain the degree of M. D. At Cam-  
bridge, to take the degree of D. D., it is requisite  
that the candidate have been seven years B. D.,  
though in several of the colleges the taking of the  
bachelor's degree is dispensed with, and they  
may go out per saltum. To commence LL. D.  
the candidate must have been five years LL. B.,  
or seven M. A. To pass M. D. he must have  
been five years B. D., or seven years M. A.



DOCTRINE, *n. s.* } *Fr. doctrine; Ital.*  
 Doctrinal, *adj. & n. s.* } *Span. and Port.*  
 Doctrinally, *adv.* } *dottrina; Lat. doc-*  
*trina, from doceo, doctus, to teach. See Docile.*  
 Principles or propositions taught; the act of  
 teaching: doctrinal has been formerly used  
 synonymously. As an adjective it signifies  
 relating to, or containing doctrine; and doctrinally  
 is the corresponding adverb.

Whiche thingis we spoken also not in wise wordis  
 of manny's wisdom, but in the doctrine of the spyryt,  
 and maken a liknesse of spyritual thingis to goostli  
 men. *Wiclif. 1 Cor. ii.*

He said unto them in his doctrine.

*Mark iv.*

To make new articles of faith and doctrine, no man  
 thinketh it lawful: new laws of government, what  
 church or commonwealth is there which maketh not,  
 either at one time or other? *Hooker.*

What special property or quality is that, which,  
 being no where found but in sermons, maketh them  
 effectual to save souls, and leaveth all other doctrinal  
 means besides destitute of vital efficacy? *Id.*

Humility is a virtue all preach, none practise, and  
 yet every body is content to hear. The master  
 thinks it good doctrine for his servant, the laity for the  
 clergy, and the clergy for the laity. *Selden.*

Not such as assent to every word in scripture, can  
 be said in doctrinals to deny Christ. *South.*

Scripture accommodates itself to common opinions,  
 and employs the usual forms of speech, without  
 delivering any thing doctrinally concerning these  
 points. *Roy.*

Ye are the sons of clergy, who bring all their doc-  
 trines fairly to the light, and invite men with freedom  
 to examine them. *Atterbury.*

That great principle in natural philosophy is the  
 doctrine of gravitation, or mutual tendency of bodies  
 toward each other.

*Watts's Improvement of the Mind.*

Spirits and doctrines therefore may be considered,  
 the latter word as explanatory of the former: and  
 error sometimes signifying idolatry, erroneous doc-  
 trines may comprehend idolatrous, as well as false  
 doctrines. *Bp. Newton.*

DOCUMENT, *n. s.* } *Fr. document; Ital.*  
 Documental, *adj.* } *Span. and Port. docu-*  
*mento; Lat. documentum, from doceo, docui,*  
 to teach. The thing taught: precept; instruction.  
 Hence written evidence in law.

It is a most necessary instruction and document for  
 them, that as their majesty made them dispensators  
 of her favour, so it behoveth them to shew themselves  
 equal distributors. *Bacon.*

It is not unnecessary to digest the documents of  
 cracking authors into several classes.

*Harvey on Consumption.*

Gentle insinuations pierce, as oil is the most pene-  
 trating of all liquors; but in magisterial documents men  
 think themselves attached, and stand upon their guard.  
*Government of the Tongue.*

Learners should not be too much crowded with a  
 heap or multitude of documents or ideas at one time.

*Watts.*

DOD (John), a puritan divine, was born at  
 Shotledge in Cheshire, in 1547. He became  
 fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge, and was ap-

pointed minister of Hanwell, in Oxfordshire,  
 whence he removed to Fenny Compton,  
 near Cannons Ashby, in Northamptonshire.  
 In 1624 he was presented to the living of  
 Ickley, in the same county, where he died in  
 1677. He wrote, 1. An Exposition of the Com-  
 ments, 4to., which work procured him the  
 title of the Decalogist; 2. An Exposition of the  
 Book of Proverbs, 4to.

DODART (Denis), a regent of the faculty  
 of medicine at Paris, was born in that city in  
 1660. He had an exquisite taste for music and  
 painting, and was in high esteem at court as a physician.  
 He was a member of the Academy of Sciences,  
 and wrote *Memoires pour servir a l'Histoire*  
*Plantes*; and a curious work, entitled *Me-*  
*ta Statica Gallica*. He died in 1707. His  
 son, Claude John Baptiste Dodart, became phy-  
 sician to Louis XV., and died in 1730.

DODARTIA, in botany, a genus of the  
 giospermia order, and didynamia class of the  
 natural order fortieth, personate: *CAL.* 5  
 dentated: *cor.* under lip twice as long  
 as the tube: *upper:* caps. bilocular and globose. Spec-  
 imens natives of Palestine.

DODBROOK, a market town and pa-  
 rish in Devonshire, fifteen miles south-west from  
 Exeter, and 207 W.S.W. from London. It is  
 noted as being the first place where white  
 bread was brewed, of which the rector claims the  
 right thereof receives 10d. from each inn  
 in the market, third Wednesday in every month.

DODD (Charles), a Roman catholic  
 at Harvington in Worcestershire, where  
 he was born in 1745. He wrote *The Church His-*  
*tory of England*, 3 vols. folio, printed at Brussels  
 in 1737 to 1742.

DODD, (Dr. William), an unfortu-  
 nate divine, born in 1729. He was  
 educated at Cambridge. In 1749 or 1750 he took the  
 degree of B.A. with considerable honor. At  
 Cambridge, he married in 1751; was or-  
 deained the same year; priest in 1753,  
 became a celebrated preacher. His first  
 appointment was the lectureship of West-  
 minster. In 1754 he was also chosen lecturer of St.  
 Hart-Street; and in 1757 took the  
 degree of M.A. at Cambridge. On the establish-  
 ment of the Magdalen Hospital in 1758; he was  
 chosen supporter of that charity, and soon  
 became preacher at the chapel. By the  
 death of bishop Squire, he, in 1663, obtained  
 the benefice of Brecon, and, by the interest of  
 friends, was appointed one of the king's  
 chaplains; soon after which he had the  
 education of the earl of Chesterfield,  
 he went to Cambridge and took the  
 degree of LL.D. Impatient for further advance-  
 ment, he adopted measures which eventually  
 ruined him. On the living of St. George's  
 Square, becoming vacant, he wrote a  
 famous letter to the lord chancellor's lady,  
 offering 3000 guineas if by her assistance he was  
 to it. This being traced to him, com-  
 munication immediately made to the king, and  
 he was dismissed with disgrace from his  
 chaplain. From this period he lived  
 in poverty, if not despised; and his extravagance



finding, he became involved in difficulties, which tempted him to forge a bond from his late pupil lord Chesterfield, February 4th, 1777, for £4200, which he actually received; but, being detected, was tried at the Old Bailey, found guilty, and received sentence of death. Notwithstanding numerous and, we believe, unprecedented applications for mercy, he was executed at Tyburn, June 27th, 1777. Dr. Dodd was a voluminous writer and compiler. He published a Commentary on the Bible, 3 vols. folio; Sermons on Young Men, 3 vols. 12mo.; Reflections on Death, 12mo.; The Visitor, a periodical paper, 2 vols. 12mo.; Sermons on the Miracles and Parables, 4 vols. 8vo.; Several Poems and Miscellaneous Pieces; and lastly, he left for the press Thoughts in Prison.

**DODD** (Ralph), a civil engineer, the original projector of a tunnel under the Thames, and various other public works of importance. In 1795, he published an Account of the principal Canals in the known World, with Reflections on the great Utility of Canals. In 1798, he laid before the public his plan for a tunnel under the Thames, which was approved by government; but the scheme was abandoned soon after its commencement. He had also a share in the improvement of steam vessels; and the first impetus the scheme for navigating by steam in England was given by a patent which he obtained for a steam-boat on the Thames, from London to Gravesend, which, however, was not carried into effect. He afterwards navigated, in a steam-vessel, round the coasts of England and Ireland. He died at Cheltenham, in April, 1832.

**DOD'DER**, *n. s. & v. a.* } According to

**DOD'DERED**, *adj.* } Skinner from Dut.

*sauleran*, to shoot up; but Mr. Thomson says, from Goth. *daudi*; Teut. *todter*, the slayer, because injurious to corn and flax. A plant. See the extract from Hill. The verb is derived from the noun. Doddered is overspread; dodder, excrescences.

**DODDRIDGE** (Philip), D. D., an eminent Independent minister, born in London, 1702. Having completed the study of the classics, he was, in 1719, placed under the tuition of the Rev. John Jennings, who kept an academy at Kibworth in Leicestershire. He was first settled as a minister at Kibworth, where he preached to a small congregation of the Independent persuasion; but, on Mr. Jennings's death, succeeded to the care of his academy; and soon after was chosen minister by a large congregation at Northampton, to which he removed, and where the number of his pupils increased. He instructed them with the freedom and tenderness of a father; and never desired that they should blindly follow his sentiments. He checked every appearance of bigotry and uncharitableness. Yet while thus liberal to the opinions of others, he refused a very handsome offer of patronage made him by the duchess of Bedford, on condition of entering the church of England. He died at Lisbon, whither he went for the recovery of his health, in 1751. He wrote, 1. Free Thoughts on the most probable means of reviving the Dissenting Interest; 2. The Life of Colonel James Gardiner;

3. Sermons on the Education of Children; 4. The Rise and Progress of Religion in the Soul; 5. The Family Expositor, in 6 vols. 4to., &c.; of which several of the prelates of the church have spoken highly. Among others, the late bishop of Durham observes:—'In reading the New Testament, I recommend Doddridge's Family Expositor, as an impartial interpreter, and faithful monitor. Other expositions and commentaries might be mentioned greatly to the honor of their respective authors, for their several excellencies; such as, elegance of composition, acuteness of illustration, and copiousness of erudition; but I know of no expositor, who unites so many advantages as Doddridge; whether you regard the solidity of his version, the fulness and perspicuity of his composition, the utility of his general and historical information, the impartiality of his doctrinal comments, or, lastly, the piety and pastoral earnestness of his moral and religious applications.' Since the author's death a volume of his Hymns has been published, and his Theological Lectures. Several of his works have been translated into Dutch, German, and French.

**DODECAGON**, *n. s.* Δωδεκα and γωνια. A figure of twelve sides.

**DODECAGON**, a regular polygon of twelve equal sides and angles. If the side of a dodecagon be 1, its area will be equal to 3 times the tan. of  $75^{\circ} = 3 \times 2 + \sqrt{3} = 11.1961524$  nearly; and, the areas of plane figures being as the squares of their sides, therefore 11.1961524 multiplied by the square of the side of any dodecagon, will give its area.

**DODECAGYNIA**; from δωδεκα, twelve, and γυνη, a woman; the fifth order in the class dodecandria; consisting of plants, which, along with the general characteristics of the class, have twelve female organs. See BOTANY.

**DODECAHEDRON**, in geometry, one of the Platonic bodies, or regular solids, contained under twelve equal and regular pentagons.

**DODECANDRIA**; from δωδεκα, twelve, and ανηρ, a man; the eleventh class in Linnaeus's sexual system, consisting of plants with hermaphrodite flowers, that have twelve male organs. It is not, however, limited to this number. Many genera have sixteen, eighteen, and even nineteen stamens. The essential character is, that the stamens, however numerous, are inserted into the receptacle. See BOTANY.

**DODECAS**, in botany, a genus of the trigynia order, and dodecandria class of plants: CAL. half quadrifid, having the corolla above: COR. quinquefid: CAPS. unilocular, conjoined with the calyx. Species one only, a Surinam shrub.

**DEDECATEMORION**, *n. s.* Δωδεκατημοριον. The twelfth part.

'Tis dodecatemorion thus described:

Thrice ten degrees, which every sign contains,

Let twelve exhaust, that not one part remains;

It follows straight, that every twelfth confines

Two whole and one half portion of the signs.

Creech.

**DODECATHEON**, in botany, meadia; a genus of the monogynia order, and pentandria class of plants; natural order twenty-first, precise:



con. verticillated and reflexed: STAM. placed in the tube: CAPS. unilocular and oblong. Species one only, a native of Virginia, with leaves like a lettuce, but bearing beautiful flowers somewhat resembling a cowslip.

**DODGE**, *v. n.* Dr. Johnson says from a corruption of dog, but more probably from Teut. *ducken, dongen*, to conceal. To deal craftily; shift place so as to hide; treat capriciously.

**DODINGTON** (George Bubb, lord Melcombe Regis), was the son of a gentleman of fortune; or, as others say, of an apothecary, named Bubb, who married into a wealthy family, in Dorsetshire. He was born in 1691, was elected member of parliament for Winchelsea, in 1715, and was soon after appointed envoy to the court of Spain. In 1720, by the death of his maternal uncle, he came into possession of a large estate, and took the surname of Dodington. In 1724, having closely connected himself with Sir Robert Walpole, he was appointed a lord of the treasury, and became clerk of the pells in Ireland. He afterwards joined the opposition, and, on the fall of Walpole, became treasurer of the navy. This party he also quitted, in order to lead the opposition under Frederic, prince of Wales, whose death for some time arrested his career. In 1755, he accepted his former post of treasurer of the navy, under the duke of Newcastle, but lost it the following year. On the accession of George III., he was early received into the confidence of lord Bute; and, in 1761, was advanced to the peerage by the title of lord Melcombe, and died the following year. This versatile politician was generous, magnificent, and convivial in private life, and the patron and friend of Young, Thomson, Glover, Fielding, Bentley, Voltaire, Lyttelton, and Chesterfield, who, with many of meaner pretensions, mingled at his hospitable table. He is best known by his celebrated Diary, published in 1784, by Henry Penruddock Wyndham, Esq. A more curious exposition of avarice, vanity, servility, and selfishness, as a place-hunter and trading politician, has seldom been exhibited.

**DODKIN**, *n. s.* Dut. *duytken*. A doitkin or little doit; a contemptuous name for a low coin.

**DODMAN**, *n. s.* The name of a fish.

**DODO**, in ornithology. See **DINUS**.

**DODONA**, a town of Thesprotia in Epirus, or, as some say, in Thessaly. There was in its neighbourhood a celebrated oracle of Jupiter. The town and temple of the god were first built by Deucalion, after the general deluge. It was supposed to be the most ancient oracle of all Greece; and according to the traditions of the Egyptians, mentioned by Herodotus, it was founded in consequence of an oracular message by a dove. Two black doves, he says, took their flight from the city of Thebes in Egypt; one of which flew to the temple of Jupiter Ammon, and the other to Dodona, where with a human voice they acquainted the inhabitants that Jupiter had consecrated the ground, which in future would give oracles. This fable might have been founded on the double meaning of the word *ῥέσσαι*, which signifies doves in most parts of Greece, while in a dialect of the Epirotes it

implies old women. In ancient times the oracles were delivered by the murmuring of a neighbouring fountain; but the custom was afterwards changed. Large kettles were suspended in the air near a brazen statue, which held a lash in its hand. When the wind blew strong, the statue was agitated, and struck against one of the kettles, which communicated the motion to all the rest, and raised the clattering and discordant din, which continued for a while, and from which the artifice of the priests drew the predictions. The ship Argo was built with wood of the oak of Dodona, and some of the beams, it is said, were oracles to the Argonauts, and warned them against the approach of calamity. Within the forest of Dodona there was a miraculous stream, and a fountain of cool water, which had the power of lighting a torch as soon as it touched it. This fountain was totally dry at noon-day and was restored to its full course at midnight, from which time till the following noon it began to decrease, and at the usual hour was again deprived of its waters. The oracles of Dodona were generally delivered by women. No trace of this town have been discovered in modern times, but in Mount Tomarus, there is a forest of vast extent, spreading far to the westward, which seems to answer to the site. In the higher part, where the oak does not thrive, there are immense ranges of pines and firs. Dr. Holland, one of the latest travellers in Albania, when describing the city of Ioannina, enters into the long controverted point of the site of Dodona, which he endeavours to fix between Thesprotia and Molossia. Strabo distinctly says, that it belonged at first to the Thesprotians, and afterwards to the Molossians. And we are not aware of its having been assigned by any writers of the same era to these two different nations at the same time. It is singular that Dr. Holland should have overlooked one proof of the opinion supported by him, as it occurs in the very passage of Æschylus, to which he refers in the note to p. 150. Æschylus speaks of Io going to the Molossian plains and the temple of Thesprotian Jove.

ἐπεὶ γὰρ ἤλθεις πρὸς Μολοσσᾶ γὰνθεῖαν,  
τὴν αἰπύνωντ' ἄμφι Δωδώνῃν, ἵνα  
μαντεῖα θάκῃς τ' ἡσὶ θεοσπεροῦ Δαῖος,  
τιρας τ' ἄπιστον, αἰ προσήγοροι ἔλπεις.  
*Prom. 854-857.*

**DODONEUS**, **DODONIAN**, in antiquity, an epithet given to Jupiter, because he was worshipped in a temple built in the forest of Dodona. Dodonides were the priestesses who gave oracles at this temple.

**DODSLEY** (Robert), an eminent bookeller, and ingenious writer, born at Mansfield in Nottinghamshire in 1703. He was originally a livery servant, but his natural genius, and early passion for reading, soon elevated him to a superior station. He wrote an elegant satirical farce called *The Toy Shop*, which was acted with great applause in 1735, and which recommended him to the patronage of Pope. The following year he produced the *King and Miller* of Mansfield. The profits of these two farces enabled him to commence bookseller, and his own merit procured him eminence in that pro-



wrote some other dramatic pieces, a collection of his works in one der the modest title of *Trifles*; lowed by *Public Virtue*, a poem, lso collected several volumes of liscellaneous Poems and Fugitive e brevity would otherwise have eir being totally lost to posterity. he original publisher of the *Annual* hich Burke was the editor; and in shed his best work, *The Economy* e. He died in 1764.

L (Henry), a learned controversial t Dublin in the year 1641. He number of tracts; but bishop Bur- s accuse him of doing injury to y his indiscreet love of paradoxes and thus exposing himself to the elievers. His pamphlet, *On the f the Soul*, gave rise to the well- versy between Mr. Collins and Dr. subject. He died in 1711.

From Sax. *da*; Dan. *daa*; Lat. deer; the female of a buck.

orbear your food a little while,  
I do, I go to find my fawn,  
Shakespeare. *As You Like It*.  
e horns, does none.

Bacon's *Natural History*.

The fearful doe  
g amidst the greyhounds go.  
Dryden's *Virgil*.

ology. See CERVUS.  
cob Vender), a painter, born at 1623, died in 1673. He studied ere he followed the manner of His landscapes are dark, but fine, res beautifully executed. He had ob and Simon, both good artists; rhom died in 1693, the latter in

t. From *do off*. To put off dress; it; delay.

have deceived our trust,  
e *do* our easy robes of peace,  
old limbs in ungente steel.

Shakespeare. *Henry IV*.

Your eye in Scotland  
e soldiers, and make women fight,  
dire distresses.

Id. *Macbeth*.

ou *do*ffest me with some device, Iago.

Id. *Othello*.

in awe to him,

d her gawly trim,

great master so to sympathize.

Milton.

dge is hot, and *do*ffs his gown.

Dryden's *Juvenal*.

*do*ffs the lion's tawny hide. Rowe.

a troubled, Herod? What vain fear

living breast doth move?

ng, who *do*ffs himself our flesh to wear,

rule in wrath, but serve in love.

Crashaw.

Could they *do*ff

they have *do*ffed their hats, 'twould be

a mark the less for plunder.

ly, the crimson kennels now

stain their stockings, since the mire

same purple hue. Byron.

VII.

DOFREFIELD, or DOVANE, the highest peak of the mountains which divide Norway from Sweden. King Christian V. rode over it in 1686, while his attendants only ventured to go on foot. He was saluted with nine pieces of cannon by general Webe; and erected a pyramid on the peak, in memory of the exploit.

DOG, *n. s. & v. a.*

DOG-BANE, *n. s.*

DOG-BERRY,

DOG-BOLT,

DOG-BRIAR,

DOG-CHEAT,

DOG-DAYS,

DOG-DRAW,

DOG-FISH,

DOG-FISHER,

DOG-FLY,

DOGGED, *adj.*

DOGGEDLY, *adv.*

DOGGEDNESS, *n. s.*

DOGGISH, *adj.*

DOG-HEARTED, *adj.*

DOG-HOLE, *n. s.*

DOG-KENNEL,

DOG-LOUSE,

DOG-ROSE,

DOG-SLEEP,

DOG-STAR,

DOG-TEETH,

DOG-TRICK,

DOG-TROT,

DOG-WEARY,

DOG-WOOD,

DOG'S-MEAT.

when he is found drawing after a deer by the scent of a hound which he leads in his hand. Dog-fish is another name for the shark; dog-fisher another and small, but voracious fish; dog-fly a voracious fly. Dogged and doggish is morose, ill-tempered, surly; and doggedly and doggedness the corresponding adverb and substantive; dog-hearted is doggish; dog-hole a mean hole or habitation, sometimes not equalling that of the dog, or a dog-kennel: dog-louse a louse that is frequently found on the dog: dog-sleep, pretended sleep: dog-star, Sirius, the star that gives name to the dog-days, once reckoned unhealthy: dog-teeth are those teeth next the grinders, which resemble the dog's: dog-trick is a mischievous or ill turn: dog-trot a gentle trot, like that of a dog: dog-weary, excessively weary dogs'-meat, a refuse, offal.

Beware of dogs, beware of evil workers

Phil. iii, 2.

She bringeth me the grete clobbered staves,

And cryeth, slee the *dogges* everich on,

And breke hem bothe bak and every bon.

Chaucer. *Cant. Tales*.

I never heard a passion so confused,

So strange, outrageous, and so variable,

As the dog Jew did utter in the streets.

Shakespeare.

I have dogged him like his murderer.

Id.

Your uncle must not know but you are dead;

I'll fill these dogged spies with false reports.

Id. *King John*.

2 C.



His unkindness,  
That stript her from his benediction, turned her  
To foreign casualties, gave her dear rights  
To his *doghearted* daughters. *Id. King Lear.*

Such smiling rogues as these sooth every passion  
Renege, affirm, and turn their halcyon beaks  
With every gale and vary of their masters,  
As knowing nought, like *dogs*, but following. *Id.*

France is a *doghole*, and it no more merits the tread  
Of a man's foot : to the wars. *Id.*

Oh, master, master, I have watched so long,  
That I'm *dogweary*. *Id. Taming of the Shrew.*

Sorrow *dogging* sin,

Afflictions sorted. *Herbert.*

I fear the dread events that *dog* them both,  
Lest some ill-greeting touch attempt the person  
Of our renowned sister. *Milton.*

Few miles on horseback had they jogged,  
But fortune unto them turned *dogged*. *Hudibras.*

His only solace was, that now

His *dogbolt* fortune was so low,

That either it must quickly end,

Or turn about again, and mend. *Id.*

This said, they both advanced, and rode  
A *dogtrot* through the bawling crowd. *Id.*

Behold an Egyptian in the skin of an Hebrew !  
How *dogged* an answer doth Moses receive to so gentle  
a reproof ! *Bp. Hall Contemplations.*

Nor was it more in his power to be without promotion  
and titles, than for a healthy man to sit in the  
sun, in the brightest *dog-days*, and remain without  
warmth. *Clarendon.*

The *dog-fisher* is good against the falling sickness. *Walton.*

These spiritual joys are *dogged* by no sad sequels. *Glanville.*

The same ill taste of sense will serve to join.

*Dog foxes* in the yoke, and sheer the swine. *Dryden.*

But could you be content to bid adieu  
To the dear playhouse, and the players too,  
Sweet country seats are purchased every where,  
With land and gardens, at less price than here  
You hire a darksome *doghole* by the year. *Id. Juvenal.*

Good store of harlots, say you, and *dogcheap*. *Id.*

A certain nobleman beginning with a *dogkennel*,  
never lived to finish the palace he had contrived. *Id.*

His reverence bought of me the flower of all the  
market; these are 'but *dogmeat* to 'em. *Dryden.*

Learn better manners, or I shall serve you a *dog*-  
trick; I'll make you know your rider. *Dryden's Don Sebastian.*

Why should we not think a watch and pistol as distinct  
species one from another, as a horse and a *dog* ? *Locke.*

Of the rough or hairy excrescence, those on the  
briar, or *dogrose*, are a good instance. *Derham's Physico-Theology.*

Thump-buckler Mars began,

And at Minerva with a lance of brass he head-long  
ran ;

These vile words ushering his blows, Thou *dog-fly*,  
what's the cause

Thou makest gods fight thus ? *Chapman's Iliad.*

I am desired to recommend a *dogkennel* to any that  
shall want a pack. *Tatler.*

Juvenal indeed mentions a drowsy husband, who  
raised an estate by snoring; but then he is represented  
to have slept what the common people call *dog-sleep*. *Addison.*

All shun the raging *dog-star's* sultry heat,  
And from the half-unpeopled town retire.

It is part of the jaw of a shark or *dogfish*. *Id.*

The best instruments for dividing of *bones*,  
saw-teeth; for cracking of hard substances,  
and nuts, grinders or mill-teeth; for dividing  
sharp-pointed or *dog-teeth*. *A skatman's Id.*

Had whole Colepeper's wealth been hapless  
Could he himself have sent it to the *dog* ?

I have been pursued, *dogged* and waylaid  
several nations, and even now scarce thus  
secure.

Reverse your ornaments and hang them  
On some patched *doghole* sked with rags.

Hate *dogs* their rise, and insult mocks them  
*Johnson, Vanity of Human*

Dog, in zoology, an animal remarkable  
natural docility, fidelity, and affection;  
master; qualities which mankind are ca-  
improve for their own advantage. These  
creatures guard our houses, gardens, and  
with spirit and vigilance. By their help  
enabled to take not only beasts, but birds;  
pursue game both over land, and through-  
ter. In some northern countries they draw  
and are also employed to carry burdens. In  
parts of Africa and China dogs are eaten,  
as by the West Indian negroes, and as  
excellent food; and we have the testimonies  
Mr. Forster, that dog's flesh in taste ex-  
sembles mutton. They were also used  
by the Romans, and long before them  
Greeks, as we learn from several of the  
Hippocrates.

From the structure of the teeth, it is  
that the dog is a carnivorous animal  
possessed of such strong digestive power  
draw nourishment from the hardest bones  
oppressed with sickness, to which he is  
ject, especially in the beginning of sum-  
before ill weather, in order to procure  
he eats the leaves of the quicken-  
bearded wheat-grass, or the rough  
grass, which give him immediate re-  
drink is water, which he takes in small  
at a time, by lapping with his tongue.  
crements are generally hard scybals, es-  
pecially after eating bones, are white,  
once in great repute as a drug; but  
justly disregarded.

The dog is an animal not only of g-  
tion, but remarkable for travelling  
journeys. He can easily keep up with  
ter either on foot or horseback for a w-  
When fatigued, he does not sweat, bu-  
his tongue. He lies generally on h-  
with his head turned to one side, and  
with his head above his two fore-  
sleeps little, and even that does not  
very quiet; for he often starts, and  
with more acuteness in sleep than w-  
He can trace his master by the smell o-  
in a church, or in the streets of a pop-  
This sensation is not equally strong  
kind. The hound can trace game, or  
ter's steps, twenty-four hours afterwa-  
barks more furiously the nearer he ap-



the fowls, unless he be trained to silence. The females admit the males before they are twelve months old. They remain in season ten, twelve, or even fifteen days, during which time they admit a variety of males. They come in season generally twice a-year, and more frequently in the cold than in the hot months. The female goes with young about nine weeks. They generally bring forth from six to twelve puppies. Those of a small size bring forth four or five, sometimes but two. The whelps are commonly blind, and cannot open their eyes till the tenth or twelfth day; the males resemble the dog, the females the bitch. In the fourth month, they cut some of their teeth, which are soon succeeded by others.

Buffon has given a genealogical table of all the known dogs, in which he makes the chien de berger, or shepherd's dog, the origin of the whole species, because it naturally possesses the greatest share of instinct. This table is intended not only to exhibit the different kinds of dogs, but to give an idea of their varieties as arising from a degeneration in particular climates, and from a commixture of the different races. 'The chien de berger, or shepherd's dog,' says Buffon, 'is the root of the tree. This dog, when transported into Lapland, or other very cold climates, assumes an ugly appearance, and shrinks into a smaller size; but in Russia, Iceland, and Siberia, where the climate is less rigorous, and the people a little more advanced in civilisation, he seems to be better accomplished. These changes are occasioned solely by the influence of those climates, which produce no great alteration on the figure of this dog; for, in each of these climates his ears are erect, his hair thick and long, his aspect wild, and he barks less frequently, and in a different manner, than in more favorable climates, where he acquires a finer position. The Iceland dog is the only one that has not his ears entirely erect; for their extremities are a little inclined; and Iceland, of all the northern regions, has been longest inhabited by half-civilised men. The shepherd's dog, when brought into temperate climates, and among a people perfectly civilised, as Britain, France, Germany, would, by the mere influence of the climate, lose his savage aspect, his erect ears, his rude, thick, long hair, and assume the figure of the bull-dog, the hound, and the Irish greyhound. The bull-dog and the Irish greyhound have their ears still partly erect, and very much resemble, both in their manners and sanguinary temper, the dog from which they derive their origin. The hound is farthest removed from the shepherd's dog; for his ears are long, and entirely pendulous. The gentleness, docility, and even timidity of the hound, are proofs of his great degeneration, or rather of the great perfection he has acquired by the long and careful education bestowed on him by man. The hound, the harrier, and the terrier, constitute but one race; for, it has been remarked, that in the same litter, hounds, harriers, and terriers, have been brought forth, though the female hound had been covered by only one of these three dogs. I have joined the common harrier to the Dalmatian dog, or harrier of Bengal, because they differ only in

having more or fewer spots on their coat. I have also linked the turnspit, or terrier with crooked legs, with the common terrier; because the defect of the legs of the former has originally proceeded from a disease similar to the rickets, with which some individuals had been affected, and transmitted the deformity to their descendants.'

We shall now proceed to describe more particularly the principal varieties of this animal:—

1. The *Beagle*, the smallest hunting-dog used in this country, is chiefly employed in chasing the hare, and is remarkable for the melody of its tone. Huntsmen distinguish the rough and smooth beagle, but they are both the same species.

2. The *Bull-dog* derives its name from the barbarous diversion of bull-baiting in which it is used. It is of the mastiff kind, but is smaller with a somewhat flatter snout, the lower jaw projecting considerably beyond the upper one. Its aspect is very ferocious, and its courage and obstinacy in attacking the bull are well known. It generally seizes on the lip or other part of the face, pinning the bull, as it is called, to the ground, and maintaining its hold in spite of every effort of the animal to disengage himself. Goldsmith relates, that, at a bull-bait in the North of England, a young man wagered that his dog would attack the bull after his feet were cut off one by one. The cruel experiment was tried, and the dog seized the bull as eagerly as ever!

3. *Dalmatian*, or *Coach-dog*, is an animal of great beauty, being of a white color, elegantly marked on all parts with numerous round black spots. The native country of this breed is uncertain; it is commonly termed the Danish dog, and is usually kept by gentlemen as an attendant on the carriage.

4. *Greenland*, or *Kamtschatdale dog*. Dogs of this species have a long sharp nose, erect pointed ears, and a long tail, and are more like the shepherd's dog of various parts of Europe than any other. They are of different colors, and many of them curiously spotted. In summer they scratch a hole in the earth in which they lie, as being cooler, and in the winter they bury themselves in the snow in the same way, as a shelter from the frost. They can bear any degree of cold better than heat; and in spring, when the weather begins to be warm, they pant as if come off a long journey. As soon as these dogs can eat, their training begins. They are then tied to a stake, and plentifully fed with soup made of fish, by which means they grow stronger and larger than if suffered to be loose. A dark place or pit is considered best for their confinement, as this makes them timid, and afraid of surrounding objects, and they exert their strength more effectually to avoid them. All those designed for the draught are castrated, and have their tails cropped, and such as have large bones, a broad foot, a wide mouth, and are thick made at the back of the head and in the breast, are considered as the best adapted for work. Each dog has a particular name, as with us, which is of great use in driving them, as the whole set is managed by the voice, neither reins nor whip being used for this purpose. They are



fed on fish, which is given them in all possible forms; raw, dressed, dried, fresh, frozen, or putrid. After they are full grown they are suffered to range at large during the summer, as their services are not then wanted, and they provide their own food without any trouble to their owners. They frequent the shore, and lurk on the banks of the rivers, often standing up to the belly in water catching the fish, at which they snap with such a certain aim, that they seldom miss it if within reach. When the salmon ascend the rivers in great numbers, their food is abundant, and they only eat the heads, as being the finest flavored. In autumn, want of food obliges them to return to the dwellings of their masters, where they are tied up, that they may be ready for use when wanted. They are then very fat, so that a small piece of dried fish is all that is given them, and this very sparingly, that they may be the sooner fit for work, as a fat heavy dog is never a good traveller. They do not bark like the European dogs, but make a sort of howl, and at this season they express the most piteous lamentations day and night for the loss of their liberty. The villages generally consist of fifteen or twenty houses, each of which has at least six dogs belonging to it, and when one dog sets up a howl, all the rest immediately follow, and make the most horrible noise imaginable.

Six of these dogs are the usual number yoked to a sledge, and they are capable of drawing a weight of 600 or 700 pounds, at the rate of ten or twelve versts an hour; the best dogs, however, will often go fifteen versts or more, which is from eight to ten miles. With about half a dried or frozen fish given them in the morning, they will run sixty or eighty, and sometimes even a hundred versts a day; after which they are well fed. At other times food is very sparingly administered to them. The price of the common dogs is from thirty to forty rubles, but a good leader will sometimes sell for 100 rubles.

5. The *greyhound* is remarkable for the slenderness of its form, its elongated snout, and the extreme swiftness of its course. It is indeed esteemed the fleetest of all the hunting dogs, but, as it wants the faculty of scent, follows by the eye. Formerly, the greyhound was held in such esteem, that, by the laws of king Canute, it was enacted that no one under the degree of a gentleman should presume to keep one.

6. *Irish greyhound*. This is the largest of the dog kind, and in its appearance the most beautiful and majestic. The breed is peculiar to Ireland, where it was formerly of great use in destroying the wolves, with which that country was much infested, but is now extremely rare. These dogs are generally of a white or cinnamon color, and more robust than the greyhound, their aspect mild, and their disposition gentle and peaceable. It is said that their strength is so great, that in combat the mastiff or bull dog is far from being equal to them. They commonly seize their antagonists by the back, and shake them to death.

7. *Italian greyhound*, has the body arched and the snout tapering, but its size is only half that

of the common greyhound. It is a beautiful delicate animal, not common in this country, the climate being too cold.

8. *Harrier*, another of the hunting dogs, closely allied to the beagle, and like it comprehending several varieties. This is smaller than the beagle, more nimble, and better suited to endure the labor of the chase. A suit of the hare it evinces the warren, and frequently outstrips the speed of a sportsman. A hybrid breed between a terrier, is sometimes kept for hunting.

9. *Blood-hound* or *Sleuth* dog. The blood-hound was held in high request among the hunters, and as it was remarkable for its exquisite sense of smelling, was frequently employed in recovering game that had been lost from the hunter. It could follow, with great certainty, the footsteps of a man to a considerable distance, and was therefore of great utility in those barbarous and uncivilized countries in tracing murderers and other felons to the most secret coverts. In many districts infested with robbers, a certain number of blood-hounds were maintained at the public expense, and in general proved the means of discovering the perpetrators of crimes when every other endeavour failed of success. The breed of this kind of dog is not very generally cultivated at this time. Some few are kept for the purpose of shooting deer which have been previously wounded, shot to draw blood, the scent of which the dog to pursue with the greatest certainty. During the American war numbers of blood-hounds were sent to that country, and employed in tracing fugitives concealed in the woods and in the most secret places: they were in use also, for a purpose, during the late revolts in the West India islands, and likewise in Ireland at the time of the last rebellion. They are sometimes employed in discovering deer-stealers, whom they trace by the blood that issues from the wounds of their victims. They are also said to be kept in convents situated in the lonely mountains of Switzerland, both as sentinels to guard the sacred mansions, and to find out and cross those who have been unfortunate in crossing those wild and dreary tracts.

10. *Old English hound* is distinguished by its great size and strength: the body is large, the deep chest, its ears long and sweeping, and the tone of its voice peculiarly deep and hoarse. It possesses the most exquisite sense of smell, and can often discover the scent of a fox when the beagles have given it up. Dogs of this kind were once common in Britain, and have been formerly much larger than the present breed.

11. *Fox-hound*. The breeding of this kind of dog is attended to with great care in this country, that they may be of great strength, agility, and swiftness, to the other part of the world. It is affirmed that fox-hounds reared in this country have their native vigor, on being transported to other climates. In choosing these dogs, it is as much to stand high and appear light in the field as to be deemed preferable. The fox-hound is not so much to the pursuit of the fox only, but is also to hunt the stag and other deer,



equal to the most arduous contests of the chase. A chase of six or eight hours has been sustained by these hounds on many occasions; and in 1795, Merkin, a celebrated fox-hound bitch, was challenged to run any hound of her years, five miles over Newmarket, giving 220 yards, for 10,000 guineas, and as a run for trial, performed a race of four miles in seven minutes and a half.

12. *King Charles's dog*, a variety of the most elegant kind, and which is sufficiently known in this country under the appellation above-mentioned. The head is small and rounded, with the ears short, and the tail curved back; its hair is long, hair curled, and feet webbed. Its origin is derived from its being a favorite of Charles II., who was always accompanied by these beautiful animals.

13. *Lion-dog*, an animal generally of small size, having the head and fore part of the body covered with shaggy hair, while the hind part is smooth, except a tuft at the end of the tail.

14. *Lurcher*, the usual attendant on the gamekeeper, is a dog of smaller size than the greyhound, and stouter in proportion; its hair rough and commonly of a pale yellowish color, and the dog possesses the advantage of a fine sight, it is most commonly employed in killing hares and rabbits during the night-time. When turned into the warren it lurks about with the utmost precaution, and darts upon the rabbits, while feeding, without barking or making the least noise; and then conveys his booty in silence to his master.

15. *Maltese dog*, a variety with long soft and silky hair, appertaining to the spaniel kind, very small, and of a white color in general. This is one of the most elegant of the lap-dog kind, and in some varieties, as in the shock, is almost concealed in the hair which covers it from head to foot.

16. *Mastiff*. This is the size of a wolf, very robust in its form, and having the sides of the lips pendulous. Its aspect is sullen, its bark loud and terrific; and he appears every way formed for the important trust of guarding property committed to his care. As a house or yard dog, he may be perhaps more valuable than the Newfoundland breed, which is more commonly kept for this purpose. The mastiff, in its pure state, is seldom met with. The generality of dogs, distinguished by that name, are crossed breeds between the mastiff and bull-dog, or the bull-dog.

17. *Newfoundland dog*, a variety of large size, superior strength, sagacity, and docile disposition. The feet of this kind of dog are more palmated than usual, and the animal is remarkably partial to the water. The breed of Newfoundland dogs was originally brought from the country of which they bear the name, where they are extremely useful to the settlers on those coasts, who employ them as animals of burden, to bring wood from the interior of the country to the sea side: three or four of them yoked to a sledge will draw two or three hundred weight of wood piled upon it for several miles with great ease.

18. *Pointer*, originally a native of Spain, but long since naturalised in this country. This dog

is remarkably apt at receiving instruction, and is chiefly employed in finding partridges, pheasants, &c., for the dog or gun.

19. *Pug-dog* has the nose turned upwards, the ears pendulous, and body square. In its outward appearance this animal resembles the bull-dog in miniature: it was formerly very common in England, but has of late years become scarce.

20. *Setter*, a hardy, nimble, and handsome dog, possessed of an exquisite scent and sagacity in discovering various kinds of game, especially birds, and esteemed one of the most valuable of our hunting dogs.

21. *Shepherd's dog*, *canis domesticus* of Linnaeus, and *le chien de berger* of Buffon, is distinguished by its upright ears and remarkable velocity of the tail beneath; and stands at the head of the first class of farm dogs. This breed of dogs is said to be preserved in the greatest purity in the northern parts of Scotland. In driving a number of sheep to any distant part, a well-trained dog never fails to confine them to the road; he watches every avenue that leads from it, and pursues the stragglers, if any should escape, and forces them into order without doing them the least injury. If the herdsman be at any time absent from the flock, he depends upon his dog to keep them together; and, as soon as he gives the well-known signal, this faithful creature conducts them to his master, though at a considerable distance.

22. The *Spaniel* is known by its curled hair, and propensity to the water. It is far more elegant than the water dog, and its aspect more sagacious and mild: the ears are long and pendulous, and the hair beautifully crisped. It is chiefly used in discovering the haunts of water-fowl, and in finding birds that have been shot in marshy places.

23. *Terrier*, a small thickset dog, of which there are two kinds, one with the legs short, the back long, and most commonly of a black or yellowish color mixed with white; the other of more sprightly appearance, with the body shorter, and the color reddish-brown or black. In both the disposition is nearly the same; it has an acute smell, is generally an attendant on every pack of hounds, and is very expert in forcing foxes and other game out of their covers.

24. *Turnspit*, a spirited and active dog, once an indispensable attendant on the spit. The turnspit is distinguished by having the body long, the legs very short, and the tail curled on the back; its usual color is grayish, with black spots. Gmelin has three varieties of this family of dogs, one of which has the feet straight, another the feet curved, and the third having the body covered with long curly hair.

25. *Water dog*, a variety, distinguished by its curly hair, which much resembles wool. The webs between the toes are larger than in most other dogs, which sufficiently accounts for the ease with which it swims, and renders it useful in hunting ducks and other water-fowl. Dogs of this breed are also frequently kept on board ships, for the purpose of sending into the water after any small article that may chance to fall overboard.



In order to choose a dog and bitch for good whelps, take care that the bitch come of a generous kind, be well proportioned, having large ribs and flanks; and likewise that the dog be of a good breed and young; for a young dog and an old bitch breed excellent whelps. The best time for hounds to be lined in, are the months of January, February, or March. The bitch should be used to a kennel, that she may like it after her whelping, and she ought to be kept warm. Let the whelps be weaned after two months old; and though it be somewhat difficult to choose a whelp under the dam that will prove the best of the litter, yet some approve that which is last, and account him to be the best. Others remove the whelps from the kennel, and lay them severally and apart one from the other; then they watch which of them the bitch first takes and carries into her kennel again, and that they suppose to be the best. Others again imagine that which weighs least when it sucks to be the best: this is certain, that the lighter whelp will prove the swifter. As soon as the bitch is littered, it is proper to choose them you mean to preserve, and drown the rest: keep the black, brown, or of one color, for the spotted are not much to be esteemed, though of hounds the spotted are to be valued. Hounds for chase are to be chosen by their colors. The white, with black ears, and a spot at the setting on of the tail, are the principal to compose a kennel of, if of good scent and condition. The black hound, or the black tanned, or the all liver-colored, or all white: the true talbots are the best of the stronger line; the grizzled, whether mixed or unmixed, so they be shag-haired, are the best verminers, and a couple of these are proper for a kennel. In short, take these marks of a good hound: that his head be a middle proportion, rather long than round: his nostrils wide, his ears large, his back bowed; his fillet great, his haunches large, thighs well trussed, ham straight, tail big near the reins, the rest slender, the leg big, the sole of the foot dry, and in the form of that of a fox, with large claws. As pointers and spaniels, when good of their kinds, and well broken, are very valuable to sportsmen, it is worth while to take some care to preserve them in health. This very much depends on their diet and lodging; frequent cleaning their kennels, and giving them fresh straw to lie on, is very necessary; or, in summer time, deal shavings or sand, instead of straw, will check the breeding of fleas. A dog is of a very hot nature; he should therefore never be without clean water by him, that he may drink when he is thirsty. In regard to their food, carrion is by no means proper for them: it must hurt their sense of smelling, on which the excellence of these dogs greatly depends. Barleymeal, the dross of wheat flour, or both mixed together, with broth or skimmed milk, is very proper food. For change, a small quantity of greaves, from which the tallow is pressed by the chandlers, mixed with flour, or sheep's feet well baked or boiled, are a very good diet: and when you indulge them with flesh, it should always be boiled. In the season of hunting, it is proper to feed the dogs in the evening before, and give them nothing in the

morning they are to be taken out, but a little milk; but if you stop for your own refreshment in the day, the dogs should also get a little bread and milk. A pointer ought not to be hunted oftener than two or three days in a week; and unless you take care of his feet, and give him good lodging as well as proper food, he will not be able to perform that through the season. You should therefore, after a day's hard hunting, wash his feet with warm water and salt; and when dry, wash them with warm broth, or beer and butter, which will heal their sores, and prevent a settled stiffness from fixing. It has been already observed, that dogs are of a hot constitution; the greatest relief to them in summer is twitch grass, sometimes called dog grass. It will therefore be proper to plant some of it in a place into which the dogs may be turned every morning; and by feeding freely on it, they will be cured of the sickness they are subject to, as well as of any extraordinary heat of the blood; but unless the grass be of this sort, it will have no effect. Dogs are exposed to different casualties, such as bites, blows, poison, &c. If dogs are bitten by any venomous creature, as snakes, adders, &c., squeeze out the blood, and wash the place with salt and urine; then lay a plaster to it made of calamine, pounded in a mortar, with turpentine and yellow wax, till it come to a salve. If you give your dog some of the juice of calamine to drink in milk, it will be of service; or an ounce of treacle dissolved in sweet wine. If a dog has received any little wound by forcing through hedges, or gets any lameness from a blow or strain, bathe the wound or grievous part with salt and cold vinegar (for warming it only evaporates the fine spirit); and when dry, if a wound, you may pour in it a little true balsam, which will perform the cure sooner than any method hitherto experienced.

For stealing a dog a man is to forfeit to the king, for the first offence, not less than £30, or more than £50, with the charges attendant on his conviction, or be imprisoned not less than six, or more than twelve, months. Any person keeping a dog accustomed to bite, is liable to be indicted for a common nuisance; and an action will lie against any person for any sheep, horse, &c., torn by a dog, if it is proved that the animal has done so before.

**DOGS, DISEASES OF.** Dogs are subject to various diseases: the principal are thus described by Blaine, with the method of their cure.

The canine *asthma* is hardly ever observed to attack any but either old dogs, or those who, by confinement, too full living, and want of exercise, may be supposed to have become diseased by these deviations from a state of nature. It is hardly possible to keep a dog very fat for any great length of time, without bringing it on. This cough is frequently confounded with the cough that precedes and accompanies distemper, but it may be readily distinguished from this by an attention to circumstances, as the age of the animal, its not affecting the general health, and its less readily giving way to medicine. The cure is often very difficult, because the disease has in general been long neglected before it is sufficiently



noticed by the owners. As it is in general brought on by confinement, too much warmth, and over-feeding; so it is evident the cure must be begun by a steady persevering alteration in these particulars. The medicines most useful, are alteratives, and of these occasional emetics are the best. One grain of tartarised antimony (i. e. tartar emetic), with two, three, or four grains of calomel, is a very useful and valuable emetic. This dose is sufficient for a small dog, and may be repeated twice a week with great success—always with palliation.

Of diseases of the eyes dogs are subject to almost as great a variety as ourselves, many of which end in blindness. No treatment yet discovered will remove or prevent this complaint. Sore eyes, though not in general ending in blindness, are very common among dogs. It is an affection of the eyelids, is not unlike the scrofulous affection of the human eyelids, and is equally benefited by the same treatment: an unguent made of equal parts of nitrated quicksilver ointment, prepared tully and lard, very lightly applied. Dropsy of the eyeball is likewise sometimes met with, but is incurable.

Cancer. The virulent dreadful ulcer, that is so fatal in the human subject, and is called cancer, is unknown in dogs; yet there is very commonly a large scirrhous swelling of the teats in bitches, and of the testicles (though less frequent) in dogs, that as it sometimes becomes ulcerated, so it may be characterised by this name. In the early state of the disease discutients prove useful, as vinegar with salt, and camphor and Spanish flies, with mercurial ointment, have sometimes succeeded; taking care to avoid irritating the part so much as to produce blister. But when the swelling is detached from the belly, and hangs pendulous in the skin, it had better be removed, and as a future preventive suffer the bitch to breed. Scirrhous testicles are likewise sometimes met with; for these no treatment yet discovered succeeds but the removal of the part, and that before the spermatic chord becomes much affected, or it will be useless.

Colic. Dogs are subject to two kinds of colic; one arising from constipation of the bowels, the other is of a kind peculiar to dogs, apparently partaking of the nature of rheumatism, and also of spasm. From a sudden or violent exposure to cold, dogs become sometimes suddenly paralytic, particularly in the hinder parts; having great tenderness and pain, and every appearance of lunibago. In every instance of this kind there is considerable affection of the bowels, generally costiveness, always great pain. A warm bath, external stimulants, but more particularly active aperients, remove the colic. Colic, arising from costiveness, is not in general violently acute from the pain it produces; sometimes it appears accompanied with more spasm than is immediately dependent on the confinement of the bowels. In the former give active aperients, as calomel with pill. cochine, i. e. aloetic pill and glysters; in the latter castor oil, with laudanum and ether.

Cough. Two kinds of cough are common among dogs, one accompanying distemper, the other in an asthmatic affection of the chest. See *Canine Asthma*.

Distemper. This is by far the most common and most fatal among the diseases of dogs; hardly any young dog escaping it; and of the few who do escape it in their youth, three-fourths are attacked with it at some period afterwards: it being a mistake that young dogs only have it. It, however, generally attacks before the animal arrives at eighteen months old. When it comes on very early, the chances of recovery are very small. It is peculiarly fatal to greyhounds, much more so than to any other kind of dog generally carrying them off by excessive scouring. It is very contagious: but it is by no means necessary that there should be contagion present to produce it; on the contrary, the constitutional liability to it is such, that any cold taken may bring it on: and hence it is very common to date its commencement from dogs being thrown into water, or shut out on a rainy day, &c. There is no disease which presents such varieties as this, either in its mode of attack or during its continuance. In some cases it commences by purging, in others by fits. Some have cough only, some waste, and others have moisture from the eyes and nose, without any other active symptom. Moist eyes, dulness, wasting, with slight cough, and sickness, are the common symptoms that betoken its approach. Then purging comes on, and the moisture from the eyes and nose from mere mucus becomes pus, or matter. There is also frequently sneezing, with a weakness in the loins. When the disease in this latter case is not speedily removed, universal palsy comes on. During the progress of the complaint, some dogs have fits. When one fit succeeds another quickly, the recovery is extremely doubtful. Many dogs are carried off rapidly by the fits, or by purging; others waste gradually from the running from the nose and eyes, and these cases are always accompanied with great marks of putridity. In the early stages of the complaint give emetics; they are peculiarly useful. A large spoonful of common salt, dissolved in three spoonfuls of warm water, has been recommended; the quantity of salt being increased according to the size of the dog, and the difficulty of making him to vomit. While a dog remains strong, one every other day is not too much: the bowels should be kept open, but active purging should be avoided. In case the complaint should be accompanied with excessive looseness, it should be immediately stopped by balls made of equal parts of gum arabic, prepared chalk, and conserve of roses, with rice-milk as food. Two or three grains of James's powder may be advantageously given at night, in cases where the bowels are not affected, and in the cases where the matter from the nose and eyes betokens much putridity, we have witnessed great benefit from balls made of what is termed friars' balsam, gum guaiacum, and chamomile flowers in powder: but the most popular remedy is a powder prepared and vended under the name of Distemper Powder, with instructions for the use of it. Dogs, in every stage of the disease, should be particularly well fed. A seton we have not found so useful as is generally supposed; where the nose is much stopped, rubbing tar on the upper part is useful, and when there



is much stupidity, and the head seems much affected, a blister on the top is often serviceable.

**Fits.** Dogs are peculiarly subject to fits. These are of various kinds, and arise from various causes. In distemper, dogs are frequently attacked with convulsive fits, which begin with a champing of the mouth and shaking of the head, gradually extending over the whole body. Sometimes an active emetic will stop their progress, but more generally they prove fatal. **Worms** are often the cause of fits in dogs. These deprive the animal wholly of sense; he runs wild till he becomes exhausted, when he gradually recovers, and perhaps does not have one again for some weeks. Confinement produces fits and likewise costiveness. Cold water thrown over a dog will generally remove the present attack of a fit; and for the prevention of their future recurrence it is evident, that the foregoing account of causes must be attended to.

**Inflamed bowels.** Dogs are very subject to inflammation of their bowels, from costiveness, from cold, or from poison. When inflammation arises from costiveness it is in general very slow in its progress, and is not attended with very acute pain, but it is characterised by the want of evacuation and the vomiting of the food taken, though it may be eaten with apparent appetite. In these cases the principal means to be made use of are the removal of the constipation by active purging, clysters, and the warm bath. Calomel with aloes forms the best purge. But when the inflammation may be supposed to arise from cold, then the removing of any costiveness that may be present is but a secondary consideration. This active kind of inflammation is characterised by violent panting, total rejection of food, and constant sickness. There is great heat in the belly, and great pain; it is also accompanied with great weakness, and the eyes are very red. The bowels should be gently opened with clysters, but no aloes or calomel should be made use of. The belly should be blistered, having first used the warm bath. When the inflammation arises from poison, there is then constant sickness, the nose, paws, and ears are cold, and there is a frequent evacuation of brown or bloody stools. Castor oil should be given, and clysters of mutton broth thrown up, but it is seldom any treatment succeeds.

**Inflamed lungs.** Pleurisy is not an uncommon disease among dogs. It is sometimes epidemic, carrying off great numbers. Its attack is rapid, and it generally terminates in death on the third day, by a great effusion of water in the chest. It is seldom that it is taken in time, when it is, bleeding is useful, and blisters may be applied to the chest.

**Madness.** The symptoms of madness are thus summed up by Mr. Daniel:—At first the dog looks dull, shows an aversion to his food and company, does not bark as usual, but seems to murmur; is peevish, and apt to bite strangers; his ears and tail drop more than usual, and he appears drowsy; afterwards he begins to loll out his tongue, and froth at the mouth, his eyes seeming heavy and watery: if not confined he soon goes off, runs panting along with a dejected air, and endeavours to bite any one he

meets. If the mad dog escapes being killed, he seldom runs above two or three days, when he dies exhausted with heat, hunger, and disease. Blaine describes this formidable disease as commencing sometimes by dullness, stupidity, and retreat from observation; but more frequently, particularly in those dogs which are immediately domesticated around us, by some alteration in their natural habits; as a disposition to pick up and swallow every minute object on the ground; or to lick the parts of another dog incessantly; or to lap his own urine, &c. About the second or third day the disease usually resolves itself into one of two types. The one is called *raging*, and the other *dumb madness*. These diseases are not, however, always clear; and to which is owing so much discrepancy in the accounts given by different persons of the disease.

The raging madness, by its term, has led to an erroneous conclusion, that it is accompanied with violence and fury; which, however, is seldom the case: such dogs are irritable and suspicious, and will commonly fly at a stick held to them, and are impatient of restraint: but they are seldom violent except when irritated or worried. On the contrary, till the last moment they will often acknowledge the voice of their master and yield some obedience to it. Neither will they usually turn out of their way to bite human persons; but they have an instinctive disposition to do it to dogs; and in a minor degree to other animals also: but, as before observed, seldom attack mankind without provocation.

Dumb madness is so called because there is seldom any barking heard, but more particularly, because the jaw drops paralytic, and the tongue lolls out of the mouth, black, and apparently strangulated. A strong general character of the disease, is the disposition to scratch themselves towards their belly; and equally is a general tendency to eat trash, as hay, straw, wood, coals, dirt, &c.: and it should be remembered, that this is so very common and variable, that the finding these matters in the stomach after death, should always render a suspicion formed of the existence of the disease confirmed into certainty. Blaine is also at pains to disprove the notion generally entertained, that rabid dogs are averse to water; neither drink or come near it. This error contends has led to most dangerous results; is so far from true, that mad dogs from thirst and fever are solicitous for water, and lap eagerly. When the dumb kind exists in its force, dogs cannot swallow what they attempt lap; but still they will plunge their heads in and appear to feel relief by it; but in no instance out of many hundreds, did he ever cover the smallest aversion to it. He lays great stress on the noise made by rabid dogs, which he says is neither a bark nor a howl, a tone compounded of both. It has been by some that this disorder is occasioned by bad food, and by others that it never arises from any other cause but the bite. According to this malady is rare in the northern parts of Turkey, more rare in the southern provinces of that empire, and totally unknown under the burning sky of Egypt. At Aleppo, where it



perish in great numbers, for want of food, and by the heat of the climate, disorder was never known. In other parts, and in the hottest zone of America, are never attacked with madness. Blaine of no instance of the complaint being although he has tried to their fullest extent regular remedies of profuse bleedings, strong iron and arsenical doses, vinegar, partial fast, night-shade, water plantain, &c.: he recommends the attention to be principally directed towards the prevention of the malady.

The preventive treatment of rabies or hydrophobia, according to Blaine, always an easy matter in the human subject, from the immediate bitten being easily detected; in which the removal of the part by excision or cauterization is an effectual remedy. But, unfortunately for the agriculturist, it is not easy to detect the parts in cattle, nor in dogs; and it would be more desirable if a certain internal cause were generally known. Dr. Mead's powder, the Ormskirk powder, sea-bathing, and other nostrums are deservedly in disrepute, while a few country medicines, but little known beyond their immediate precincts, have gained some character. Conceiving that almost all possess some ingredient in common, was at pains to discover it; and which he has now realized, by obtaining, among the composition of Webb's Watford drink.

The mixture, which is detailed below, he considers the active ingredient to be the buxus, which has been known as a prophylactic since the times of Hippocrates and Celsus, both mention it. The recipe, detailed below, when administered to nearly three hundred dogs of different kinds, as horses, cows, sheep, and dogs; and appears to have succeeded sixteen out of every twenty cases, where it was early taken and kept on the stomach. It is also equally efficacious in the human subject; in which case he advises the extirpation of the bitten parts also. The box preventive is directed to be prepared:—Take of the fresh bark of the tree-box two ounces, of the fresh bark of rue two ounces, of sage half an ounce, these fine, and boil in a pint of water to a pint; strain carefully, and press out the marc very firmly; put back the ingredients into a pint of milk, and boil again to half a pint; as before; mix both liquors, which forms the doses for a human subject. Double this quantity is proper for a horse or cow. Two-thirds of the quantity is sufficient for a large dog, or a middling-sized, and one-third for a small dog. Three doses are sufficient, given on the subsequent morning, fasting; the quantity directed being that which forms these three doses. Sometimes produces strong effects on dogs, and it is proper to begin with a small dose; in the case of dogs we hold it always prudent to increase the dose till effects are evident, such as sickness, panting, and uneasiness of the animal. In the human subject, where this remedy is equally efficacious, we have never witnessed any unpleasant or active effects, neither has it been observed in cattle of any kind: but it obliges us to add, that in a considerable

proportion of these, other means were used, as the actual or potential cautery: but in all the animals other means were purposely omitted. That this remedy, therefore, has a preventive quality, is unquestionable, and now perfectly established; for there was not the smallest doubt of the animals mentioned either having been bitten, or of the dog being mad who bit them, as great pains were in every instance taken to ascertain these points. To prevent canine madness, Pliny recommends worming of dogs; and from his time to the present it has had, most deservedly, says Daniel, its advocates. He tells us, that he has had various opportunities of proving the usefulness of this practice, and recommends its general introduction. Blaine, on the contrary, asserts that the practice of worming is wholly useless, and founded in error; and that the existence of any thing like a worm under the tongue is incontestably proved to be false; and that what has been taken for it, is merely a deep ligature of the skin, placed there to restrain the tongue in its motions. He also observes, that the pendulous state of the tongue in what is termed dumb madness, with the existence of a partial paralysis of the under jaw, by which they could not bite, having happened to dogs previously wormed, has made the inability to be attributed to this source, but which is wholly an accidental circumstance; and happens equally to the wormed and unwormed dog.

**Mange.** This is a very frequent disease in dogs, and is an affection of the skin, either caught by contagion, or generated by the animal. The scabby mange breaks out in blotches along the back and neck, and is common to Newfoundland dogs, terriers, pointers, and spaniels, and is the most contagious. The cure should be begun by removing the first exciting cause, if removable, such as filth or poverty; or, as more generally the contrary (for both will equally produce it), too full living. Then an application should be made to the parts, consisting of sulphur and sal ammoniac: tar-lime-water will also assist. When there is much heat and itching, bleed and purge. Mercurials sometimes assist, but they should be used with caution; dogs do not bear them well.

**Worms.** Dogs suffer very much from worms, which, as in most animals, so in them, are of several kinds: but the effects produced are nearly similar. In dogs having the worms the coat generally stares; the appetite is ravenous, though the animal frequently does not thrive; the breath smells, and the stools are singular, sometimes loose and flimsy, at others hard and dry; but the most evil they produce is occasional fits, or sometimes a continued state of convulsion, in which the animal lingers some time, and then dies; the fits they produce are sometimes of the violent kind, at others they exhibit a more stupid character, the dog being senseless, and going round continually. The cure consists, while in this state, in active purgatives joined with opium, and the warm bath; any rough substance given internally, acts as a vermifuge to prevent the recurrence. The worming of whelps is performed with a lancet, to slit the thin skin which immediately covers the worm; a small awl is then to be introduced under the centre of the worm to



raise it up; the farther end of the worm will, with very little force, make its appearance, and with a cloth taking hold of that end, the other will be drawn out easily; care should be taken that the whole of the worm comes away without breaking, and it rarely breaks unless cut into by the lancet, or wounded by the awl.

**DOGS' SKINS**, dressed with the hair on, are used in muffs, made into a kind of buskins for persons in the gout and for other purposes. Dressed without the hair, they are used for ladies' gloves, and the linings of masks, being thought to make the skin peculiarly white and smooth. The French import many of these skins from Scotland, under a small duty. Here, when tanned, they serve for upper leathers for neat pumps. Dogs' skins dressed are exported under a small, and imported under a high duty. The French import from Denmark large quantities of dogs' hair, both white and black. The last is esteemed the best, and is worked up in the black list of a particular kind of woollen cloth.

**DOGS, ISLE OF**, a small tract of low land in the county of Middlesex, opposite to Greenwich; where Togodumnus, brother of Caractacus, is said to have been killed in a battle with the Romans, A. D. 46. The Isle of Dogs is said to have derived its name from being the depot of the spaniels and greyhounds of Edward III.; and to have been chosen for this purpose because it lay contiguous to his sports of woodcock shooting, and coursing the red deer, in Waltham and the other royal forests in Essex. It is well known that, for the more convenient enjoyment of these sports, he generally resided, in the sporting season, at Greenwich.

One of the largest canals ever attempted in England has been cut, nearly one mile and a quarter in length, 142 feet wide at top, and twenty-four feet deep, across the Isle of Dogs, for shortening the passage of vessels to and from the pool, and to avoid the long circuit by Greenwich and Deptford. When the locks and other works of this canal were nearly finished, an unforeseen accident, by the blowing up of the coffer and preventer dams, just as the entrance-locks were completed, on the 24th of July 1805, prevented this canal from being opened until the 9th of December, when the Duchess of York West Indian, of 500 tons burden, passed through it, in presence of the lord mayor and corporation of London. Several large sums of public money having been granted out of the consolidated fund, in aid of this project, for the repayment of them, vessels passing through this canal of 200 tons or upwards paid, for three years after its completion, 2*d.* per ton; those from 200 to 100 tons, 1*d.* per ton; from 100 to 50 tons, 1*d.* per ton; 50 to 20 tons, 5*s.* each, and boats and craft 1*s.* each. This canal is now the property of the directors and company of the noble docks adjoining.

**DOG-BANE**, in botany. See *APOCYNUM*.

**DOG-BERRY-TREE**. See *CORNUS*.

**DOG-DAYS**. See *CANICULA*.

**DOGE**, *n. s.* Ital. *dodge*. The title of the chief magistrate of Venice and Genoa.

Doria has a statue at the entrance to the doge's palace with the title of deliverer of the common wealth.

Addison.

**DOGE OF VENICE** was formerly the chief of the council, and the mouth of the republic; yet the Venetians did not go into mourning at his death, as not being their sovereign, but only their minister. At Venice he was elected for life; at Genoa, only for two years; he was addressed under the title of serenity, which was somewhat superior to that of highness. In fact, the doge of Venice was only the shadow of a prince; all the authority being reserved to the republic. Anciently, indeed, the doges were sovereign; but, for a considerable time past, all the prerogatives reserved to the quality of doge were lost; he gave audience to ambassadors; but did not permit them any answer from himself, in matters of any importance; only he was allowed to answer as he pleased to the compliments they made to the seignory. The doge, as being first magistrate, was head of all the councils; and the credentials which the senate furnished its ministers in foreign courts, were written in his name; but a secretary of state signed and sealed them with the arms of the republic. The ambassadors directed their despatches to the doge; yet he was not allowed to open them but in presence of the council. The money was struck in the doge's name, but not with his stamp or arms. All the magistrates rose and saluted the doge when he came into council; but the doge rose to none but foreign ambassadors. He nominated to all the benches in the church of St. Mark; he was protector of the monastery of the Virgin, and bestowed certain petty offices of ushers of the household, called commanders of the palace. His family was not under the jurisdiction of the master of the ceremonies; and his children had staff-chambers, and gondoliers in livery. But his grandeur was tempered with various circumstances, which rendered it burdensome. He could not go out of Venice without leave of the council; and if he did he was liable to receive affronts, without being entitled to demand satisfaction. His children and brothers were excluded from all the chief offices of state. They could not receive any benefice from the court of Rome; but were allowed to accept of the cardinalate, as being a benefice, nor including any jurisdiction. The doge could not divest himself of his dignity, in his ease; and, after his death, his conduct was examined by three inquisitors and five correctors, who sifted it with great severity.

**DOG-FISH**. See *SQUALUS*.

**DOGGER**, in sea-language, a strong vessel with two masts, used by the Dutch, &c., for fishing in the German sea, and on the Dogger-bank. On the main-mast are set two square-sails; on the mizen-mast a gaff-sail, and above that a top-sail. Also a bow-sprit with a sprit-sail, and two or three jibs.

**DOGGER-BANK**, in geography, a very extensive sand-bank in the German Ocean, between the coast of England and Germany. It stretches south-east and north-west, beginning about twelve leagues from Flamborough-head, and extending nearly seventy-two leagues towards the coast of Jutland. Between the Dogger and the Well-bank, to the south, are the silver pits of the Marins, which supply London with cod; a fish which loves the deep water near the bank.



but indecisive engagement was on 5th August 1781, between the British.

*L. adj. & n. s.* From dog. The measures or rules of regular espicable; mean.

this, he served his master poetaster.

appropriate could make with 't' the almanack;

begin and end could tell, turns, in *doggerel*. *Hudibras*.

Og and Doeg to rehearse, crutch their feeble sense on verse; use to all succeeding times site of their own *doggerel* rhymes.

*Dryden*. and head were never lost of those *doggerel*, or who pined in prose.

*Dryden's Juvenal*. among the critics, whether burlesque a heroic verse, like that of the *Disdoggerel*, like that of Hudibras.

*Addison's Spectator*. *doggerel* Grab-street tends ours with foes and friends. *Swift*.

(Thomas), an Irish comedian, was lin. He played comic characters with applause, and finally became of that house. He died at Eltham, leaving a sum to provide a to be rowed for by six watermen, it of August, the day of the accession. I. He wrote a comedy called *like*, afterwards altered to *Flora, Vell*.

the English alum-works, a name workmen to a sort of stone found with the true alum rock, and alum, though not near so much d. The county of York, which with the true alum rock, affords considerable quantity of these dogne places they approach so much of the true rock, that they are ntage.

*s.* Fr. *dogme*; *Lat. dogma*; Gr. *δογμα*, from *δεδογμα*, per. pass. of *δοκειν*, to judge. Fixed principle or doctrine; see the extract from *Ay-* and dogmatical mean authority in the manner of a teacher. Dogmatically, positiveness of opinion manner. To dogmatise, to sitations or opinions positively.

being not entered into the confession, are not properly chargeable either protestants, but on particular *dogma-*ies. *Hammond*.

the vanity of bold opinion, which themselves demonstrate in all the con- engaged in. *Glanville's Sccepsis*.

bounded intellect of man seldom atures to be *dogmatical* about things

that approach to infinite, whether in vastness or little nces. *Boyle*

I shall not presume to interpose *dogmatically* in a controversy, which I look never to see decided.

*South*. Our poet was a stoic philosopher, and all his moral sentences are drawn from the *dogmas* of that sect.

*Dryden*. Learning gives us a discovery of our ignorance, and keeps us from being peremptory and *dogmatical* in our determinations. *Collier on Pride*.

Critics write in a positive *dogmatick* way, without either language, genius, or imagination. *Spectator*.

One of these authors is indeed so grave, sententious, *dogmatical* a rogue, that there is no enduring him. *Swift*.

*Dogma*, in canon law, is that determination which consists in, and has a relation to, some casuistical point of doctrine, or some doctrinal part of the christian faith. *Ayliffe's Parergon*.

A *dogmatist* in religion is not a great way off from a bigot, and is in high danger of growing up to be a bloody persecutor. *Watts's Improvement of the Mind*.

Nothing can be more unphilosophical than to be positive or *dogmatical* on any subject; and even if excessive scepticism could be maintained, it would not be more destructive to all just reasoning and inquiry. *Hume*.

Perhaps what I have here not *dogmatically* but deliberately written, may recal the principles of the drama to a new examination.

*Johnson's Preface to Shakespeare*. If the present establishment should fall, it is this religion which will triumph in Ireland and in England, as it has triumphed in France. This religion, which laughs at creeds, and *dogmas*, and confessions of faith, may be fomented equally amongst all descriptions, and all sects; amongst nominal catholics, and amongst nominal churchmen; and amongst those dissenters who know little, and care less, about a presbytery, or any of its discipline, or any of its doctrines. *Burke*.

At present, we can well conceive the probability of his *dogmatism* being patiently supported by attending admirers, awed by the literary eminence on which he stands. *Seward*.

DOGMATISTS, a sect of ancient physicians, of which Hippocrates was the founder. They are also called logici, logicians, from their using the rules of logic in medical subjects. They laid down definitions and divisions; reducing diseases to certain genera, and those genera to species, and furnishing remedies for them all; supposing principles, drawing conclusions, and applying those principles and conclusions to particular diseases under consideration; in which sense, the dogmatists stand contradistinguished from empirics and methodists.

DOG-RIBBED INDIANS, a nation of North Americans, who inhabit round Lake Edland, in the north-west part of North America. They are often at war with the Arathapescow Indians. Both these tribes are among the most savage of the human race. They trade with the Hudson Bay Company's settlements.

DOG-STAR. See SIRIUS.

DOG-TOOTH. See ERYTHRONIUM.

DOG-WOOD. See CORNUS.

DOG-WOOD OF JAMAICA, a species of erythrina.

DOG-WOOD TREE. See PISCIDIA.



**DOIAGOI**, an island of Asiatic Russia, in the Frozen Sea, at the entrance of Vagatskoi, or Waygat's Straits. Long. 57° 14' E., lat. 70° 5' N.

**DOILY**, *n. s.* A species of woollen stuff, so called, I suppose, says Dr. Johnson, from the name of the first maker.

We should be as weary of one set of acquaintance, though never so good, as we are of one suit, though never so fine: a fool and a doily stuff, would now and then find days of grace, and be worn for variety.

*Congreve's Way of the World,*

**DOIT**, *n. s.* Dut. *duyt*; Erse. *doight*. A small piece of money.

When they will not give a *doit* to relieve a lam beggar, they will lay out ten to see a dead Indian.

*Shakespeare. Tempest.*

In Anna's was a soldier, poor and old,  
Had dearly earned a little purse of gold;  
Tired with a tedious march, one luckless night  
He slept, poor dog! and lost it to a *doit*. *Pope.*

**DOTT** was the ancient Scottish penny piece; of which twelve were equal to a penny sterling. It was a small copper coin, as thin as a silver penny and not much larger. *Doits* were extremely numerous in Scotland before the Union, and were current for several years after it. Two of them were equal to the bodle, six to the baubee, and eight to the acheson. Some of them, struck in the reigns of Charles I. and II., with C. R. I or C. R. II on the one side, and the thistle on the other, are still to be found in the cabinets of antiquaries.

**DOL**, a town of France, in Brittany, department of the Ille and Vilaine. Population 3300. It is thirty-four miles north-west of Rennes, and 232 west of Paris.

**DOLBEN** (John), an English prelate, born at Stanwick, in Northamptonshire, in 1625. Was educated at Westminster School, and at Christ Church, Oxford. In the civil wars he served as an officer in the royal army, and rose to the rank of major. Returning on the decline of the king's affairs to college, he took his degrees and entered into orders. At the Restoration he obtained a canonry of Christ Church, and the deanery of Westminster. He was promoted in 1666 to the see of Rochester, and from thence in 1683 he removed to York, where he died of the small pox in 1686. Some of his sermons are still extant.

**DOLCE** (Charles, or Carlino), a celebrated historical and portrait painter, born at Florence in 1616. He was the disciple of Vignali, and was particularly fond of representing pious subjects, though he sometimes painted portraits. His works are easily distinguished by the peculiar delicacy with which he perfected all his compositions, by a pleasing tint of color, and by a judicious management of the chiaro scuro. His performance was remarkably slow; and it is reported that his brain was fatally affected by seeing Lucas Jordana despatch more business in four or five hours than he could have done in as many months. He died in 1686.

**DOLÉ**, *n. s.* From *dealt*; Sax. *dealan*. The act of distribution or dealing. The thing dealt.

It was your presumise,

That in the *dole* of blows your son might drop.

*Shakespeare.*

Now my masters, happy man be his *dole*,  
every man to his business.

The personal fruition in any man cannot re-  
feel great riches: there is a custody of them  
power of *dole* and donative of them, or a *dole*  
them, but no solid use to the owner.

Now thou art lifted up, draw me to thee,  
And, at thy death giving such liberal *dole*,  
Moist with one drop of thy blood my dry eye.

*Donne. Devotion.*

What if his eye-sight, for to Israel's God  
Nothing is hard, by miracle restored,  
He now be dealing *dole* among his foes,  
And over heaps of slaughtered wretches

Let us, that are unhurt and whole,  
Fall on, and happy man be 'a *dole*.

*Har.*

Clients of old were feasted; now a poor  
Divided *dole* is dealt at the outward door,  
Which by the hungry rout is soon dispatched  
*Dryden's Ju.*

At her general *dole*,

Each receives his ancient soul. *Clara.*

<b>DOLÉ</b> , <i>n. s.</i>	} Old Fr. <i>dole</i> , to be the origin first class of words; and Lat. of the second. substantive root nify, in both, sorrow; and hence causes, pain; de- tion; and its sion, lamentation.
<b>DOLÉFUL</b> , <i>adj.</i>	
<b>DOLÉFULLY</b> , <i>adv.</i>	
<b>DOLÉFULNESS</b> , <i>n. s.</i>	
<b>DOLÉSOME</b> , <i>adj.</i>	
<b>DOLÉSOMELY</b> , <i>adv.</i>	
<b>DOLÉSOMENESS</b> , <i>n. s.</i>	
<b>DOLÉR</b> , <i>n. s.</i>	
<b>DOLORIFIC</b> , <i>adj.</i>	
<b>DOLOROUS</b> , <i>adj.</i>	
<b>DOLOROUSLY</b> , <i>adv.</i>	plaint.

For none but you, or who of you it least  
Can rightfully aread so *doleful* lay. *Sp.*

With kindly counter under mimic shade  
Our pleasant Willy, ah! is dead of late;  
With whom all joy and jolly merriment  
Is also deaded, and in *dolour* drest.

We are taught, by his example, that the  
of *dolorous* and dreadful objects, even in this  
perfect, may, as clouds, overcast all serenity.

Our sometime sister, now our queen,  
Have we, as 'twere, with a defeated joy,  
With mirth in funeral, and with dirge in mirth,  
In equal scale weighing delight and *dole*,  
Taken to wife. *Shakespeare.*

I've words too few to take my leave of  
When the tongue's office should be pre-  
To breathe the abundant *dolour* of the heart.

You take me in too *dolourous* a sense  
I spake t' you for your comfort.

A mind fixed and bent upon somewhat  
good, doth avert the *dolours* of death.

They might hope to change  
Torment with ease, and soonest recompense  
*Dole* with delight. *Milton's Paradise.*

No light, but rather darkness visible,  
Served only to discover sights of woe,  
Regions of sorrow; *doleful* shades, where  
And rest can never dwell.

Yet to that hideous place not so confined  
By rigour unconvincing, but that oft  
Leaving my *dolorous* prison I enjoy  
Large liberty.



could comfort other : every man was too  
own sorrow : helping rather to make the  
lamentation more *doleful* and astonishing.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

screwed face, and *doleful* whine, they only  
senseless harangues of conscience against  
finances.

*South.*

in returned, dissipating that vapour which  
the nerves, and giving the *dolorifick* motion  
age again.

*Ray.*

most earnestly entreated to know the cause thereof,  
or she might comfort or accompany her *dole-*  
*ful*.

*Sidney.*

troubling him either with asking questions  
; fault with his melancholy ; but rather fit  
a *dolour*, *dolorous* discourses of their own and  
a misfortunes.

*Id.*

ell-ward bending o'er the beach descri  
*dolewome* passage to the infernal sky.

*Pope's Odyssey.*

ot of ruling in this *dolorous* gloom,  
vain words, he cried, can ease my doom.

*Pope.*

appy the mortal man, who now at last  
thought this *doleful* vale of misery past ;  
to his destined stage has carried on  
tedious load, and laid his burden down.

*Prior.*

by the softness and rarity of the fluid, is in-  
and not *dolorifick*.

*Arbutnot on Air.*

, a large well-built town of France, on  
Doubs, in Franche Compté, in the de-  
of the Jura. The country around has  
fertility and beauty, received the name  
al d'Amour. It has several good edi-  
e Palais de Justice, the former  
e des Comptes, the church of Notre  
the Collège d'Arc, and the Hotel Dieu  
It has also a pleasant public pro-

was the Dola Sequanarum of the Ro-  
and contains considerable remains of that

The great Roman road to Lyons passed  
this place ; and here are two aqueducts  
public edifice near the river of their erect-  
was the capital of Franche Compté un-  
t, and, is twenty-three miles south of  
n, and twenty-eight south-east of Dijon.  
, La, a lofty point of the Jura chain of  
ns, between the department of Jura and  
a canton of Vaud, it is elevated 5600 feet  
ie level of the sea, and has the appear-  
an immense rock. From its summit  
a most magnificent view for 100 miles in  
rection, and, on the side of France, a  
t which extends into Burgundy.

GELLY, or DOLGETH, a town of North  
in Merionethshire, at the foot of the  
in Cader-Idris. A new court-house has  
ected, in which the summer assizes for the  
ire held. The county jail is situated at a  
istance from the town. The town and  
bourhood have a peculiar manufacture of  
ndyed woollen cloth, called webbing or  
lains, which is chiefly exported. It has a  
on Tuesday. It is seated in a valley on  
ks of the Aton, thirty-one miles north-  
Montgomery, and 212 north-west of

DOLICHOS, in botany, a genus of the de-  
candria order, and diadelphia class of plants ;  
natural order thirty-second, papilionaceæ. The  
basis of the vexillum has two callous knobs, ob-  
long, parallel, and compressing the alæ below.  
There are fifty-three species, natives of the East  
and West Indies and of the Cape ; the most re-  
markable are : 1. *D. lablab*, with a winding  
stalk, a native of warm climates, where it is fre-  
quently cultivated for the table. The Egyptians  
make pleasant arbours with it, by supporting the  
stem and fastening it with cords ; by which means  
the leaves form an excellent covering, and an  
agreeable shade. 2. *D. pruriens*, the couhage,  
cow-itch, or stinging bean, is also a native of  
warm climates. It has a fibrous root, and an  
herbaceous climbing stalk, which is naked, di-  
viding into a great number of branches ; and  
rises to a great height when properly supported.  
The leaves are alternate and trilobate, rising from  
the stem and branches about twelve inches dis-  
tant from each other. The foot-stalk is cylindri-  
cal, from six to fourteen inches long. From the  
axilla of the leaf descends a pendulous solitary  
spike, from six to fourteen inches long, covered  
with long blood-colored papilionaceous flowers,  
rising in clusters of three each, in a double alter-  
nate manner, from small fleshy protuberances,  
each of which is a short pedunculus of three  
flowers. These are succeeded by leguminous,  
coriaceous pods, like those of kidney beans, four  
or five inches long, densely covered with sharp  
hairs, which penetrate the skin, and cause great  
itching, stinging like a nettle, though not quite  
so painfully. This will grow in any soil in those  
countries where it is a native : but is generally  
eradicated from all cultivated grounds ; because  
the hairs from the pods fly with the winds, and  
torment every animal they happen to touch. If  
it was not for this mischievous quality, the  
beauty of its flower would entitle it to a place in  
the best gardens. It flowers in the cool months,  
from September to March, according to the situa-  
tion. The spiculæ, or sharp hairs, of this plant,  
have been long used in South America as a ver-  
mifuge, and have of late been frequently  
employed in Britain. The spiculæ of one pod  
mixed with syrup or molasses, and taken in  
the morning fasting, is a dose for an adult.  
The beans are used in the East Indies as  
a cure for the dropsy. 3. *D. soja* is a native of  
Japan, where it is termed daidsu ; and, from its  
excellence, mame ; that is, the pod, by way of  
eminence. It grows with an erect, slender, and  
hairy stalk, to the height of about four feet. The  
leaves are like those of the garden kidney bean.  
The flowers, of a bluish-white, are produced  
from the blossom of the leaves, and succeeded by  
bristly hanging pods resembling those of the yellow  
lupine, which commonly contain two, sometimes  
three, large white seeds. This legumen is doubly  
useful in the Japanese kitchens. It serves for  
the preparation of a substance named miso, that  
is used as butter ; and likewise of a pickle cele-  
brated among them under the name of sooju or  
soy.

DOLL, *n. s.* A contraction of Dorothy ; and  
hence a child's toy.

*Doll* treatise

*Shakespeare.*



**DOLLAR, n. s.** Dutch *daler*. See below. A Dutch and German coin of different value, from about two shillings and sixpence to four and sixpence.

He disbursed

Ten thousand dollars for our general use.

*Shakespeare. Macbeth.*

**DOLLAR**, in this country, is chiefly applied to the Spanish silver coin, otherwise called a piece of eight. Dollars are also coined in different parts of Germany and Holland: and have their subdivisions into semi dollars, quarter dollars, &c. See COINS.

**DOLLART BAY**, or **THE DOLLERT**, an arm of the North Sea, extending between East Friesland in Hanover, and Groningen in the Netherlands, to the mouth of the Ems. It is said to have been formed by the sea breaking in here towards the close of the thirteenth century; when it swept away nearly fifty villages. On the side of East Friesland, the sea has in some measure receded.

**DOLLOND** (John), a celebrated optician, the inventor of the achromatic telescope, was descended from that useful body of artificers the French refugees of Spitalfields, London, where he was born 10th June, 1706. His education was limited by the circumstances of his friends, who could only destine him to their own occupation, and he is said to have passed many years of his life as an operative silk-weaver. Mr. Dollond, however, possessed a mathematical and philosophical taste, which soon disclosed itself; he acquired the Greek and Latin languages, together with a considerable knowledge of anatomy and scholastic divinity; and though he married early, found means to continue his scientific pursuits, and bring up his family. In his eldest son Mr. Peter Dollond, he was happily afforded an heir of his own taste, and in 1752 he had so well established him in business as an optical instrument-maker, that he quitted Spitalfields to join him in partnership. This same year was read in the Royal Society, a letter of Mr. J. Dollond's to James Short, A. M. F. R. S., concerning a mistake in Mr. Euler's Theorem for correcting the Aberration in the Object Glasses of Refracting Telescopes, together with an introductory letter of Mr. Short, in which Euler's calculations are disputed; with Euler's answers to Short and Dollond. (*Phil. Trans.* 1753, p. 287.) 'It is somewhat strange,' says Mr. Dollond, 'that any body now-a-days should attempt to do that which so long ago has been demonstrated impossible;' and his discoveries were doubtless for a while retarded by his deference to the great name of Newton, whom Euler considered to agree with him; and whose experiments were certainly compatible with the doctrine of Euler, while Mr. Dollond was better acquainted than either with the mechanism of the eye. In 1753 he describes, in a second letter to Mr. Short, a telescope with six glasses, 'calculated for correcting, either wholly or in a great measure, the errors of refraction arising from the dispersion of the different colors, as well as from the spherical form of the surfaces of the eye-glasses;' appealing to the superiority of the telescopes, which he had thus constructed, above those

which had before been in use. He here mentions the detail of his theory for a future occasion.

His great discovery is narrated in an account of some Experiments concerning the different Refrangibility of Light, *Phil. Trans.* 1758, p. 733. Mr. Dollond commenced his decisive experiments here described, by putting a common prism of glass into a prism of water, and varying the angle of the vertex of the mean refraction of the glass was compensated; when he found that the colors were destroyed, as they were supposed to have been in a similar experiment of Sir Isaac Newton; for the remaining dispersion was nearly as great as that of a prism of glass of half the refracting angle. A thinner wedge of glass being then employed, our optician found that the images were colorless when the refraction of the water was about one-fourth greater than that of the glass. He next attempted to construct compound object-glasses by enclosing water between two lenses; but in this arrangement he found great inconvenience from the spherical aberration. He was, therefore, obliged to try the effects of different kinds of glass, and fortunately discovered that the refractions of flint and crown glass were extremely convenient for his purpose, the images afforded by them being colorless, when the images were to each other nearly as two to three; hence he inferred that a convex lens of crown-glass, and a concave one of flint, would produce a colorless image when their focal distances were in the same proportion. 'The spherical aberration, where the curvature was so considerable, all produced some inconvenience; but, having two surfaces capable of variation, he was enabled to make the aberrations of the two lenses equal, and since they were in opposite directions, they thus corrected each other.' These arrangements required great accuracy of execution for complete success; but, in the hands of the inventor, they produced the most admirable instruments; and he was fortunate in obtaining a quantity of glass of remarkably uniform density. He afterwards made some small Galilean telescopes, with triple object-glasses.

For these inventions Mr. Dollond received the Copleian medal of the Royal Society; and in 1761 he was chosen a fellow of that learned body, and appointed optician to the king. Other valuable contributions of his to the Society were, A description of a Contrivance for Measuring Small Angles, and an Explanation of an Instrument for that purpose. *Trans.* 1754 and 1754. His instrument consisted of a divided object-glass, with a scale for determining the distance of the images by measuring the lateral displacement of the two portions of the glass.

Mr. Dollond, however, did not long enjoy these well-deserved honors. On the 30th of November, 1761, as he was reading a new work of Clairaut on the theory of the moon, he fell down in an attack of apoplexy, which soon became fatal. He left two sons who succeeded to his business.

**DOLLOND** (Peter), eldest son of Mr. John Dollond, the optician, was born in 1730. He communicated, in 1765, a paper to the Royal



his improvement of telescopes; father's contrivance for measuring (see above); and in 1772 another one to and alterations in Hadley's. In 1779 he gave an account of his instrument for correcting the errors of refraction in altitude; and in 1789, on the discovery made by his reflecting telescopes, which became a publication. He died at Kensington, at the advanced age of ninety

EU (Deodate-Guy-Silvain Tancred) celebrated geologist, was born in 1750. He entered into the service of Malta, and became a member of the government, happening to kill one of his contemporaries to death. The grand jury, granted him a pardon, but it was that this should be confirmed by the government.

Dolomieu was closely confined for some time under suspense. This perhaps deterred his habits. At the age of 30 he went to Metz, where he studied natural history. In 1783 he published a paper on the Lipari Isles, and a memoir on the earthquakes of Calabria. In 1788 he published a *Memoire sur les Isles Ponces, et sur le Mont Etna*.

Coming out of the revolution, Dolomieu embarked, with his friend Latour, in the supposed cause of liberty; but on the 14th of July, and when he was about to fall a victim to the horrors of the revolution, he was saved by the intervention of his last moments, and received a pardon which he sent to his wife. He now resumed his travels in other parts of Europe, and in its southern countries. He afterwards his researches into the physical history of Egypt, on which subject he published a memoir inserted in the *Journ. Phys.*, 1795 we find him again in France; he was established of the school of Mines. He was also one of the original members of the National Institute of Sciences. From this time he redoubled his labors, and published a great number of papers in the course of a few years. He published various contributions to the *Méthodique*. On the scientific arrangements made for the expedition to Egypt he was invited to take part in them: and he was employed as a negotiator for Malta. In Egypt he visited the pyramids, examined some of the mountains, and the limits of the country; but his health prevented him from returning long before his departure.

On his voyage home, the vessel was caught in a tempest, and was only saved by running into a port in the storm. Here, as a knight of Malta, he pronounced a traitor to the existing government, and committed to close confinement. In this unfortunate situation he remained until the peace of 1800, in which the government stipulated expressly for his release. During this period he had commenced

a *Series of Lectures on the Philosophy of Mineralogy*, written with bones and soot-water, on the margin of the few books he was allowed to read. He was appointed, during his confinement, the successor of Daubenton in the Museum of Natural History. His last publication was *Sur la Philosophie Minéralogique et sur l'espèce Minéralogique*. He died at Paris, universally respected, 27th of November, 1801.

**DOLOMITE.** Of this calcareo-magnesian carbonate, we have three sub-species.

1. Dolomite, of which there are two kinds, viz. 1st. White granular. It occurs massive, and in fine granular distinct concretions, loosely aggregated. Lustre glimmering and pearly. Fracture imperfect slaty; hard as fluor, and brittle. Specific gravity 2.83. It effervesces feebly with acids, and is phosphorescent on heated iron, or by friction. Its constituents are 46.5 carbonate of magnesia, 52.08 carbonate of lime, 0.25 oxide of manganese, and 0.5 oxide of iron. 2d. Brown dolomite, or magnesian limestone of Tennant. Color, yellowish-gray and yellowish-brown. Massive, in minute granular concretions. Lustre, internally glistening. Fracture splintery. Harder than calcareous spar. Brittle. Specific gravity of crystals, 2.8. It dissolves slowly, and with feeble effervescence. Its constituents are, lime 29.5, magnesia 20.3, carbonic acid 47.2, alumina and iron 0.8. In the north of England it occurs in beds of considerable thickness, and great extent, resting on the Newcastle coal formation. In the Isle of Man it occurs in a limestone which rests on gray wacke.

2. Columnar Dolomite. Color, pale grayish-white. Massive, and in thin prismatic concretions. Cleavage imperfect. Fracture uneven. Lustre vitreous, inclining to pearly. Breaks into acicular fragments. Brittle. Specific gravity 2.76. Its constituents are, 51 carbonate of lime, 47 carbonate of magnesia, 1 carbonated hydrate of iron. It occurs in serpentine in Russia.

3. Compact Dolomite, or Gurhofite. Color, snow-white. Massive and dull. Fracture flat conchoidal. Semi-hard. Difficultly frangible. Specific gravity 2.76. When pulverised, it dissolves with effervescence in hot nitric acid. It consists of 70.5 carbonate of lime, and 29.5 carbonate of magnesia. This kind occurs in veins of serpentine rocks, near Gurhoff, in Lower Austria.

**DOLPHIN**, *n. s.* Fr. *dauphin*; Germ. *Span*. Ital. and Lat. *delphin*, from Gr. *δελφίς* à *δελφάξ*, a pig, because the dolphin resembles a pig in its fatness, and the form of its intestines, &c., says Minshew after Beamanus. A fish. See our article **DELPHINUS**.

His delights

Were dolphin like; they showed his back above  
The element they lived in. *Shakespeare.*

Draw boys riding upon goats, eagles, and dolphins. *Peacham.*

Mishapen seals approach in circling flocks,  
In dusky mail the tortoise climbs the rocks,  
Torpedoes, sharks, rays, porpus, dolphins, pour  
Their twinkling squadrons round the glittering shore. *Darwin.*



**DOLPHIN OF THE MAST**, in sea language, a peculiar kind of wreath, formed of plaited cordage, to be fastened occasionally round the masts as a support to the puddening, whose use is to sustain the weight of the fore and main yards in case the rigging or chains by which those yards are suspended should be shot away in the time of battle; a circumstance which might render their sails useless at a season when their assistance is extremely necessary.

**DOLT**, *n. s.* } Teut. and Sax. *dol*. A heavy  
**DOLTRISH**, *adj.* } stupid fellow; a blockhead; a  
thickskull; a loggerhead. It is clearly the past  
participle of *dull*, as Mr. Tooke says.

Thou hast not half that power to do me harm,  
As I have to be hurt: oh gull, oh dolt,  
As ignorant as dirt! *Shakespeare. Othello.*

Like men condemned to thunder-bolts,  
Who, ere the blow, become mere dolt; ;  
They neither have the hearts to stay,  
Not wit enough to run away. *Hudibras.*

Dametas, the most arrant doltish clown that ever  
was without the privilege of a bauble. *Sidney.*

Let dolt in haste some altar fair erect  
To those high powers, which idly sit above. *Id.*

Wood's adulterate copper,  
Which, as he scattered, we, like dolt,  
Mistook at first for thunder-bolts. *Swift.*

**DO'MAIN**, *n. s.* Fr. *domaine*, from Lat. *dominium*. Empire; dominion; possession. Hence also, we may remark, our termination *dom* as birthdom, kingdom, &c.

Rome's great emperor, whose wide domain  
Had ample territory, wealth and power. *Milton.*

A Latian field, with fruitful plains,  
And a large portion of the king's domains.  
*Dryden's Æneid.*

Ocean trembles for his green domain. *Thomson.*

So Howard, Moira, Burdett, sought the cells,  
Where Want, or Wo, or Guilt in darkness dwells;  
With Pity's torch illumed the dread domains,  
Wiped the wet eye, and eased the galling chains. *Darwin.*

Vain end of human strength, of human skill,  
Conquest, and triumph, and domain, and pomp,  
And ease, and luxury! *Byron.*

**DOMAIN**. See **DEMESNE**.

**DOMAT** (John), a celebrated French lawyer born in 1625, who, observing the confused state of the laws, digested them in 4 vols. 4to, under the title of *The Civil Laws in their Natural Order*; for which Louis XIV. settled on him a pension of 2000 livres. Domat was intimate with the famous Pascal, who left him his private papers at his death. He died in 1696.

**DOMBES**, a ci-devant principality of France, about twenty-four miles long, and twenty-one broad, lying around and partly in the late province of Burgundy, but not under its government, on the west bank of the Soane. Trevoux was the capital. It now forms part of the department of Ain.

**DOMBEY** (Joseph), a French botanist of celebrity, was born at Macon in 1742. He took the degree of doctor of physic at Montpellier, and in 1778 went to South America, where he discovered the majestic tree of the tribe of pines, now named after him, *Dombeya*. On his return

to Europe, in 1785, the revolution dignified so much that he re-embarked for America, being captured on the passage, died in the island of Montserrat, February 19th, 1791.

**DOMBEYA**, in botany, a genus of the monodelphia and order dodecandria: cal. 5 outer three-leaved, deciduous: pet. five; ten or twenty: styl. five-cleft: caps. five, one-celled, one or many seeded. Species chiefly natives of the isles of Bourne and Mauritius.

**DOMBOO**, a considerable town of N Africa, situated on the caravan route Mourzouk, and the first which occurs after the desert of Bilma. It is situated amid plains.

**DOMBOO LAKES** are situated on the extremity of Bornou, and supply that Cassina, and the states on the south of it with salt. The merchants of Agadez hither annually a large caravan, which with this commodity, and convey it to rounding counties. These lakes are supposed to be the Chelionides Palus of Ptolemy.

**DOME**, *n. s.* Fr. *dome*, from Lat. *domus*. building, house; fabric. Also, from shape of roofs, probably a hemisphere a cupola.

Best be he called among good men,  
Who to his God this column raised;  
Though lightning strike the dome again,  
The man who built it shall be praised.

Stranger! whoe'er thou art, securely  
Affianced in my faith, a friendly guest;  
Approach the dome, the social banquet  
Papa's

From dome to dome when flames infuriate  
Sweep the long street, invest the tower safe  
Gild the tall vane amid the astonished night  
And reddening heaven returns the sanguine

While the vine-mantled brows  
The pendent goats unveil, regardless the  
Of hourly peril, though the clefted dome  
Tremble to every wind.

**DOME**, in architecture is a roof of spherical form, raised over the middle of a building, as a church, hall, pavilion, stair-case, &c., by way of crowning. It is the same with what the Italians call *cupola* according to Vitruvius, tholi. They are made round, though we have instances of others; as those of the Louvre; and other polygons, as that of the ci-devant Jesuit in the Rue St. Antoine at Paris. They usually columns ranged around their base, both by way of ornament, and to support the vault. See **ARCHITECTURE**.

**DOME**, in chemistry, the upper part of a furnace, particularly portable ones. Its figure of a hollow hemisphere, or small globe, use is to form a space in the upper part of the furnace, the air of which is continually driven by the fire; hence the current of air is ably increased, which is obliged to enter by an ash-hole, and to pass through the fire, the place of the air driven from the furnace form of this piece renders it proper to reverberate a part of the flame upon the



are in the furnace, which has occasioned the furnace to be called a reverberatory furnace. See CHEMISTRY.

**ET, or DOOM**, signifies judgment, sentence, &c. The homagers' oath in the black-book of Hereford ends: 'So help me God at his dome, and by my trowthe.'

**MENICHIÑO**, a famous Italian painter, was born at Bologna in 1581. He was at first a pupil of Calvart the Fleming, but soon quitted school for that of the Caraccis. He always devoted himself to his work with much study and thoughtfulness; and never offered to touch a pencil but when he fancied a kind of enthusiasm upon him. His great skill in architecture procured him the appointment of chief architect of the apostolical palace from pope Gregory XV. nor was he without a theoretical knowledge of music. He died in 1641.

**DOMESDAY BOOK**, an ancient record, made in the time of William I. and containing a survey of the lands of England. It consists of two volumes. The first is a large folio, written on double pages of vellum, in a small but plain hand; each page having a double column of text, the capital letters and principal passages being touched with red ink; and some strokes of red ink run across them, as if they were ruled out. This volume contains a description of thirty-one counties. The other volume is written upon 450 double pages of vellum, but in a single column, and in a large but very fair character.

It contains the counties of Essex, Northampton, part of the county of Rutland in that of Northampton, and part of Lancashire in the counties of York and Chester. This survey, according to the red book in the exchequer, was begun by order of William the Conqueror, with the advice of his parliament, in the fourth year of his reign, or the year of our Lord 1086, and completed in the fifth year, or the year 1087. The reason given for taking this survey was, that every man should be satisfied with his own right, and not usurp with impunity what belonged to another. But, besides this, it is said by others, that now all those who held landed estates became vassals to the king, and paid him so much money by way of rent in proportion to the lands they held. It appears very probable, as there was at that time a general survey of the whole kingdom made by order of king Alfred. For the purpose of the survey recorded in domesday, commissioners were sent into every county to inquire; and juries summoned in each hundred, to return all orders of freemen, from barons down to the lowest holders. These commissioners were informed by the inhabitants, upon oath, of the name of each manor, and that of its owner; by whom it was held in the time of Edward the Confessor; the number of hides; the quantity of wood, of pasture, and of meadow land; how many ploughs were in the demesne, and how many in the tenant part of it; how many how many fish-ponds or fisheries belonged to the manor, with the value of the whole together in the time of king Edward, as well as when granted to William, and at the time of this survey; whether it was capable of improvement, or not.

of being advanced in its value: they were likewise directed to return the tenants of every degree, the quantity of lands then and formerly held by each of them; what was the number of villains or slaves, and also the number and kinds of their cattle and live stock. These inquiries being first methodised in the country, were afterwards sent up to the king's exchequer. This survey, at the time it was made, gave great offence to the people; and occasioned a jealousy that it was intended for some new imposition. But notwithstanding all the precaution taken by the conqueror, to have this survey faithfully and impartially executed, it appears, from indisputable authority, that a false return was given in by some of the commissioners; and that, as it is said, out of a pious motive. This was particularly the case with the abbey of Croyland in Lincolnshire, the possessions of which were greatly under-rated, both with regard to quantity and value. Perhaps more of these pious frauds were discovered, as it is said Ralph Flambard, minister to William Rufus, proposed the making a fresh and more rigorous inquiry; but this was never executed. Notwithstanding this proof of its falsehood in some instances, which must throw a suspicion on others, the authority of domesday book was never permitted to be called in question; and always, when it has been necessary to distinguish whether lands were held in ancient demesne, or in any other manner, recourse was had to that only to determine the doubt. From this definitive authority, from which, as from the sentence pronounced at domesday, or the day of judgment, there could be no appeal, the name of the book is said to have been derived. But Stowe assigns another reason for this appellation; namely that domesday book is a corruption of domus Dei book; a title given it because heretofore deposited in the king's treasury, in a place of the church of Westminster, or Winchester, called domus Dei. From the great care formerly taken for the preservation of this survey, we may learn the estimation in which its importance was held. The dialogue de Scaccaris says, 'Liber ille (Domesday) sigilli regis comes est individuus in thesauro.' Until lately it has been kept under three different locks and keys; one in the custody of the treasurer, and the others in that of the two chamberlains of the exchequer. It is now deposited in the chapter-house at Westminster, where it may be consulted on paying to the proper officers a fee of 6s. 8d. for a search, and 4d. per line for a transcript. Besides the two volumes above mentioned, there is also a third made by order of the same king; and which differs from the others in form more than matter. There is also a fourth called domesday, which is kept in the exchequer; which, though a very large volume, is only an abridgment of the others. In the remembrancer's office in the exchequer is kept a fifth book, likewise called domesday, which is the same with the fourth book already mentioned. King Alfred had a roll which he called domesday; and the domesday-book made by William the Conqueror, referred to the time of Edward the Confessor, as that of king Alfred did to the time of Ethelred. The fourth book of domesday having many pictures and gilt letters



in the beginning relating to the time of king Edward the Confessor, this led some to a false opinion that domesday-book was composed in the reign of king Edward.

In 1767, in consequence of an address from the House of Lords, his late Majesty gave directions for the publication of domesday-book, among other records. An engraved fac-simile was at first contemplated; but the great expense of such an undertaking caused it to be laid aside: and a tolerably exact fac-simile metal type having at length been obtained, the editing of the work was confided to Mr. Abraham Farley, Deputy Keeper of the Records in the Chapter-house, at Westminster, a gentleman of singular learning and experience in this department of literature, who had had almost daily recourse to the book for more than forty years. The work was commenced in 1770, and was completed early in 1783, at the press of Mr. John Nichols—the type with which it was executed, was destroyed in the fire which consumed his printing-office in February, 1808. Accurately as Mr. Farley accomplished the task which had been assigned to him, the printed Domesday was comparatively of little value for want of minute indexes. This deficiency has been supplied under the direction of the Record Commission, in a folio volume, containing indexes of names of persons, of places, and things, so minute, (and from frequent reference, we can state, so accurate,) that the object of enquiry, if in the work, may be readily ascertained. These indexes have been compiled

by the clerks in the Record Office of the Chapter-house, under the superintendence of the late Right Hon. George Rose, the principal keeper of that repository of our national muniments: and to them is prefixed a very elaborate introduction to Domesday, by Mr. Ellis, one of the librarians of the British Museum, containing dissertations on the formation and execution of the Record, the principal matters therein contained, its original uses, conservation, and authority in courts of law. From these disquisitions, which are comprised in eighty-eight well-filled leaf pages, the preceding particulars have been chiefly abridged. In further illustration of this ancient and important record, the Commissioners have thought it their duty to print a supplemental volume of similar surveys, of nearly coeval date, for Exeter, Ely, and Winton or Winchester, which appear to have been the original inquiries whence the general survey was compiled, so far as relates to those districts: and, as the county palatine of Durham was not comprised within the Conqueror's survey, they have deemed it expedient to add the contents of a similar survey for that county, denominated the *Baldre Book*, though its date is somewhat later. The supplement to Domesday forms a large volume in folio, and is enriched with a critical and historical dissertation on the records there printed together with appropriate indexes, by Mr. Ellis.

The following extract will give our readers an idea of the nature of this venerable Record:

#### IN BRIXISTAN HUND.

Rex ten<sup>4</sup> BERMUNDESYE. herald<sup>com</sup> tenuit. Tc se defd  
p. xiii. hid. m° p. xii. hid. Tra. ē. viii. car. In dñio. ē una  
car. 7 xxv. villi 7 xxxiii. bord cū. un. car.  
Ibi nova 7 pulchra ecclā. 7 xx. ac p<sup>a</sup>ti. Silva<sup>2</sup> v. porc  
de pasnag: In Lundonia. xiii. burgses de xliiii. der.  
T. R. E. 7 m<sup>2</sup> val. xv. lib 7 vicecom<sup>2</sup> hē. xx. sol.  
✓ Comes morit ten. i. hidā que T. R. E. 7 post fuit in hoc m

That is:

#### IN BRIXISTAN HUNDREDO.

Rex tenet BERMUNDESYE. Heraldus comes tenuit. Tunc se defendebat pro xiii hidis, modo pro xii hidis. Terra est viii carrucatarum. In dominio est una carrucata et xxv villani et xxxiii bordarii cum una carrucata. Ibi nova et pulchra ecclesia, et xx acra prati. Silva et porci de pasnagio. In Lundonia xiii burgenses de xliiii denariis. Tempore Regis Eduardi et modo valet xv libras et comes habet xx solidos. Comes Moritoniensis tenet i hidam quae Tempore Regis Eduardi et post fuit in hoc Manerio.

In English thus:

#### In Brixistan Hundred.

‘The king holds BERMUNDESYE. Earl HERALD held it [before]. At that time it was rated at thirteen hides; now, at twelve. The arable land is eight carrucates [or plough-lands]. There is one carrucate in demesne; and twenty-five villans, and thirty-three bordars, with one carrucate. There is a new and handsome church, with twenty acres of meadow, and woodland for five kope a pasnage [pasturage] time. In LONDON are thirteen burgesses at forty-four pence. In the time of king Edward it was valued, as it now is, at fifteen pounds; and the sheriff has twenty shillings. The Earl of Moriton holds one hide, which, in the time of King Edward, and afterwards, was in this maner.’



ently of the immediate uses of this Conqueror, it is to this day a record of importance to the historian and to y, for the light it throws on the dif- of persons into which the English divided—the different denominations their culture and measurement—the nominations of money, and the per- ces that enjoyed the liberty of coin- rial jurisdictions and franchises— services—criminal and civil juris- clestial and historical matters ed, besides many curious illustrations anners, which we have not room to

**TIC**, *n. s.* & *adj.* } *Fr. domestique;*  
*cat. adj.* } *Span. Portug.*  
*cally, adv.* } *and Ital. domes-*  
*cate, v. a.* } *tico; Lat. do-*  
*domus*, a house. See **DOMINION**.  
adjective domestic, of or belonging  
e, is here the root; it means also  
tame. To domesticate is to make  
ic, to familiarize.

evils, for that we think we can master  
mes, are often permitted to run on for-  
e too late to recall them.

*Hooker. Dedication.*

ality of two domestic powers  
scrupulous faction.

*Shakespeare. Antony and Cleopatra.*

sin of those who began that rebellion,  
seeds be, who hindered the speedy sup-  
by domestic dissensions.

*King Charles.*

corruption be not sucked in from the  
ners, a little providence might secure  
first entrance into the world.

*Clarendon.*

dwells remote from all knowledge of his  
s: he lives as a kind of foreigner under  
!; a domestic, and yet a stranger too.

*South.*

ing thus, O happy as a queen!  
ut shift the gaudy, flattering scene,  
t home in her domestic light,  
abe must come, at least at night.

*Granville.*

al knowledge of the domestic duties is  
glory of a woman.

*Clarissa.*

il prudent husband is an honest, tracta-  
tic animal.

*Addison's Spectator.*

philosopher would rejoice in that liberty  
hmen give their domestics; and for my  
annot avoid being pleased at the happi-  
poor creatures, who in some measure  
mine.

*Goldsmith.*

**YING**, in astrology, the dividing or  
the heavens into twelve houses, to  
me, by means of six great circles,  
s of position. Regiomontanus makes  
of position pass through the intersec-  
meridian and the horizon: others  
pass through the poles of the zodiac.

*OGY.*

**ANT**, among musicians, is used either  
ive or substantive; but these different  
s are far from being indiscriminate.

In both senses it is explained by Rousseau as  
follows:—

**DOMINANT**, *adj.* The dominant or sensible  
chord, is that which is practised upon the do-  
minant of the tone, and which introduces a perfect  
cadence. Every perfect major chord becomes a  
dominant chord, as soon as the seventh minor is  
added to it.

**DOMINANT**, *n. s.* Of the three notes essential  
to the tone, it is that which is a fifth from the  
tonic. The tonic and the dominant fix the  
tone; in it they are each of them the fundamen-  
tal sound of a particular chord: whereas the  
mediant, which constitutes the mode, has no chord  
peculiar to itself, and only makes a part of the  
chord of the tonic. Rameau gives the name of  
dominant in general to every note which carries  
a chord of the seventh, and distinguishes that  
which carries the sensible chord by the name of  
a tonic dominant; but on account of the length  
of the word, this addition to the name has not  
been adopted by artists: they continue simply to  
call that note a dominant which is a fifth from  
the tonic; and they do not call the other notes,  
which carry a chord of the seventh, dominants,  
but fundamentals; which is sufficient to render  
their meaning plain, and prevents confusion.

A **DOMINANT**, in that species of church music  
which is called plain chant, is that note which is  
most frequently repeated or beaten, in whatever  
degree it may be from the tonic. In this species  
of music there are dominants and tonics, but no  
mediant.

**DOMINATE**, *v. a.* } *Fr. domain;*  
**DOMINATION**, *n. s.* } *Portug. and Ital. domi-*  
**DOMINATIVE**, *adj.* } *nio; Lat. dominium, from*  
**DOMINATOR**, *n. s.* } *domus; Gr. δῶμος, a*  
**DOMINION**, *n. s.* } *house, ἡ δῆμος, to build.*

To prevail over: domination and dominion both  
signify supreme authority, power, as over a man's  
own house or territory: a dominator is he who  
thus rules.

Settynge him on his right half in heuenli thingis  
aboue ech principat and potestat and vertu and domi-  
nacioun, and (above) ech name that is named, not  
oonli in this world, but also in the world to comyng.

*Wiclif. Effenes i.*

By him were all things created, visible and invis-  
ible, whether they be thrones or dominions, or princi-  
palities or powers.

*Col. i. 16.*

Thou and thine usurp

The domination, royalties, and rights

Of this oppressed boy. *Shakespeare. King John.*

Jupiter and Mars are dominators for this north-  
west part of the world, which maketh the people  
impatient of servitude, lovers of liberty, martial,  
and courageous.

*Camden's Remains.*

Conquest and good husbandry both enlarge the  
king's dominions: the one by the sword, making the  
acres more in number, the other by the plough,  
making the same acres more in value.

*Fuller.*

The Law of Works is that empire and dominion  
which God exercised over man, using his utmost  
right, and obliging man to the rigorous observation  
of all that law he should impose upon him.

*Bp. Taylor.*

He gave us only over beast, fish, fowl,

*Dominion* absolute; that right we hold

By his donation: but man over man

His made not lord.

*Milton.*



Hear, all ye angels, progeny of light,  
Thrones, dominations, principedoms, virtues, powers.  
*Id.*

What can our travellers bring home  
That is not to be learnt at Rome?  
What politics, or strange opinions,  
That are not in our own dominions? *Hudibras.*

I thus conclude my theme,  
The dominating humour makes the dream.

*Dryden.*  
He could not have private dominion over that which  
was under the private dominion of another. *Locke.*

Maximinus traded with the Goths in the product of  
his own estate in Thracia, the place of his nativity;  
whither he retired, to withdraw from the unjust  
domination of Opilius Macrinus. *Arbutnot on Coins.*

Blest use of power, O virtuous pride in kings!  
And like his bounty whence dominion springs.

*Tickell.*  
Of all the enemies of idleness, want is the most  
formidable. Fame is soon found to be a sound, and  
love a dream. Avarice and ambition may be justly  
suspected of being privy confederacies with idleness,  
for when they have, for a while, protected their vota-  
ries, they often deliver them up, to end their lives  
under her dominion. *Johnson.*

To sit on rocks, to muse o'er flood and fell,  
To slowly trace the forest's shady scenes,  
Where things that own not man's dominion dwell,  
And mortal foot hath ne'er, or rarely been.

*Byron.*  
DOMINEER, *v. n.* Fr. *dominer*. See DOMI-  
NATE. To rule with absolute authority: hence  
to swell; bluster.

Go to the feast, revel, and domineer,  
Carouse full measure.

*Shakespeare. Taming of the Shrew.*  
The voice of conscience now is low and weak,  
chastising the passions, as old Eli did his lustful domi-  
neering sons. *South.*

Both would their little ends secure;  
He sighs for freedom, she for power:  
His wishes tend abroad to roam,  
And hers to domineer at home. *Prior.*

DOMINGO (St.), HISPANIOLA, or HAYTI, one of the largest and most fertile of the West India islands, and the second in point of size, is situated between Porto Rico on the east, and Jamaica and Cuba on the west. It is approached on its northern side by the southern part of the Bahama chain, while southward the Caribbean sea runs between it and Terra Firma. The extreme length of St. Domingo is generally stated at about 400 miles; Rainsford, however, extends it to 490 miles, and its utmost breadth 150; but a considerable peninsula projects for nearly 140 miles towards the west, and, with a large promontory on the north, forms a spacious bay opposite the island of Cuba. Its medium length may therefore be computed at 300 miles, and its breadth at 100, which gives a superficial area of about 30,000 square miles, equal therefore to that of Ireland. Its most northerly point is in 19° 46'; and its most southerly in 17° 37' N. lat.; westward its extreme point (Cape Tiberon) is in 74° 15'; and eastward, Cape Engano, its extreme point in this direction, is 67° 35' W. long. Columbus, who discovered it in his first voyage to the New World,

found it known at Cuba as Hayti, *sic*, and appears, a highland country; thus the also called it, and the name has been retained late years by the independent black gow who have revolutionised the French part of the island. This great navigator himself it, according to Dr. Robertson, *Esquisse* Little Spain; or at first, as other writers call it, in honor of the queen of Spain. However, best known to European geographers as St. Domingo, the name of the capital of the Spanish part of the island.

St. Domingo, as it existed before the revolution of 1789, is described by the abbé L'abbé as abounding in 'delightful vales, where sweets of spring are enjoyed, without either winter or summer. There are but two seasons, \* in the year, and they are both fine. The ground always laden with flowers, covered with flowers, realises the delicious riches of poetical descriptions. When we turn our eyes, we are enchanted with the objects, colored and reflected by the light. The air is temperate in the day, and the nights are constantly cool.' The French and French were the European masters of the island, until a very recent period; the demarcation, between their respective territories commencing at the river Massacre on the east side, at the head of the bay of Mancenry extending to the river Pedernates south of the country east of this line, being about fourths of the island, was claimed by France, and all to the westward by France. The part of the island, of a very irregular shape, comprehended 2,500,000 acres, of which were in high cultivation previous to 1789.

The coast of St. Domingo is also rocky, and the navigation of the neighborhood dangerous: in his course from Cuba, François, Columbus, it is well known, a vessel in which he originally sailed from Spain. None of its harbours will admit vessels of considerable burden. On the south side of the bays of St. Domingo, Neyba and Acaoa. The first has become, of late years, very shallow and full of reefs. The bay of Neyba, vessels of thirty tons burden; but a fine name flowing into it, divides itself, before entering the ocean, into various channels, changing in the rainy season, perplexing navigation. Acaoa Bay has also several small rivers flowing into it. The entrance is two leagues across, and widens inwards to nearly six leagues. On the east side is the capacious port of Cap-Haïtien, the best and safest of the island. On the east coast is the Bay of Samana, extending to its southern point, Cape Rafael, to the side of peninsula of Samana, eighteen miles, enclosed by a bulwark of rocks and mountains, the entrance only being left clear, but having a deep channel between the shore and some detached islands: it receives the Yuna and Cambu after their junction. The former has a course of about 100 miles, and the bay is about sixty miles deep, and is surrounded on every side by a fertile country. Plata is Halsama Bay, which has only a few feet depth of water, and is of difficult access.



trance being very narrow: the neighbour-  
s rich in valuable woods. Batia Ecosaise,  
ots' Bay, is in this direction, but is a  
ous, rocky inlet; and there are several  
small harbours and bays on this side of the

None of the rivers are practicable, even  
ats, in the dry season. Eleven leagues  
of Port-au-Prince is a salt lake, named  
quelle, twenty-two leagues in circuit; its  
is deep, clear, and bitter, and it abounds  
igators and tortoises of a large size; in it  
island, two leagues long, abounding with  
goats, and having a spring of fresh water.

The independent portion of St. Domingo (the  
French part), is mountainous and well-  
ed, containing mines of silver and iron.  
of the central part of the Spanish territo-  
is also composed of elevated mountains,  
of them capable of cultivation, and having  
extremely rich. They also have yielded  
and silver. From the city of St. Domingo  
wide plains, from twenty to twenty-five  
in breadth, stretch for about eighty miles to  
st. They are called the Los Llanos, and  
lapped to the growth of every tropical pro-  
m. A beautiful valley to the north of  
through which the river Cotu flows, is  
to be still more productive. The mountains  
ncipally composed of two parallel chains,  
ng from east to west, with several collateral  
hes. Excellent timber abounds throughout  
ountains. In those of Cibao originate the  
pal streams of the island; and the influence  
se lofty ranges, in mitigating the winds and  
ng the atmosphere, is most important in this  
te. Some of them rise to the height of  
feet above the level of the sea.

ch, according to Edwards, is the unrivalled  
ity of the plains of this island, that they are  
capable of producing more sugar and other  
ble commodities than all the British West  
put together. Common attention to their  
ed advantages was alone wanting in the  
sh colonists to render this one of the most  
tant possessions of that crown. But when,  
arts of cruelty and oppression, they had  
ated the aboriginal inhabitants, many of  
became speculators in adventures to South  
ca; while those who remained sunk into  
retched indolence, as to suffer this beau-  
art of the country to become a luxuriant  
ness. The Savannahs, and fine plains in  
terior, became, in consequence, entirely  
ed by wild animals, such as swine, horses,  
rned cattle; and herds of domestic animals  
wild in every direction. The export of  
animals to the French settlements of the  
ourhood, formed an important branch of  
ce to the Spaniards; and it was in ex-  
ce for them chiefly that they received the  
ctures of Europe.

The climate is moist, hot, and unhealthy to  
eans; the thermometer in the plains rising  
as 99°; and in the higher parts to 72°  
F°. But these heats are moderated by the  
r sea-breeze, which sets in about ten in  
orning, and which is succeeded, towards  
ening, by a land breeze. The heaviest  
of the wet season fall in May and June;

and so impregnated with moisture is the atmos-  
phere at this season, that the brightest metallic  
polish becomes tarnished; the brooks now swell  
into torrents, and not seldom overwhelm the ad-  
jacent plantations. From time immemorial the  
inhabitants of the dryer parts of the island have  
reserved a portion of these copious streams by  
an artificial irrigation. The sea-coast is said to  
be more unfavorable to European constitutions  
than the interior. On the northern coast severe  
gales are felt, but the violent hurricanes of other  
parts of the West Indies seldom blow here;  
when they occur, it is chiefly on the southern  
coast, where they are denominated southern  
gales.

St. Domingo is chiefly valuable for its vegeta-  
ble productions. The useful and elegant maho-  
gany-tree here grows to a noble size and is of  
very superior grain. The largest of its plants is  
the cotton-tree, whose stem often furnishes the  
entire body of the Indian canoes: the pine is  
also abundant; and here is a species of oak,  
resembling the American, which yields planks of  
from sixty to seventy feet long. Brasil, satin,  
and various hard and ornamental woods are also  
found. Sugar, coffee, and cotton, of a fine qual-  
ity, are produced in abundance. Indigo was  
once cultivated, but it has been long since aban-  
doned. Vanilla grows spontaneously in the woods,  
and the plantain, also, is abundant. Flowers are  
numerous, and are distinguished both by their  
beauty and fragrance: all the tropical fruits are  
produced in high perfection.

The only indigenous quadruped remaining is  
the agouti cat, called by the natives heetia. But  
the stock of horned cattle, horses, mules, asses,  
sheep, and goats, is prodigious. Many of the  
cattle, as we have stated, run wild, and are the  
prey of any one who will pursue them: some  
farmers of the interior own 10,000 or 12,000,  
worth from six to eight dollars a head: the horse  
is here very sure-footed, and useful, but of small  
size and inferior paces. The whole number  
of horses, mules, and asses, both the latter being  
valuable breeds, is estimated at 150,000; the  
horned cattle at 300,000.

Birds are numerous, particularly wild fowl;  
but the Jamaica nightingale, or mocking-bird,  
and the banana, are the only songsters. The  
flesh of the wild pigeon is particularly savory,  
though somewhat bitter; the parrot is also eaten,  
and ortolans are numerous. The best fish of the  
rivers are the mullet, snook, calapever, pargo,  
grooper, baracooter, craw and rock-fish, and  
particularly the land-crab. Turtle abounds on  
the coast, and immense quantities of tarapins,  
together with a small species of amphibious tor-  
toise, which is a very delicate and luxurious food.

The serpent tribes, though numerous, are not  
venomous, but the centipede is very annoying.  
A venomous crab-spider is also found here; the  
destructive white-ant, and abundant swarms of  
insects. This ant will eat through any kind of  
packing box, from side to side, and penetrate  
every fold of goods.

The aborigines of St. Domingo have been  
long since extirpated by the Spaniards. When it  
was discovered by Columbus, 9th of December  
1492, it formed five kingdoms, called Maqua,



Marien, Higuay, Maguana, and Xaraguay, each governed by its own cacique. The Spaniards had possession of the whole of it for 120 years. This island, their earliest settlement in the new world, was at first in high estimation for the quantity of gold it supplied. But its wealth diminished with the inhabitants of the country, whom they obliged to dig it out of the bowels of the earth; and the source of its wealth was entirely dried up, when they were extinct. Benzoni relates, that of 2,000,000 of inhabitants, contained in the island when discovered by Columbus in 1492, scarcely 153 were alive in 1545. Bishop Las Casas makes the extermination of the natives by his countrymen still greater and more rapid. He states the original number at 3,000,000, and says they were reduced to 60,000 within fifteen years. A vehement desire of opening again this source of wealth first inspired the thought of obtaining slaves from Africa; but, besides that these were found unfit for the labors they were destined to, the multitude of mines, then beginning to be wrought on the continent, made those of St. Domingo no longer of any importance. An idea now suggested itself, that the negroes, who were healthy, strong, and patient, might be usefully employed in husbandry. The produce of their industry was at first extremely small, because the laborers were few. Charles V. had granted an exclusive right of the slave trade to a Flemish nobleman, who made over his privilege to the Genoese. These avaricious republicans conducted this infamous commerce as all monopolies are conducted: they resolved to sell dear, and they sold but few. When time and competition had fixed the price of slaves, the number of them increased. It may easily be imagined that the Spaniards, who had been accustomed to treat the Indians as beasts, did not entertain a higher opinion of these unfortunate Africans, whom they substituted in their place. Degraded still farther in their eyes by the price they had paid for them, even religion could not restrain them from aggravating the weight of their servitude. They made frequent attempts, however, to recover the undeniable rights of mankind, and thus procured somewhat better treatment. The cultivation of the island was, at times, therefore, pursued with tolerable success. About the middle of the sixteenth century, Spain drew annually from this colony 10,000,000 weight of sugar, a large quantity of wood for dyeing; tobacco, cocoa, cassia, ginger, cotton, and peltry in abundance. One might imagine, that such favorable beginnings would have given both the desire and the means of carrying them further; but a train of events, more fatal each than the other, ruined these hopes. The first misfortune arose from the depopulation of the island. The Spanish conquests on the continent should naturally have contributed to promote the success of an island, which seemed to have been formed to be the centre of that vast dominion arising around it. But it fell out quite otherwise: on a view of the immense fortunes raising in Mexico, and other parts, the richest inhabitants of Hispaniola began to despise their settlements, and the government endeavoured in vain to put a stop to emigration:

the laws were always either artfully eluded, or openly violated. The weakness, which was a necessary consequence of such conduct, leaving the coasts without defence, encouraged the armies of Spain to ravage them. See our article **BUCCANERS**. Even the capital of this island was taken and pillaged by Sir Francis Drake. Cruisers of less pretensions contented themselves with intercepting vessels in their passage through those latitudes, which were the best known at that time of any in the new world. To add to these misfortunes, the Spaniards themselves commenced pirates. They attacked not only but those of their own nation; which were more rich, worse provided, and worse defended, than any others. The custom they had of fitting out ships clandestinely, to procure slaves, prevented them from being known; and the assistance they purchased from the ships of war, commenced to protect the trade, insured to them impunity. The foreign trade of the colony was its only resource in this distress; and that was still less, but as it continued to be carried on, notwithstanding the vigilance of the governors, or, perhaps, by their connivance, the policy it was exasperated and short-sighted court exerted itself in demolishing most of the sea-ports, and driving the miserable inhabitants into the inland country. This act of violence threw them into a state of dejection, which the incursions and settlements of the French on the island afterwards carried to the utmost pitch. The latter, after having made some unsuccessful attempts to settle on the coast, had part of it yielded to them, in 1697, by the Spaniards. The court of Spain, totally taken up with that vast empire which they had formed on the continent, used no pains to disengage itself from lethargy. They even refused to listen to the solicitations of their Flemish subjects, who earnestly pressed that they might have permission to clear the fertile parts of this island. Rather than run the risk of seeing them carry on a contraband trade on the coasts, they chose to bury in oblivion a settlement which had been of considerable consequence, and was likely soon to become so. This colony, which had no longer any intercourse with the mother country but by a single ship, of no great burden, had arrived hence every third year, consisted, in 1717, of 18,410 inhabitants, including Spanish Mestoes, Negroes, and Mulattoes. The complexion and character of this population differed according to the different proportions of American, European, and African blood they had received from that natural and transient union, which restores all races and conditions to the same level. Demi-savages, in fact, the greater part of them plunged into extreme sloth, lived upon fruits and roots, or dwelt in cottages without furniture, and most of them without clothes. The few among them, in whom indolence had not totally suppressed the sense of decency and taste for the conveniences of life, purchased clothes of their neighbours, the French, in return for their cattle, and the money sent to them for the maintenance of 200 soldiers, the priory, and the government. A century after its original settlement it was found necessary to remit annually from Mexico 300,000 dollars, for the sup-



of the local government of this colony. did the company formed at Barcelona, in with exclusive privileges for the re-establishment of St. Domingo, ever make any considerable progress. They only sent out two small annually, which were freighted back with hides, and other commodities.

The Spanish government was, however, roused by the exertions in favor of St. Domingo at the close of the last century. Settlers were encouraged to come hither from the Canary Islands, and a monopoly imposed on its trade was relaxed, and encouragements were held out to agriculture and commerce. Under the influence of these measures the colony began to improve, towns and villages were rebuilt and peopled, plantations were laid out, and the trade with the French part of the island became considerable. At the period of the French revolution, in 1789, the Spaniards had twenty-four sugar-plantations in St. Domingo. They paid with raw sugar, hides, timber, and piastres for the small number of cargoes they received from Europe. They had 11,000 heads of cattle, they furnished the French part of St. Domingo with horses, mules, and some tobacco. Next to the ancient city of St. Domingo, their principal towns were San Christó, La Vega, St. Jago, Zeibo, St. Nicolás, Azua, and Isabella.

The eastern part of the island was ceded formally to France by the treaty of Basle, July 22nd, 1795: but it was not taken possession of by that power until 1801, when the unfortunate Toussaint arrived, and appeared before the capital at the head of a considerable French force. At this time it is said 25,000 of the inhabitants emigrated to Cuba, South America, or other of the British settlements, so averse were they to the French yoke. At the close of 1808 attempts to drive the French were openly made: in November the French commander was shut up in the city; but it was not until July of the following year that he surrendered, when a British agent, under General Carmichael, came to the aid of the Spaniards. Since this period they declared their independence of the mother country, and offered their allegiance to the new republic of Colombia. At the period of its cession to France, the Spanish part of St. Domingo had 125,000 inhabitants, 110,000 of whom were free people, and 15,000 negro slaves. Land was valued at French livres, or five shillings the arpent; labor at two French livres, sixty-one centimes, or a little better than two shillings per arpent. Walton estimates the inhabitants of this colony in 1810, at 104,000. We have seen that there had been a considerable emigration, which included from this amount.

We have noticed the visits, and, under that name, the settlement, of the BUCCANIER, in St. Domingo. That part of this singular community, which abandoned the sea for its fertile shores, consisted principally of Frenchmen, and were acknowledged subjects by the government of France at the close of the seventeenth century. In 1669 the planters here amounted to upwards of 1500; Bertrand Dogeron, a man of considerable talents and probity, having been sent to form them into a regular colony. In

1670, however, the oppressive measures of the French West India Company caused the inhabitants of this part of St. Domingo to revolt: and tranquillity was only restored at the price of a free trade to France, subject to a duty of five per cent. paid to the company on the arrival and departure of all vessels.

Under the excellent management of Dogeron the colony continued to prosper; but after his death, in 1673, it languished under the monopoly of exclusive trading companies. Three years before his death the town of Cape François had been founded by Gobin, a French Protestant, whom the persecutions of Louis XIV. had driven from his native land. In 1688, several slaves having been taken from the English, the inhabitants of St. Domingo began to turn their attention to the culture of the sugar-cane. With this view they increased their stock of negroes, and in 1694, taking advantage of the misfortunes which had befallen the English colony of Jamaica, they effected a landing in that island, and carried off a considerable number of slaves. The English, in their turn, attacked the settlement of Cape François in the following year, which they plundered and reduced to ashes. It was, however, soon rebuilt. At the peace of Ryswick, the French obtained the first regular cession of the western part of St. Domingo, and in 1702, Port-au-Prince was made the seat of the government, but the town of the cape continued in every other respect the capital of the colony. The French in St. Domingo flourished as the Spaniards decayed. Their colony, which in the time of Herrera counted 14,000 Castilians, besides a proportional number of other inhabitants, had, in 1717, only 18,410 individuals of every description; whilst, according to the abbé Raynal, the produce of the French colony, in 1720, amounted to 1,200,000 lbs. of indigo, 1,400,000 lbs. of white sugar, and 21,000,000 lbs. of raw sugar. From 1722, when the French colony of St. Domingo was freed from the yoke of exclusive trading companies, it rose gradually to the highest pitch of prosperity. In the year 1754, the value of the various commodities of the colony was £1,261,469 sterling, and the imports from the mother country £1,777,509 sterling. There were 14,000 white inhabitants, 4000 free mulattoes, and upwards of 172,000 negroes; 599 sugar plantations, 3379 of indigo, 98,946 cocoa trees, 6,300,367 cotton plants, and nearly 22,000,000 cassia trees; 63,000 horses and mules, 93,000 heads of horned cattle, 6,000,000 banana trees; upwards of 1,000,000 plots of potatoes, 226,000 plots of yams; and nearly 3,000,000 trenches of manioc.

In 1789 the prosperity of the French part of St. Domingo was at its greatest height. It was divided into the northern, western, and southern provinces. The first extended about forty leagues along the northern coast, from the river Massacre to Cape St. Nicholas, and contained, inclusive of the island of Tortuga, twenty-six parishes. The principal towns were Cape François, Fort Dauphin, Port de Paix, and Cape St. Nicholas. The western province commenced at this cape, and terminated at Cape Tiburon. It contained fourteen parishes; its chief towns were Port-au-



Prince, St. Marc, Leogane, Petit Goave, and Jérémie. The southern province occupied the remaining coast from Cape Tiburon to l'Anse-à-Pitre, and contained ten parishes and two towns, Cayes and Jacmel. The cultivated land amounted to 2,290,000 English acres, or 771,275 carreaux of French measurement, 350 feet on every side to the carreau. But Barbé Marbois, in his *Compte rendu des finances de St. Domingue*, en 1789, reckons the cultivated land at 570,210 carreaux only. There were 792 sugar plantations, 2810 coffee plantations, 705 cotton plantations, 3097 indigo plantations, sixty-nine cacao plantations, and 173 distilleries of rum. The produce of these plantations, in 1788, consisted of 163,405,500 lbs. of sugar, 68,151,000 lbs. of coffee, 6,289,000 lbs. of cotton, 930,000 lbs. of indigo, 150,000 lbs. of cacao, 34,453,000 lbs. of syrup, worth in all, with some less important articles, 135,763,000 French livres. It was sent to France in 686 vessels of 199,122 tons. The goods imported into the colony from different ports of France, in 465 vessels of 138,624 tons, amounted to the value of 54,578,000 French livres. Before the revolution, the exportation from the whole island employed 1070 vessels, navigated by 7936 seamen.

The population consisted in 1788, according to Marbois, of 27,717 white inhabitants, of whom there were 14,571 males, 4482 females, and 8664 children; of 405,564 negro slaves, of whom there were 174,971 males, 138,800 females, and 91,793 children; and of 21,808 free people of color.

Soon after 1789 a most dreadful reverse took place. At this period, says Mr. Bryan Edwards, in his *Historical Survey of the French Colony in St. Domingo*, London, 4to. 1797, 'the mulattoes were in a situation more degrading and wretched, than that of the enslaved negroes in any part of the West Indies. No law allowed the privileges of a white person to any descendant of an African, however remote.'—'The laws, he adds, were dreadfully unequal.' In such a situation it is not to be wondered at, that they should have listened with pleasure to the news of the French revolution, and to the acts of the assembly, which abolished slavery, and established equality of rights. A colonial assembly met at St. Mark, on the 16th of April, 1790, composed of 213 members, which, says Mr. Edwards, 'fairly and fully represented the inhabitants.' 'They passed acts of indulgence, and rectified gross abuses. But persons interested in the continuance of these abuses were displeased. They counteracted the proceedings of the assembly, and misrepresented their intentions. M. Peynier, the governor, attempted to restore the old despotic system: whereupon eighty-five members of the assembly embarked for France; as did also M. Peynier, who resigned in November 1790. 'The pride of power,' adds this writer, 'the rage of reformation, the contentions of party, and the conflict of opposing interests, now produced a tempest, that swept every thing before it.' In October, 1790, James Oge, a free mulatto, who had been at Paris, and who is characterised by Mr. Edwards, as 'an enthusiast for liberty, but mild and humane,' returned from France, and put himself at the

head of the insurgent negroes and people of color; but being defeated, in March 1791, was betrayed by the Spaniards, to whom he had fled for refuge, and, with Mark Chavasse his lieutenant, broke alive on the wheel. The eight-five members of the colonial assembly were arrested in France, and their act of the 12th of October 1790, annulled. In March, 1791, 1000 troops arrived from France; and Mandat the new governor was murdered by his own soldiers, with circumstances of horrible barbarity. By a decree of the National Assembly, of the 10th of May 1791, people of color were declared eligible to seats in the colonial assembly. And on the 11th of September, a concordat, or truce, was signed between the whites and mulattoes. 'The operation of this truce,' says Edwards, 'was destroyed by the absurd decree of the national assembly of the 24th of September, repealing the decree of the 15th of May, whereby in the very moment when the justice and necessity of this decree were acknowledged, and its faithful observance promised by the colonial assembly, its repeal was pronounced by the legislative assembly in the mother country. To such repugnancy and absurdity must every government be driven, that attempts to regulate and direct the local concerns of a country 3000 miles distant. Open war in all its horrors was now renewed. All the workings of humanity were absorbed in the raging and insatiable thirst of revenge, which inflamed each class alike. It was no longer a contest for mere victory, but a diabolical emulation which party could inflict the most abominable cruelties on the other.' On the 24th of August, 1791, Cape François was burnt, and in the space of two months it was computed, that upwards of 2000 white persons perished in these horrible massacres; and that of the mulattoes and negroes not fewer than 10,000 died by the mine and the sword, besides several hundreds that suffered by the executioner. Meantime citizens Santhonax, Polverel, and Ailhaud, arrived from France as commissioners, accompanied by 6000 of the national guards; and citizen Ailhaud was appointed governor. Their attempt, however, to stop these enormities proved fruitless, though they proclaimed the total abolition of slavery, and a general indemnity.

In October, 1793, a body of British forces under colonel Whitlock, were landed, and took possession of Tiburon, Treves, Jérémie, Leogane, Cape Nicolas Mole, and upwards of ninety miles of the eastern coast with little opposition. But though the loss of the British in these engagements, or rather skirmishes, did not exceed 100 men, yet the victims of disease, within six months after their arrival, were upwards of 6000, among whom were 150 officers. Leogane was soon after retaken by the negroes, who now amounted to above 100,000, under their general Toussaint l'Ouverture; and Tiburon was taken by the French under general Rigaud. To remedy these disasters, and to supply the Môle with provisions, an expedition was undertaken against the fort of Bombarde, but the reduction of it (which was not accomplished till the 18th of June, 1796) cost an immense number of men, and after it was taken, instead of being able to supply



le, it was found necessary to supply it  
ence, at a vast expense, and with the loss  
y brave troops. These and similar losses,  
e deaths of lieutenant colonels Brisbane  
arkham, who were killed in 1795, together  
ie faithlessness of the French emigrants,  
hose suggestions this expedition had been  
ken, at last determined the British com-  
to surrender Jeremie, Port au Prince,  
ape Nicolas Mole, the only places re-  
g in the hands of the British, to general  
ville, by capitulation in August 1798; and

1st of October the island was totally  
ed by the British. The name of Port au  
was at this time changed to Port Repub-  
and the Spanish part of the island, having  
ded to the French by treaty was taken  
ion of, as we have already intimated,  
verture. We must refer our readers to  
of this chieftain in another part of our  
or the detailed proofs of his very superior  
and character. He applied himself at  
od to heal the wounds of this his native  
with the greatest success; and such  
s popularity, that though the commis-  
who had been sent out by the French  
y, remained in the island, and were  
with every external mark of respect,  
ere, in fact, mere cyphers, destitute of  
e, and dependent on Toussaint for sup-

ulture and commerce were the first ob-  
f his care. Many of the planters were  
l to their former estates, but no property  
an beings was allowed. The blacks,  
r, were not permitted to waste their lives  
ess. The planters were obliged to em-  
eir laborers as hired servants, and a third  
the crops was assigned for their remun-

While ample encouragement was af-  
to industry, penalties were at the same  
nounced for the punishment of idleness.  
neficial effects of such an administration  
on visible. The wasted colony began to  
the plantations were again brought into  
state; the sugar-works and distilleries  
ebuilt; the ports were opened to foreign  
; and, notwithstanding the ravages of a  
rs' war, the exports of St. Domingo were  
rom the lowest ebb to one-third of their  
amount and value in the most prosperous

Population also increased with aston-  
rapidity; and while the planters of the  
uring West-India Islands were conting-  
ing the necessity of annual importations  
rica, to supply the constant diminution  
the negroes, in St. Domingo their num-  
re considerably augmented, notwithstand-  
waste of blood during the troubles and  
ary conflicts of the ten preceding years.  
urches were re-opened, public worship  
tored; the elegant arts and amusements  
sed life began to resume their sway; and  
bined result of all these causes was a  
and striking improvement in every class  
ty. In the intercourse of the social hour,  
e on a perfect equality; thus presenting a  
contrast to the very strict subordination  
reigned in the army.

The military establishment, when the British  
forces evacuated the island in 1798, did not  
exceed 40,000; but in two years it was more  
than double that number. The soldiers regarded  
Toussaint as an extraordinary being: his generals  
trembled before him (Dessalines durst not look  
him in the face); and every one trembled before  
his generals. No European army, indeed, was  
ever subject to a more rigorous discipline, than  
that which was observed by the troops of Tous-  
saint. Every officer commanded, pistol in hand;  
and had the power of life and death over the sub-  
alterns. 60,000 men were frequently reviewed  
and exercised together on the plain of the Cape.  
On these occasions 2000 officers were seen in  
the field, carrying arms, from the general to the  
ensign, yet with the utmost attention to rank;  
without the smallest symptom of the insubordi-  
nation indulged in the leisure of the hotel. Each  
general officer had a demi-brigade, which went  
through the manual exercise with a degree of  
expertness seldom witnessed; and performed  
equally well several manœuvres applicable to  
their method of fighting. At a whistle a whole  
brigade would run 300 or 400 yards, then, sepa-  
rating, throw themselves flat on the ground,  
changing to their backs or sides, keeping up a  
strong fire the whole of the time, till they were  
recalled: then they would form again, in an  
instant, into their wonted regularity. This single  
manœuvre used to be executed with such facility  
and precision, as totally to prevent cavalry from  
charging them in bushy and hilly countries.  
Such complete subordination, such promptitude  
and dexterity, prevailed the whole time, as would  
have astonished any European soldier who had  
the least knowledge of their previous situation.  
(History of St. Domingo, 1818.)

'In these reviews,' says M. de la Croix,  
'Toussaint appeared like an inspired person, and  
became the fetiche or idol of the blacks who  
listened to him. In order to make himself bet-  
ter understood, he frequently addressed them in  
parables, and often made use of the following:—  
In a glass vessel full of grains of black maize,  
he would mix a few grains of white maize, and  
say to those who surrounded him:—'You are  
the black maize; the whites, who are desirous  
of enslaving you, are the white maize.' He  
would then shake the vessel, and presenting it to  
their fascinated eyes, exclaim, 'See the white  
here and there!' in other words, see how few the  
white are in comparison of yourselves.' The  
gleam of prosperity, however, which resulted  
from his wise administration, was of short con-  
tinuance.

The independence of St. Domingo was pro-  
claimed on the 1st of July, 1801; and, while the  
inhabitants were indulging the hope of future  
happiness, a storm was gathering, which burst  
upon them with accumulated fury. Scarcely  
was the peace of Amiens concluded, when a for-  
midable armament of twenty-six ships of war  
was equipped by order of the first consul, with  
the determination of reducing the revolted co-  
lony of St. Domingo. On board this fleet were  
embarked 25,000 chosen troops, amply furnished  
with all the apparatus of military slaughter. The  
better to ensure success to the expedition (the



chief command of which was confided to general Le Clerc, the brother-in-law of Buonaparte), recourse was first had to perfidious means. Attempts were made to sow disunion among the free people of St. Domingo. Proclamations and letters, expressed in all the delusive jargon of the republic, were widely circulated. The chiefs of both colors, then in France, and the two sons of Toussaint himself, who had sent them thither for instruction, were pressed into the service of this expedition.

The French forces arrived in January, 1802; yet so little did Toussaint expect to have any enemy to combat, that he had given no orders for resistance in case of attack. When the French squadron was descried, he was making a tour round the eastern part of the island: and, if some of the generals resisted, it was only in consequence of the menaces and hostile manner in which they were summoned to surrender.

After his troops had disembarked, and previously to commencing operations in the interior of the country, and perhaps in the hope that the sight of so formidable a force would inspire the Haytians with terror, Le Clerc thought proper to try what effect these circumstances, the sight of his two sons, and a specious letter from Buonaparte, would produce upon Toussaint. Coisson, their tutor, who had accompanied them from France, and was one of the chief confidential agents in this expedition, was accordingly deputed on this errand, with instructions to press Toussaint's instant return to the Cape, and to bring back the children in case he should not succeed. When he reached Eunery, Toussaint's country residence, that chief was absent in a distant part of the island, whence he did not return till the second day. The wily Frenchman availed himself of this delay to work upon the feelings of their mother; whose tears, and the solicitations of the children, for a while shook the resolutions of Toussaint. Being at length confirmed in his suspicions of the snare that had been laid for him, by the conduct and language of Coisson, Toussaint suddenly composed his agitated countenance; and, gently disengaging himself from the embraces of his wife and children, he took their preceptor into another apartment, and gave him this dignified decision:—'Take back my children; since it must be so, I will be faithful to my brethren and my God.' Unwilling to prolong the painful scene, Toussaint mounted his horse, and rode to the camp. A correspondence was subsequently opened with him by Le Clerc, but it failed to produce Toussaint's submission.

Le Clerc now proceeded to hostilities, the minute circumstances of which we have not room to detail. It must therefore suffice to state, that the numbers and discipline of the French troops, added to the military skill of their commanding officers, overpowered all open resistance in the field, so that the blacks, after several obstinate conflicts, and after the burning of several of their principal towns, were finally compelled to retire into the inaccessible fastnesses of the interior, whence they carried on, under their brave chieftain, Toussaint, a desultory, but destructive, warfare against detached parties of their enemies.

This mode of fighting was dictated by the nature of their country. They would frequently place whole lines in ambush, sometimes reaching from one part to another, and sometimes extending to a considerable distance from each wing of a camp. By their admirable discipline, and astonishing celerity, their enemies were often disconcerted, and thrown into disorder; and sometimes, when the French thought themselves sure of a victory, detachments in ambush suddenly made their appearance, and mortified them with a defeat. At length, however, the negroes and cultivators were either subdued by the terror of the French army, or cajoled by the deceitful promises of the French general, who had published in his own name, and in that of the first consul, repeated solemn declarations, that the freedom of all the inhabitants of St. Domingo, of all colors, should be preserved inviolate. But elated by his successes, he now threw aside the mask, and issued an order, expressly restoring to the proprietors or their attorneys, all their former authority over the negroes upon their estates. This order opened the eyes of the negro population. Toussaint, descending from his fastnesses with several hundred men, effected a junction with Christophe, who was at the head of five hundred, and marched rapidly to the north of the island. Wherever he came, he summoned the cultivators to arms, multitudes of whom flocked to his standard. His force speedily became formidable: they drove in the enemy's posts in all directions, and surrounded the town of Cap-François, within whose walls they had taken refuge. To save that place from being stormed by the infuriated black troops, Le Clerc was obliged to abandon all his conquests in other parts of the island, and hasten by forced marches to its relief. Sensible of his precipitancy in throwing off the mask, he again had recourse to his former acts; and having issued a proclamation couched in the most specious terms, the black chieftains, who were weary of the war, and whose troops began to quit the ranks, agreed to lay down their arms, on condition of a general amnesty, and the preservation of their own rank, and that of their officers.

Scarcely had the French thus succeeded in extending their dominion over the whole island, when they began to put in execution their insatiable system of slavery and destruction; and, as a preliminary step towards this object, Le Clerc caused Toussaint to be privately seized, in the dead of the night, together with his family, and embark for France, on board a fast-sailing frigate, about the middle of May, 1802. He was kept a close prisoner on the voyage, and heard no more by his countrymen. See L'Ouvrerie.

To justify this base act of treachery, Le Clerc accused Toussaint of having intended to excite an insurrection among the working negroes, and to raise them in a mass. The only proof alleged by the French general was two intercepted letters, said to have been written by him to his aide-camp Fontaine. M. de la Croix (who was an officer in the army of Le Clerc) has printed some of these letters as genuine: the manifest addressed to the sovereigns of Europe by Christophe on his accession to the throne of Hayti, affirms



to be a forgery; and such is the opinion of M. de Gastine, who observes further, that the pretended letters not only do not prove that Toussaint was preparing to take up arms again, but that every thing concurs to prove that they were forged, otherwise the French would have tried him before a special commission, instead of transporting him 2000 miles from his country, in defiance of the law of nations and of humanity.

The base treachery of Le Clerc aroused the black chieftains, and opened the eyes of their countrymen to the designs of the French. Dessalines, Christophe, and Clerveaux, again raised their standards, and were soon found at the head of considerable bodies of troops, ready to renew the struggle for liberty, and determined to succeed or perish in the attempt. During the latter half of the year, 1802, actions were fought with various success. And though the French were continually receiving fresh supplies of men, yet these did not suffice to supply the place of those who perished by the sword and by sickness. Their hospitals were crowded with sick, and disease daily made new ravages. At length Rochambeau, who had succeeded to the chief command on the death of Le Clerc, was compelled by Dessalines to evacuate Cape François, where the remains of the French army were surrounded; and, as the war had then recommenced between Great Britain and France, the French gladly surrendered themselves prisoners of war to a British squadron, and were conveyed to this country. We shall not harrow up the feelings of our readers by a recital of the refined cruelty and savage barbarity practised by the French during this residence of twenty-one months on the island of St. Domingo. According to the returns which have been subsequently made to the Haytian Government, more than 16,000 negroes and people of color perished under the various tortures inflicted by them. The barbarities committed by these modern conquerors upon the children of Hayti far exceeded indeed the crimes of the Pizarros, Cortez, and the Boyadillas, those early scourges of the New World.

The French being expelled, at a general meeting of the National Assembly, on the 1st of January, 1804, the independence of the island was again proclaimed; the aboriginal name of Hayti was resumed, and the Haytians pronounced the oath to die free and independent, and never again to submit to any foreign domination whatever. Dessalines was elected governor-general for life, which title, a few months afterwards, he exchanged for that of emperor, being crowned by the style of Jacques I. But his reign was of short duration; the cruelties he perpetrated caused a conspiracy to be formed against him; and, two years after his coronation, he was surrounded by the conspirators at his head-quarters, and, struggling to escape, received a wound, which terminated his life. His death produced a division of St. Domingo, and another civil war.

In the north, Christophe assumed the reins of government, with the modest designation of chief of the government of Hayti; while Pétion, a mulatto, asserted his claim to sovereign

power. For several years these rival chieftains carried on a sanguinary contest, with various success on both sides, until the year 1810, when hostilities were suspended; and, though no formal treaty was concluded, the country long enjoyed the blessings of peace. Christophe was crowned king of Hayti in March 1811, by the title of Henry I.; and Pétion, as president of the republic of Hayti, governed the southern part until 1818, when he died, and was succeeded by general Boyer, whom he was allowed to nominate his successor.

Both governments encouraged agriculture as the basis of their national prosperity, and displayed a laudable solicitude for the instruction of the rising generation. Christophe examined the rival claims of the two systems of mutual instruction practised in England, and gave the preference to that of the British and Foreign School Society. Schools, under the care of English teachers, were established in his dominions at Cape Henry, Sans Souci, Port de Paix, Gonaives, and St. Marc. In the primary schools, the instructions are principally given in English.

In the republican part of the island, a school was established at Port-au-Prince, on the British and Foreign Society's plan, by an English teacher, to whose conduct and ability the president, general Boyer, has borne the most honorable testimony. This school is under the superintendence of a native teacher. A lyceum has likewise been instituted for teaching the higher branches of literature and science.

Christophe, in imitation of other monarchs, created various orders of nobility, together with numerous officers of state, each of whom had a fixed order of precedence, according to the supposed dignity of their office. His dynasty, however, was like his predecessor's, but short-lived. In 1820 a successful conspiracy was formed against him, and finding himself surrounded by an overwhelming force, he committed suicide. See CHRISTOPHE. The president of the republic, Boyer, now advanced upon the kingdom, and succeeded, with but little opposition, in adding it to the republic of Hayti.

In 1822, Boyer took advantage of another event to unite the Spanish part of the island to the republic. The people, who were principally colored, revolted from the Spanish authorities, and Boyer, immediately hastening to the city of St. Domingo, with 12,000 men, was received without opposition. The Spanish soldiers were dismissed from the island, the republican flag was hoisted, and the slaves were emancipated. From that period the republic of Hayti has been co-extensive with the island of St. Domingo.

The revenues of the two governments are supposed to be about 48,000,000 francs; and the expenses of their administration, in 1817, scarcely exceeded 18,000,000 francs, thus leaving a surplus of 15,000,000 at the disposal of each.

The Catholic religion is declared to be that of both divisions of the island; the hierarchy of the northern part consists of an archbishop, three bishops, and a rector in each parish. At Sans Souci there is a royal and parochial church.



It was erected by Henry, and was mentioned in the royal almanack as 'a monument of his royal munificence and piety.' The archbishop, whom the pope has hitherto refused to consecrate, has a chapter, a seminary, and a college attached to the metropolitan see, all well endowed. He has also three archi-episcopal palaces assigned to him; and the bishops have each a chapter and a seminary, endowed with considerable revenues.

The armies of the two governments, in 1820, were composed of about 24,000 regular troops each; but not more than 5000 or 6000 were on duty at one time. They were relieved alternately every three months; and received pay while on actual service. During the remaining nine months of the year, they were quartered upon the great provision-grounds of the two governments. Since the revolution, commerce is said to have greatly declined. From 1804 to 1808, according to Waiton, only about seventy-five vessels arrived annually, with cargoes amounting to about £150,000 sterling.

The Haytians express themselves with great energy and propriety, on moral and political subjects. Some of the state-papers of the late king might vie with those of far more advanced communities. 'Five-and-twenty years ago,' says the black baron de Vastey, in his *Political Reflections*, printed at the press of Sans Souci, 'we were plunged in the most complete ignorance; we had no notion of human society, no idea of happiness, no powerful feeling; our faculties, both physical and moral, were so overwhelmed under the load of slavery, that I myself, who am writing this, I thought that the world finished at the spot which bounded my sight; my ideas were so limited, that things the most simple were to me incomprehensible, and all my countrymen were as ignorant, and even more so than myself, if that were possible. I have known many of us,' he continues, 'who have learned to read and write of themselves without the help of a master; I have known them walking with their books in their hands, enquiring of the passengers, and praying them to explain to them the signification of such a character or such a word, and in this manner many, already advanced in years, became able to read and write without the benefit of education. Such men,' he adds, 'have become notaries, attorneys, advocates, judges, administrators, and have astonished the world by the sagacity of their judgment; others have become painters and sculptors from their own exertions, and have astonished strangers by their works; others again have succeeded as architects, mechanics, weavers; in short, others have worked mines of sulphur, fabricated saltpetre, and made excellent gunpowder, in mills and establishments similar to those of Europe, with no other guides than books of chemistry and mineralogy. And yet,' he continues, 'the Haytians pretend not to be a manufacturing and commercial people'—'like the Romans, we go from arms to the plough, and from the plough to arms.' But he contemplates the time when they shall call to their assistance the mechanical arts, the employment of machines, of animals, and of the natural agents, air, fire, and water, and put in practice those

means, 'which,' says he, 'will render our country the most beautiful, populous, and flourishing and its inhabitants, heretofore so unfortunate, the happiest people in the world.'

In July 1816, after Louis XVIII. was restored to the throne, commissioners were sent from France to St. Domingo, entrusted with the administration of all the affairs of the island, both civil and military, but all their overtures were firmly rejected in both parts of the island. His majesty Charles X. has been more successful in asserting the claims of France to this island. He has procured that kind of recognition of the interest of the former planters, which has resulted in a treaty of indemnity in regard to them, whereby the French government stipulates to acknowledge the independence of Hayti; on the other hand to pay a sum of money to France, and give certain advantages to French commerce above that of other nations.

We conclude with the excellent reflection of a modern periodical publication. 'The element of a black empire in the midst of the British West Indies,' observes this 'excited the most fearful apprehensions in the minds of the planters. Subsequent events have shown that, however well founded those apprehensions might seem, they have little to do with the long as their slaves are treated with kindness and humanity. The abolition of the nefarious system of slavery, and other wise measures of the legislature, have already contributed to ameliorate the condition of the slaves; and we may reasonably expect that, in proportion as these measures have their full effect, the condition of the negro in our West-India colonies will be progressively improved. In their present state entire freedom would be no boon to them. Nothing indeed prepares their minds for its reception and enjoyment but the introduction of Christianity, and the diffusion of moral and religious education. We have no data by which we can compute the actual number of Christian slaves in the West Indies; but we know generally that, in almost all the larger islands, there are active and zealous missionaries, who devote themselves to the pious and benevolent task of imparting religious instruction to those neglected outcasts. In Antigua, especially, this greatest of blessings has been imparted to many thousands of slaves, who bear the yoke of bondage with patience, cheered by the hope which the Gospel reveals, as the end and compensation of all their sufferings. In many other islands, the prejudice of planters against the tuition of their slaves is silently wearing away; while the number of those, who from various causes, are favorable to their instruction, is gradually increasing; and a conviction is gaining ground, most advantageous to the interests of all parties, of the inefficacy of human restraints and punishments to produce that uniform obedience, which is seen in well instructed and religious slaves. These are truly encouraging signs of the times; and when we add to them the increasing liberality of British Christians in this country, we may reasonably indulge the hope that the period is not far distant, when the entire black population in the West Indies shall hail with devout gratitude the day, that trans-



m from their native deserts, to make men in the noble sense suggested by the ment.

ICA, the last of the Leeward or lands, taking them from north-west to so named by Christopher Columbus, having discovered it on Sunday, Nov.

It is situated about half way betwixt e on the north-west, and Martinico on ast, fifteen leagues from each, between 15° 44' 30" N. lat., and between 61° 1° 30' W. long. It is twenty-nine

from Crab-Point on the south, to the cape of Agusha Bay on the north;

sixteen broad from Raymond Bay oulihaut on the west. It contains

res of land, and is divided into ten iz. St. John, St. Andrew, St. Peter,

St. Paul, St. David, St. George, St. Luke, and St. Martin. It has many

rugged mountains, interspersed with ys, and is watered by upwards of thirty

ides a number of rivulets. Several of ins contain unextinguished volcanoes,

o discharge vast quantities of sulphur. so several hot springs, esteemed effi-

removing tropical disorders. Some of are said to be hot enough to coagulate

ast swarms of bees produce a great f wax and honey: they hive in the

are thought to have been transported pe; the native bee of the West Indies

aller species, unprovided with a sting, ifferent in its manners from the Euro-

e forests afford an inexhaustible quan- wood. The fruits and other produc-

similar to those in the neighbouring it the soil, being generally thin, is more

the rearing of cotton than sugar. The ones that are known, are found on the

this island. They are shaped like a oth and sleek, but much smaller, and

olor. The anchorage is good all round f Dominica; but it has no port or bay

into; but the vessels have the advan- tiler behind many of its capes. Char-

(Roseau of the French), the chief a point of land between two bays on

west side of the island. It has 500 ortsmouth, or Prince Rupert's Bay,

th-west side of the island, is the only orts from the island to England, and

from the latter were,

Imports.	Exports.
£315,584	£161,291
282,002	39,686.

incipal imports were,

Coffee.	Sugar.	Rum.	Cotton.
cwt.	cwt.	galls.	lbs.
3,254	41,990	56,356	75,425.
27,185	61,522	39,397	59,742.

nd was reduced in 1778 by the French, marquis de Bouille, governor of Marti-

made a descent with 2000 men, and 100 regulars, and a few companies of

oppose him. Resistance therefore

being vain, the only thing the garrison could do, was to procure as favorable terms as possible.

These were granted with such readiness as did great honor to the character of this officer; the

inhabitants experiencing no kind of change except that of transferring their obedience from

Britain to France. A large quantity of military stores, with 164 pieces of cannon, and twenty-

four brass mortars, were found in the place; so that the French themselves expressed their sur-

prise at finding so few hands to make use o. them. It was restored to Britain at the conclu-

sion of the peace in 1783; and, in 1795, the French attempted to take it again, but were un-

successful; all the Frenchmen who landed being either killed or taken prisoners. The position of

Dominica renders it of great consequence to England in war with France; for a squadron,

stationed at Prince Rupert's Bay, may effectually cut off the communication between Martinique

and Guadaloupe.

DOMINICA, or HEEVAROA, is the largest of the Marquesas islands, called by the natives Hiwaia

and Ohiwana, extending east and west eighteen miles. It is about forty-eight miles in circum-

ference; full of rugged hills, and of a barren surface, but is, however, inhabited. Long. 139° 3' W., lat. 9° 44' N.

DOMINICAL, *adj.* Lat. *dominicalis*. Relating to the Lord's day, or Sunday.

The cycle of the moon serves to shew the epacts, and that of the sun the *dominical* letter, throughout all their variations.

*Holder on Time.*

DOMINICAL LETTER, or SUNDAY LETTER, See CHRONOLOGY. The dominical letters were

introduced into the kalendar by the primitive Christians, instead of the nundinal letters in the

Roman kalendar.

DOMINICANS, an order of religious, so named from their founder Dominic de Guzman,

who preached with great zeal against the Albigenses in Languedoc, where he laid the first

foundation of this order. See GUZMAN. It was approved of in 1215, by Innocent III., and con-

firmed in 1216, by a bull of Honorius III, under the title of St. Augustin; to which Domi-

nic added several austere precepts and obser-

vances, obliging the brethren to take a vow of absolute poverty; to abandon entirely all their

revenues and possessions; and to take the title of Preaching Friars, because the public instruc-

tion was the main end of their institution. The first convent was founded at Thoulouse by the

bishop thereof and Simon de Montfort. Two years afterwards they had another at Paris, near

the bishop's house; and some time after a third in the rue St. Jacques, whence the denomination

of Jacobins. Just before his death, Dominic sent Gilbert de Fresney, with twelve of the

brethren, into England, where they founded their first monastery at Oxford, in 1221, and

soon after another at London. In 1276 the mayor and aldermen of the city of London gave

them two whole streets by the river Thames, where they erected a very commodious convent,

whence that place is still called Black Friars, from the name by which the Dominicans were

called in England. Dominic, at first, only took



the habit of the regular canons; that is, a black cassock and rochet: but this he quitted in 1219, for that which they now wear, which it is pretended was shown by the blessed Virgin herself to the beatified Renaud of Orleans. This order has been spread throughout the whole known world. Before the revolutionary wars, it had forty-five provinces under the general, who resided at Rome; and twelve particular congregations, governed by vicars general. There have been three popes of this order, above sixty cardinals, several patriarchs, 150 archbishops, and about 800 bishops; besides masters of the sacred palace, whose office has been constantly discharged by a religious of this order, ever since St. Dominic, who held it under Honorius III. in 1218. Of all the monastic orders, none enjoyed a higher degree of power and authority than the Dominicans. Their credit was great, and their influence universal. But the measures they used to maintain and extend their authority were so perfidious and cruel, that their influence began to decline towards the beginning of the sixteenth century. The tragic story of Jetzer, conducted at Bern in 1509, for determining an uninteresting dispute between them and the Franciscans, relating to the immaculate conception, reflects indelible infamy on this order. See an account of it in Mosheim's *Ecl. Hist.* vol. iii. p. 294, 8vo. They were indeed perpetually employed in stigmatising with the opprobrious name of heresy numbers of learned and pious men; in encroaching upon the rights and properties of others, to augment their possessions; and in laying the most iniquitous snares and stratagems for the destruction of their adversaries. They were the principal counsellors, by whose instigation and advice Leo X. was determined to the public condemnation of Luther. The papal see never had more active and useful abettors than this order, and that of the Jesuits. The dogmata of the Dominicans are opposite to those of the Franciscans. There are nuns of this order, called in some places Preaching Sisters. These are even more ancient than the friars; St. Dominic having founded a society of religious maids at Proilles in 1206. There is also a third order of Dominicans, both for men and women.

DOMINIS (Mark Anthony de), archbishop of Spalatro in Dalmatia at the close of the fifteenth and beginning of the sixteenth centuries. Becoming acquainted with bishop Bedell, while chaplain to Sir Henry Wotton, ambassador from James I. at Venice, he became resolved to abandon the Roman Catholic religion, concerning the authority of which he had long had his doubts. He had written *De Republicâ Ecclesiasticâ*, but had hitherto dreaded to publish his work; he now therefore committed them to Bedell, and they were afterwards published at London, with his corrections. He came to England with Bedell; where he was received with great respect, and preached and wrote against the Romish religion. He had a principal share in publishing father Paul's History of the Council of Trent, which was inscribed to king James in 1619. But on the promotion of pope Gregory XIV., who had been his school-fellow and old acquaintance, he was deluded by Gondomar, the Spanish ambas-

sador, into the hopes of procuring a cardinal's hat, by which he fancied he should procure an instrument of great reformation in the church. Accordingly he returned to Rome in 1622, recanted his errors, and was at first well received; but he afterwards wrote letters to England, repenting his recantation; which being intercepted, he was imprisoned by pope Urban VIII., and died in 1625. He was the author of the philosophical explanation of the rainbow.

DOMINIUM DIRECTUM, in Scotch law, a right which a superior retains in his lands, withstanding the feudal grant to the vassal. *Law.*

DOMINIUM EMINENS, in Scotch law, power which the state or sovereign has over private property, by which the proprietor is compelled to sell it for an adequate price if public utility requires.

DOMINIUM UTILE, in Scotch law, the right which the vassal acquires in the lands by feudal grant from his superior.

DOMINUS, a title anciently prefixed to the name, usually to denote the person of a knight or a clergyman. The title was soon also given to a gentleman not dubbed; especially if he were lord of a manor. In Holland the title dominus distinguished a minister of a reformed church.

DOMUS, in antiquity, is sometimes used for all sorts of houses, either magnificent or mean; but it is often taken by writers to denote a mansion of some lord, or palace of a prince, as in Virgil, speaking of the palace of Dido.

At domus interior regali splendida lux

These houses were built with much splendour, and were of a vast extent; for they contained many courts, apartments, wings, cabins, stoves, and halls, either to accommodate their owners at table, or for transacting business of consequence. Before these houses was generally a large place or porch, where persons giving attendance to great men made their court. It is supposed that the porch was covered, for the convenience of persons who were sometimes waiting very long before they were admitted.

There was a second part to these houses, called *cavum-adium*, or *cavædium*: it was an enclosed court.

The third part was called *atrium interius*, in general the whole inside of the house was used in this sense, when he said

Apparet domus intus, et atria longa patet

for it is plain that Virgil means by the words that all may be seen in the inside of a house when the doors are opened. There was a portico at the atrium, called *servus atriensis*; in this there were many figures; for the Romans raised every where trophies and statues in monuments of their great actions; they were not only in the provinces, which they had conquered, but also in public places in their own palaces at Rome.

Here were therefore painted or carved battles, axes, bundles of rods, and other badges of the offices that their ancestors



selves had obtained: and statues of wax or metal, representing their fathers in basso rilievo, were set up in niches of precious wood or rare marble. On the days of their solemn feasts, or triumphal pomp, these niches were opened, and the figures, crowned with festoons and garlands, carried about the town. When any of the family died, these statues accompanied the funeral parade; wherefore Pliny says, that the whole family was there present from the first to the last. There were also large galleries in these houses, adorned with pillars and other works of architecture.

The halls were built after the Corinthian or Egyptian order. The first had only a row of pillars set upon a pedestal, or on the pavement, and supported nothing but the architrave, and cornish of joiners' work or stud, over which was the ceiling in form of a vault; but the later halls had architraves upon pillars, and the architraves of the ceilings made of pieces joined together, which make an opened circular terrace. These houses had many apartments, some for men, and others for women; some for dining-rooms called triclinia, others for bed-chambers named dormitoria; and some others to lodge strangers. So large was ancient Rome, that there were 48,000 houses standing by themselves, or being so many insulae, and having a light on every side.

The Greeks built in a different manner from the Romans; for they had no porch, but from the first door they entered into a narrow passage; on one side of it there were stables, and on the other was the porter's lodge; at the end of this passage there was another door, to enter into a gallery supported with pillars, and this gallery had piazzas on three sides.

Within the Greek houses there were halls, for the mistresses of the family, and their servant maids to spin in; in the entry both on the right and left hand there were chambers; one called thalamus, and the other antichalamus. Round the piazzas there were dining-rooms, chambers, and wardrobes. To this part of the house was joined another which was considerably larger. The finest entries and most magnificent doors were at this part of the house. There were sometimes four square halls, so large and spacious, that they would easily hold four tables, with three seats in form of beds, and leave room enough for the servants and gamesters. They entertained their friends in these halls, for it was not the custom for women to sit amongst men. On the right and the left of these buildings were small apartments, and convenient rooms to receive the guests; and among the Greeks wealthy and magnificent men kept apartments, with all their conveniences, to receive any persons who came to lodge at their houses. The custom was, that after they had given them an entertainment the first day, they sent them afterwards every day some present, as chickens, eggs, pulse, and fruits; so that travellers were lodged as they had been at their own houses, and might live in these apartments privately.

The apartments were paved with mosaic or inlaid work. Pliny tells us, that the pavements that were painted and wrought with art came from the Greeks, who called them *λαιογραφία*. These were in fashion at Rome during the time

of Sylla, who had one made at Præneste, in the temple of Fortune. This pavement was not only used for paving the courts of houses and the halls, but also in chambers, and wainscoting the walls, and called *musæa*, *musia*, and *musiva*, because ingenious works were ascribed to the muses, and the muses and sciences were thereby represented.

DON, *v. a.* [To do on.] To put on; to invest with; the contrary to doff. Obsolete.

The purple morning left her crimson bed,  
And donned her robes of pure vermillion hue.

*Fairfax.*

Her helm the virgin donned.

*Id.*

What! should I *don* this robe, and trouble you?

*Shakespeare.*

DON, *n. s.* } Lat. *dominus*. The Spanish  
DONSHIP, *n. s.* } title for a gentleman; as, Don Quixote. It is with us used ludicrously: donship is the rank of a don or gentleman.

To the great *dons* of wit,

Phœbus gives them full privilege alone

To damn all others, and cry up their own.

*Dryden.*

I'm none of those,

Your bosom-friends, as you suppose

But Ralph himself, your trusty squire,

Wh' has dragged your donship out o' the mire.

*Hudibras.*

Here *dons*, grandees, but chiefly dames abound,

Skilled in the ogle of a roguish eye,

Yet ever well inclined to heal the wound.

*Byron.*

DON, a river of Russia, anciently called Tanais, which takes its rise from the small lake of St. John, near Tula, in the government of Moscow, and passing through part of the province of Voronetz, a small portion of the Ukraina Slobovskaia, and the whole province of Azof, divides itself near Tcherkask into three streams, and falls in these separate branches into the sea of Azof. The river has so many windings, is in many parts so shallow, and abounds with such numerous shoals, as to be scarcely navigable, excepting in the spring, upon the melting of the snows; and its mouth is also so choked up with sand, that only flat-bottomed vessels can pass into the sea of Azof, at any other season. The banks of the Don, and the rivulets which fall into it, are clothed with large tracts of forest, whose timber is floated down the stream to St. Demetri and Rostof, where the frigates for the sea of Azof are chiefly constructed. The navigation of the Don, Mr. Coxe observes, may possibly hereafter be rendered highly valuable, by conveying to the Black Sea the iron of Siberia, the Chinese goods, and the Persian merchandise: which latter commodities, as well as the products of India, formerly found their way into Europe through this same channel.

DON, a river of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, which rises about four miles north of the castle of Brae-Mar, runs through the district of Alford; so named from the river being almost all ford, or every where fordable, in that part of its course; afterwards joins the Ury at Inverury, and falls into the British Ocean at New Aberdeen, within two miles of the mouth of the Dee. It has been long famous for its salmon fishery



A space of within 500 yards of this river has in one year produced fish to the amount of £2000.

**DONAGHADEE**, a post, market, and port town in the barony of Ardes, and county of Down, twenty-seven miles and a half distant from Port Patrick in Scotland, the corresponding packet station. Lat. 54° 45' N., long. 5° 40' W. The ancient quay, in form of a crescent, was built by lord Montgomery, and accommodated from twelve to fourteen sail. The present pier was built at the expense of government, and is intended to enclose a surface of 100 fathoms square, accessible at low water for vessels of fifteen feet draft. The south pier is completed, but shelter is much wanted on the north. Port Patrick lies N. E. by E.  $\frac{1}{4}$  N., or nearly north-east by compass from Donaghadee. It has been suggested that the execution of this harbour, according to the original design, i. e. with a funnel-shaped mouth, might possibly cause vessels to steer wildly when entering in a heavy swell.

**DONALDSON** (John), a painter and engraver of some repute, was born at Edinburgh in 1737. He painted portraits in miniature, and was distinguished also for his skilful imitations of the old engravers, which he executed so correctly as to deceive even connoisseurs. He published a volume of poems, and an Essay on the Elements of Beauty. He also cultivated chemistry, and discovered a method of preserving meat and vegetables during long voyages. He died in 1801.

**DONARIA**, among the ancients, in its primary signification, was taken for the places where the oblations offered to the gods were kept; but afterwards was used to denote the offerings themselves; and sometimes, improperly, the temples.

**DONATIA**, in botany, a genus of the trigynia order and triandria class of plants: CAL. triphyllous perianth, with short subulated leaves standing at a distance from one another: COR. petals from eight to ten, of an oblong linear shape, twice as long as the calyx: STAM. three subulated filaments, the length of the calyx; the anthers roundish, didymous, and two-lobed at the base. Species, one only, a native of Terra del Fuego.

**DONATIO MORTIS CAUSA**, in law, a disposition of property made by a person in his last sickness, who, apprehending his dissolution near, delivers or causes to be delivered to another the possession of any personal goods, to keep in case of his decease. If the donor dies, this gift needs not the consent of his executor; but it shall not prevail against creditors; and it is accompanied with this implied trust, that, if the donor lives, the property shall revert to himself, being only given in prospect of death, or mortis causa. This method of donation seems to have been conveyed to us from the civil lawyers, who borrowed it from the Greeks.

**DONATION**, *n. s.* } Fr. *donation*; Span.  
**DON'ATIVE**, *n. s.* } *donacion*; Ital. and Lat.  
**DON'OR**, *n. s.* } *donatio*, from *dono*, ex-  
pletive of *do*, to give. A donation is a grant; the act of giving; and a gift: for donative see the following article. A donor is a giver or bestower.

The Roman emperor's custom was, at certain solemn times, to bestow on his soldiers a *donative*; which

*donative* they received wearing garlands upon their heads.

Howsoever the letter of that *donation* may be regarded by men, yet the sense thereof is so impressed in their hearts, as if every one laid claim for himself unto that which was conferred upon all.

*Raleigh's Emp.*

He gave us only over beast, fish, fowl,  
Dominion absolute; that right we hold  
By his donation. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

After *donation* there is an absolute change and alienation made of the property of the thing given: when being so alienated, a man has no more to do with it than with a thing bought with another's money.

*Saunders.*

Litters thick besiege the donor's gate,  
And begging lords and teeming ladies wait  
The promised dote. *Dryden's Jural.*

It is a mighty check to beneficent tempers to consider how often good designs are frustrated and perverted to purposes, which, could the donors themselves have foreseen, they would have been very loth to promote.

*Arbuthnot.*

Never did steeple carry double truth;  
His is the *donative*, and mine the cure. *Clarendon.*

**DONATISTS**, ancient schismatics in Africa, so denominated from their leader Donatus. They had their origin A. D. 311, when, in the reign of Mensurius, who died in that year on his return to Rome, Cæcilian was elected bishop of Carthage, and consecrated without the concurrence of the Numidian bishops, by those of Africa alone; whom the people refused to acknowledge, and to whom they opposed Majorinus; who, accordingly, was ordained by Donatus bishop of Casæ Nigræ. They were repeatedly condemned in different councils held at Rome and Arles, and particularly in one at Milan, in 316, before Constantine the Great, who deprived them of their churches, banished their bishops, and punished some of them with death. Their cause was espoused by another Donatus, called the Great, the principal bishop of that sect, who, with numbers of his followers, was exiled by Constantine. Many of them were punished with great severity. See CIRCONCELLIONES. However, after the accession of Julian, in 362, they were restored to their former liberty. Gratian, in 377, deprived them of their churches, and prohibited their assemblies. But, notwithstanding these severities, they had a very considerable number of churches towards the close of the fourth century; till they began to decline, on account of a schism among themselves, occasioned by the election of two bishops, in the room of Parmenian, the successor of Donatus. One party elected Primian, and were called Primianists, and another Maximian, and were called Maximianists. Their decline was also precipitated by the zealous opposition of St. Augustine, and by the violent measures pursued against them by Honorius, at the solicitation of two councils held at Carthage; the one in 404, and the other in 411. Many of them were fined, their bishops were banished, and some put to death. The sect revived and multiplied under the protection of the Vandals, who invaded Africa in 427, and took possession of this province; but it sunk again under new severities, when their emperors



overturned in 534. Nevertheless, they remained in a separate body till the close of the century, when Gregory, the Roman pontiff, various methods for suppressing them; his succeeded, and there are few traces to be found of the Donatists after this period. They distinguished by other appellations; as *secesses*, *Campites*, *Rupites*, &c. They held councils, one at Cirta in Numidia, and another at Carthage. The peculiar opinions of the Donatists were, 1. That baptism conferred out of the church, that is, out of their sect, was null; accordingly they rebaptised those who joined partly from other churches, and re-ordained ministers. Donatus seems likewise to have been into the doctrine of the Arians, with whom he was closely allied; and, accordingly, St. Epiphanius, Theodoret, and some others, accused the Donatists of Arianism; and it is probable that their charge was well founded, because they were persecuted by the Vandals, who were of these sentiments. But St. Augustine (Ep. 185, to Boniface, and *Hæc*. 69.) affirms, that the Donatists, in this point, were clear of the errors of their leader.

**DONATIVE**, in the canon law, a benefice given to a patron merely without a presentation to a bishop. If chapels founded by laymen be approved by the diocesan, and, as it is called, *realised*, they are not accounted proper benefices, neither can they be conferred by the patron, but remain to the pious disposition of the founders, and their heirs, who may give such chapels without the bishop. Gwin observes, that the king might anciently found a free chapel, exempt it from the jurisdiction of the diocesan; so may he, by letters patent, give liberty to a common person to found such a chapel, and call it donative, not presentable; and the chapel or beneficiary, is deprivable by the founder or his heir, and not by the bishop. Donatives are within the statute against simony; and, if they have cure of souls, within that against pluralities. If the patron of a donative does nominate a clerk, there can be no lapse of office, unless it be specially provided for in the foundation; but the bishop may compel him to it by spiritual censures. But, if it be augmented by queen Anne's bounty, it will lapse on other presentative livings. 1 Geo. I. stat. 2, c. 10.

The ordinary cannot visit a donative, therefore it is free from procuration, and the incumbent is exempted from attendance at visitations. All bishoprics anciently were donative or king. Where a bishop has the gift of a free office, it is properly called a donative, because it is not present to himself.

**DONATIVE**, *DONATIVUM*, in antiquity, was a gift made to the soldiers, as congiiation was to the people. The Romans made donatives to their soldiers. Julia Pia, wife of emperor Severus, is called on certain medals *mater castorum*, because of the care she took of the soldiery, by interposing for the augmentation of their donatives, &c. Salmasius, in his notes to Lampridius, on his Life of Heliodorus, mentioning a donative that emperor Maximian gave of three pieces of gold per head, observes, that this was the common and legitimate rate of

a donative. Casaubon, in his notes on the Life of Pertinax by Capitolinus, observes, that Pertinax made a promise of 2000 denarii to each soldier; which amounts to upwards of £97 sterling. The same author writes, that the legal donative was 20,000 denarii; and that it was not customary to give less, especially to the prætorian soldiers: that the centurions had double, and the tribunes, &c., more in proportion.

**DONATUS** (*Ælius*), a celebrated grammarian, who lived at Rome, about A. D. 354. He was one of St. Jerome's masters; and composed commentaries on Terence and Virgil, which are esteemed.

**DONATUS** (*Jerom*), a learned and noble Venetian, who flourished in the end of the fifteenth century, and died in the beginning of the sixteenth. He was a benefactor to his country, both as a commander and as a negotiator, and procured its reconciliation with pope Julius II. He wrote many books, which remain in MS.; besides a translation of Alexander Aphrodisæus de Anima, which he published. He died of a fever at Rome just as he had completed his negotiation with Julius.

**DONAVESCHINGEN**, or *DONESCHINGEN*, a town of Germany, in the circle of Suabia, situated in the Black Forest, where the prince of Fürstenberg has a palace, near which is a spring, said to be the source of the Danube, thirteen miles N. N. W. of Schaffhausen, and thirteen west of Duttlingen.

**DONAUEWERTH**, a strong and well built town of Bavaria, in the circle of Suabia, situated on the left bank of that river. It has been taken and retaken several times in the wars of Germany; and was formerly an imperial city. It has a bridge over the Danube, four good churches and four hospitals: it lies thirty miles west of Ingoldstadt, and eighteen north of Augsburg. In this neighbourhood were the famous lines of Schellenberg, when the allies under the duke of Marlborough obtained an important victory over the Bavarians on the 2d July 1704.

**DONAX**, a genus of insects belonging to the order of vermes testacei. It is an animal of the oyster kind; and the shell has two valves, with a very obtuse margin in the fore part. There are nineteen species, principally distinguished by the figure of their shells.

**DONCASTER**, an ancient, large, and populous town, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, seated on the Don, with a castle, whence its name. It is incorporated, and is governed by a mayor, recorder, six aldermen, and twenty-four councillors. In this town is a handsome theatre, town-hall, bank, free grammar-school, almshouse, work-house, a public dispensary, and various other benevolent societies and institutions for the relief of sick and afflicted persons. The parish church is an ancient structure; and its steeple is a piece of excellent workmanship. Here are numerous meeting-houses for religious sects of different denominations. Doncaster has long been celebrated for its races; on the course, which is one of the most eligible in the kingdom, is erected an elegant stand for the accommodation of the spectators and visitors, who are always numerous and fashionable. It has a



market on Monday; and carries on manufactures of vests, petticoats, stockings, gloves, &c. It has two bridges over the Don, with a high causeway beyond them, the river being apt to overflow its banks. It has also the relics of an old Roman road, and lies thirty-seven miles south of York, and 160 north by west of London.

DONE, a kind of interjection. The word by which a wager is concluded: when a wager is offered, he that accepts it says 'Done!'

*Done: the wager? Shakespeare. Tempest.*

One thing, sweet heart, I will ask:

Take me for a new-fashioned mask.

—*Done: but my bargain shall be this,*

I'll throw my mask off when I kiss. *Cleveland.*

\**Twas done and done, and the fox, by consent, was to be the judge. L'Estrange.*

DONEGAL, anciently Tyrconnel, is a county in the province of Ulster, bounded on the north and west by the Atlantic Ocean, by parts of Leitrim and Fermanagh on the south, and by Tyrone, Londonderry, and Fermanagh on the east. It is divided into six baronies, and forty-two parishes. Its superficies measures about 679,550 plantation acres. The line of coast is adorned by many islands, of which seventeen are inhabited; and it is also indented by numerous excellent harbours and bays, capable of being made available either for the West-India trade, or the encouragement and growth of valuable fisheries. The chief islands are Aranmore, containing 2000 acres, 132 houses, and 778 inhabitants: Inishbofin, having forty-three houses and 252 inhabitants: Tory Island, supporting a population of 296 in fifty-nine houses. The most important harbours are, the noble inlet of Lough Swilly, extending thirty miles in length; Mulroy and Sheep-haven in the north; Teelin, Killybegs, and Brucklis in the south. The whale fishery was once successfully prosecuted on this coast, and a pier was erected at Inver, as an auxiliary, which now, unhappily, is a total ruin. Inver and Brucklis Bay continue to be the chief seat of the herring fishery; but from the want of shelter for boats, this mode of life is rendered in this place awfully perilous. In 1813 fifty fishermen were lost in the last-mentioned bay, entirely owing to the want of any rendezvous, when the squall came on. The safest, best, and largest harbour on this line, is Killybegs: here several hundred sail might anchor safely, but could not put to sea hence in west or south-west winds. The fishery along this coast has latterly decayed, and is not likely to be arrested in its melancholy decline, without either the countenance and assistance of government, or of the landed proprietors of the county.

The roads in Donegal are, in most places, unfit for carriages; and the traffic of the country is carried on generally by horses, with sacks and baskets. No mail-coach, as yet, passes through any part of this great district. The coast road should be all remade: a new line is wanted from the Rosses, by the Giddore River, to Gortahork; and also from the same place to Fintown, by Aragib Mountain. In fact, without coast improvements, the population will find it difficult to procure subsistence; and with the required road

improvements, a market would be found for the overplus of food obtained by the improved labours, at the same time that civilisation would advance much more rapidly. Donegal abounds in valuable mineral substances; it has been visited by Dr. Berger, Dr. Stokes, and Sir Charles Giesecke. The surface may be termed both boggy and mountainous; the former part useless, from a scanty population and want of drainage; the latter unapproachable from want of roads. There is a valuable lead mine, at full work, near Kildrum. At Muckish there is a rich bed of silicious sand. Iron ore is found in Aranmore, Muckish, and other places. Coals are found at Dromore, Ards, and Gonnely, and slate near Ballyshannon and Letterkenney. Veins of primitive limestone and marble, fit for statuary, appear at Fintona; sienite, and porphyritic sienite, are had here in great abundance, besides several species of limestone. Dykes are of frequent occurrence, and consist principally of trap and greenstone. There is but little trade of any description existing here. Linen is made by the cottagers, and sold to the travellers from Derry, Sligo, and Strabane. Kelp is made along the coast; and the fishery, now in a very low state, might be rendered a great blessing to the poor and peaceable inhabitants of this large county, by the adoption of a few of Mr. Nimmo's very beautiful designs for coast improvements.

There are some remarkable natural beauties and curiosities in Donegal: the pass of Bannagh is the most sublime of the first description; and M'Swine's Gun the most singular of the second. The climate, from its latitude and exposure to the Atlantic, is both colder and more damp than most of the other northern counties; yet longevity is said to be one of its attributes: the last census returns upwards of twenty persons in the county as having attained the age of 100, and several as having reached the unusually extended age of 115 years. The chief towns are Liffel, Letterkenney, Raphoe, Ballyshannon, Rathfron, Killybegs, Buncrana, Ballintra, Oulagh, &c. The chief, or county town is Liffel, situated on the river Finn. The assizes for the county are held here, but from its awkward situation, upon the boundaries of the county, and in proximity to Strabane, it has never risen to the importance to which shire-towns are entitled: the population scarcely amounts to 1000 persons. Letterkenney is well situated for supplying the county with imports, but Rathfron much better. The town of Ballyshannon, the property of Paackenham Conolly, Esq., is situated at the embouchure of the river Erne. Here is the famous salmon fishery, the produce of which is all exported to London, carefully packed in ice. The fall of Ballyshannon is a beautiful object, and always supplied with a great body of water from Lough Erne. The harbour of Ballyshannon is obstructed by two bars; but, when they are passed, there is safe lying for small vessels in the pool below the waterfall. This harbour is much in want of improvement, and a navigation from Loch Erne to the sea is an obvious want. The Erne, the Finn, and the Gribarra, are the principal rivers in the county; but









DORIA.



DONNE.



DIOSCORIDES.



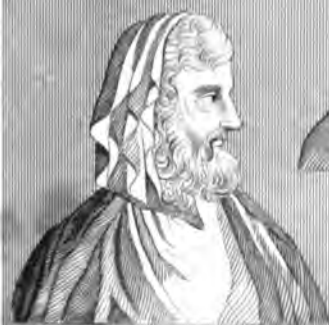
DOBSON.



DOMINUS.



DUSNEY.



DIONYSIUS.



DOLOMITTE.



DIODORIANUS.



and mountain pools are very numerous. Derg is rendered famous in story by the ages to St. Patrick's Purgatory, on one of mds, annually performed by multitudes very part of Ireland; and Lough Esk is or the production of excellent char fish. are few counties in Ireland possessing interest, and at the same time less known public, than Donegal.

EGAL TOWN, in the barony of Tyrhugh, of Donegal, and province of Ulster, is 40 miles from Dublin. It is a post, market, r town. Here is a beautiful remnant of litary antiquities of Ireland, O'Donnell's ertected in the twelfth century, and at this ularly perfect. The ruins of a monastery, l in 1474, by Owen Rowe, stand at the e of half a mile from the town.

ERAILL, a borough of Ireland, in Cork, in the Awbeg, near some quarries of beau-iegated marble. It sent two members to ent before the Union. It is nineteen miles ast of Cork, and 115 south-west of Dublin. GALA, DANGALA, or DANKALA, as it is y the Arabs, is a town of Africa, in Nu- ted on the east bank of the Nile. The are said to be half-deserted, being filled sand brought down by the waters from untains. The castle is large but not strong; account of it by Porcet, dated at the f the seventeenth century, is the last we en. Persons of rank here go bareheaded, air being disposed in tresses, and their attire consisting in a rude vest without . The pride of Dongala is in its horses, are as beautiful as their riders are skilful. the expulsion of the Mamelukes from those of that body which effected their have taken possession of Dongala, and shed a species of petty kingdom there. number, however, does not exceed 500, 000 or 4000 slaves. Dongala is 150 miles f Sennar, and 690 south of Cairo.

NION, *n.s.* Now corrupted to *dungeon*, w Lat. *dominionum*, according to Menage. ghest and strongest tower of the castle, prisoners were kept: as in Chaucer. It used of subterraneous prisons.

se grete toure, that was so thicke and strong, ch of the castle was the chief *dongeon*, rein the knights were in prison, evin joyuant to the garden-wall, as this Emely had her playeing. Chaucer.

NNE (John), D. D., a poet and divine of seventeenth century. His parents were of omish religion, and used their utmost ef- o keep him firm to it; but his early exa- on of the controversy between the church ne and the Protestants, at last determined o choose the latter. He travelled into nd Spain, where he learnt their languages ection. Soon after he returned to Eng- ir Thomas Egerton, keeper of the great ppointed him his secretary: in which post inuated five years. Marrying privately he daughter of Sir George Moore, then Hor of the garter, he was dismissed from ce, and thrown into prison: but he was

afterwards reconciled to Sir George by the good offices of Sir Francis Wolley. In 1612 he accompanied Sir Robert Drury to Paris, and during this time many of the nobility solicited the king for some secular employment for him. But king James, who took pleasure in his conversation, had engaged him in writing his Pseudo-Martyr, printed at London in 1610; and was so highly pleased with that work, that in 1614 he prevailed upon him to enter into holy orders; appointed him one of his chaplains, and procured him the degree of D. D. from the University of Oxford. In 1619 he attended the earl of Doncaster in his embassy into Germany. In 1621 he was made dean of St. Paul's, and vicar of St. Dunstan's, in London; the advowson of it having been given to him long before by Richard earl of Dorset. By these and other preferments, he was enabled to be charitable to the poor, and to make good provision for his children. He wrote besides the above, 1. Devotions upon emergent occasions. 2. The Ancient History of the Septuagint, translated from the Greek of Aristetus, in 4to. 3. Three volumes of sermons, folio. 4. A considerable number of poems, and other works. He died in 1631; and was interred in St. Paul's cathedral, where a monument was erected to his memory. His writings show him to have been a man of wit and learning; but his chief talent lay in satire; though it savors more of the coarse style of Juvenal, than of the elegant humor of Horace.

DONNE (Benjamin), a celebrated mathematician, was born in 1729, at Bideford, in Devonshire, where his father and brother Abraham were eminent teachers of the mathematics. Benjamin succeeded his father, but afterwards removed to Bristol, where he died in 1798. He was master of mechanics to his late majesty, and published—1. Mathematical Essays, 8vo., 1759. 2. A Map of Devonshire, from an actual survey, made by himself. 3. The Accountant and Geometrician, 8vo. 4. The British Mariner's Assistant, 8vo. 5. Essays on Trigonometry, 8vo. 6. An Epitome of Natural Philosophy, 12mo. 7. A Treatise on Mechanical Geometry, 12mo.

DONNINGTON, or DUNNINGTON, a town of England, in the county of Lincoln, with a good trade in hemp and hemp-seed, and a port for barges, by which goods are conveyed to Boston and the Washes. It has lately been much improved. Through the fens, a firm rampart of earth of considerable breadth has been constructed, which forms a convenient road to Sempringham. The church is a convenient building: in the lower part of the steeple is a stone, on which are the remains of a Roman inscription, unintelligible, with the exception of the date of the year. It has a weekly market on Saturday; and is eleven miles W. S. W. of Boston, and 110 north of London.

DOODLE, *n. s.* A cant word, says Johnson, perhaps corrupted from do little; *faisneant*. A trifler; an idler.

DOOM, *v. a. & n. s.* Sax. dome, deman; DOOM'S-DAY, Teut. *thum*, to DEEM, DOOM'S-MAN, which see. To judge; DOOM'S-DAY-BOOK. destine; hence to com-



mand judicially, denounce; and the sentence, determination, or judgment given. Doomsday is the day of future and universal judgment. For doom's-day-book, see DOMESDAY-BOOK.

Be thou consenting to thin adversarie soone, while thou art in the waye with him, lest peradventure thin adversarie take thee to the *domesman* and the *domesman* take thee to the ministe, and thou be sent in to prisoun. *Wiclif. Matt. v.*

He that etith and drynkith unworthile, etith and drynkith doom to him, not wisely demyng the bodi of the lord. *Id. 1 Cor. xi.*

Have I a tongue to doom my brother's death,  
And shall that tongue give pardon to a slave?

*Shakespeare.*

Revoke thy doom,  
Or whilst I can vent clamour from my throat,  
I'll tell thee thou dost evil. *Id. King Lear.*

Search Windsor Castle, elves, within and out:  
Strew good luck, ouphes, on every sacred room,  
That it may stand till the perpetual doom. *Id.*

Men, wives, and children stare, cry out, and run,  
As it were doomsday. *Id. Julius Cæsar.*

The Danes also brought in a reckoning of money by ores, per oras, which is mentioned in doomsday-book. *Camden.*

His business gives him not leave to think of his conscience, and when the time, or term of his life is going out, for dooms-day he is secure; for he hopes he has a trick to reverse judgment. *Bp. Earle.*

They may serve for any theme, and never be out of date until doomsday. *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

Him through malice fallen,  
Father of mercy and grace! thou didst not doom  
So strictly, but much more to pity incline. *Milton.*

Minos, the strict inquisitor, appears,  
And lives and crimes, with his assessors, hears;  
Round in his urn the blended balls he rols,  
Absolves the just, and dooms the guilty souls.

*Dryden's Æneid.*

Our souls, not yet prepared for upper light,  
Till doomsday wander in the shades of night—  
This only holiday of all the year,  
We privileged in sunshine may appear. *Id.*

In the great day, wherein the secrets of all hearts shall be laid open, no one shall be made to answer what he knows nothing of: but shall receive his doom, his conscience accusing or excusing him.

*Locke.*

I have no will but what your eyes ordain;  
Destined to love, as they are doomed to reign.

*Graveille.*

From the same foes, at last, both felt their doom;  
And the same age saw learning fall, and Rome.

*Pope.*

Indeed, as there is a difference in constitutions, some rest well after these meals; it costs them only a frightful dream and an apoplexy, after which they sleep till doomsday. Nothing is more common in the newspapers, than instances of people, who, after eating a hearty supper, are found dead a-bed in the morning.

*Franklin.*

In groundless hope, and causeless fear,  
Unhappy man! behold thy doom;  
Still changing with the changeful year,  
The slave of sunshine and of gloom.

*Johnson. Winter's Walk.*

When to the supper-hall we moved along,  
Why was I doomed to face her in the throng?  
With what provoking kindness did she stand,  
And loose her arm from his to press my hand,

And beg with well feigned sympathy to know  
Of head-aches which I felt three months ago.  
*Dr. T. S.*

The very knowledge that he lived in vain  
That all was over on this side the tomb,  
Had made Despair a smilingness assume,  
Which, though 'twere wild,—as on the pile  
wreck

When mariners would madly meet their doom  
With draughts intemperate on the sinking deck  
Did yet inspire a cheer, which he forbore to show

DOON, or Loch Doon, anciently Dohn, a lake of Scotland, six miles long, south-east part of the district of Kyle, in shire. There is an island in it, with an old castle called Balloch Castle. Also the name of a district of Scotland, which issues from Loch Doon, running north-west, divides the district from that of Carrick. After a course of meanderings for twenty-four miles, it falls the Frith of Clyde, a little south of Arbroath, abounds with salmon, trout, pikes, and eels.

DOOR, *n. s.* } Goth. *dore*; Sax. *door*; *Teut. thur*; Dan. *door*.  
DOOR'CASE, }  
DOOR'KEEPER. }haps from *Gt. Sepa* to enter; *Minsheu*. The gate of a house; hence entrance of any kind; and by metonymy, a house. To lay at the door of any one is to impute; to charge upon any thing.

Petr stode at the *dore* withoutforth; that tothir disciple that was knowun to the bischop out and seide to the woman that kepte the *dore* room; hence entrance of any kind; and by metonymy, a house. To lay at the door of any one is to impute; to charge upon any thing.

*Wiclif. Jan.*

The praiser stint of Arcite the strong,  
The rings on the temple *dore* they rang,  
And eke the *dores* clatten full fast,  
Of which Arcite somewhat him angred.

All the castle quaked from the ground,  
And every door of free-will open flew.

*Chaucer.*

Since my own doors refuse to entertain  
I'll knock elsewhere. *Shakespeare.*

The indispensable necessity of sincere prayer shuts the door against all temptations to carnality. *Id.*

He that hath given the following answer to thee, desires to be even a doorkeeper in God's house, and to be a servant to the meanest of God's creatures. *Taylor's Holy Days.*

In the side a door

Contrived; and of provisions laid in for man and beast. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

A seditious word leads to a broil, and is punished is but next door to a tumult. *Id.*

Lay one piece of flesh or fish in the open air, another of the same kind and bigness within. *Bacon's Natural History.*

For without rules, there can be no art; than there can be a house without a door to enter in.

In any of which parts if I have failed, lies wholly at my door. *Id. Dufrenoy.*



, who was thy lord, command thee now,  
 voice and supercilious brow,  
 ties, thou would'st fear no more;  
 and the whip are out of *door*.

*Dryden. Persius.*

nary title of fatherhood is out of *doors*,  
 so prince over his brother.

*Loche.*

ough\* they are bred within *doors*, and  
 he actions of their own species, push at  
 approach them with their foreheads.

*Addison's Spectator.*

ing of frames for *doorcases*, is the framing  
 of wood athwart two other pieces.

*Moxon.*

office is now the second *door* in the street,  
 I see Parnel.

*Arbuthnot.*

observer once said, that in walking the  
 slippery morning, one might see where  
 cured people lived, by the ashes thrown  
 fore the *doors*.

*Franklin.*

with hope; the sinking statesman's *door*,  
 morning worshipper no more.

*Johnson. Vanity of Human Wishes.*

ACK, or Jullalabad, the capital of  
 e of Seistan, Persia, is situated in an  
 try, at the distance of eight or nine  
 the river Helmund, or Hetermund.  
 of about 2000 houses. Here is a  
 and around are the ruins of a more  
 ancient city, which appears to have  
 of half-burnt brick. The modern  
 commonly called Julallabad, is go-  
 prince of an ancient and independent  
 styles himself king of Seistan.

ET, *n. s.* A paper containing a war-  
 Dock.

institution of this office, no *doquet* for  
 en, nor warrant for pardon of alienation  
 be purchased without an oath.

*Bacon's Office of Alienation.*

, or Felahi, a town of the province  
 a, Persia, situated on two branches  
 of Jerahi. It is surrounded by mud  
 miles in circuit, sixteen feet thick,  
 at intervals, by round towers. The  
 he seik occupies a large area, but is a  
 ce, and in a decaying state. Dorak  
 ed for the manufacture of Arabian  
 here are few houses within the walls,  
 the inhabitants prefer residing under  
 of the date trees, in the suburbs.  
 8000. Seventy-five miles south of

, a town of Arabia, in Yemen, the  
 of the chief or governor of the district  
 es. It is situated on the declivity of  
 a, and was once surrounded by a wall  
 gates. Twenty-eight miles south of

AS. See CAFRA.

HESTER, an ancient, neat, and well  
 of England, the capital of Dorsetshire.  
 l on the river Frome, on a Roman road,  
 ed with a fine terrace walk, planted with  
 as three parish churches, with a court  
 re the county assizes are held; and is  
 y a mayor, twelve aldermen, a recorder,  
 y four council-men. It has long been

famous for its excellent ale. The streets are  
 broad and well paved. It has two markets on  
 Wednesday and Saturday, and sends two mem-  
 bers to parliament. The manufactures are serge  
 and broad cloth. It lies eight miles north of  
 Weymouth, fifty-three east of Exeter, and 120  
 west by south of London.

DORCHESTER, a town in Oxfordshire, seated on  
 the Tame, over which it has a bridge, three quar-  
 ters of a mile above its junction with the Thames.  
 It had five churches before the Norman conquest.  
 It is ten miles south-east of Oxford, and forty-  
 nine W. N. W. of London.

DORCHESTER, a county of Maryland, in North  
 America. It is thirty-three miles long from east  
 to west, and twenty-seven broad. Its produce is  
 chiefly wheat, corn, and lumber. Cambridge is  
 the chief town.

DORCHESTER, a town of the United States of  
 America, in Grafton county, New Hampshire,  
 seventeen miles north-east of Dartmouth.

DORCHESTER, a township of the United States,  
 in Norfolk county, Massachusetts. It is two  
 miles south by east of Boston, and is about six  
 miles long, and three and a half broad. The  
 chief manufactures are paper, chocolate, snuff,  
 leather, and shoes.

DORCHESTER, a town of the United States, in  
 Cumberland county, New Jersey, seventeen  
 miles east of Fairfield.

DORCHESTER NECK, a peninsula of Massa-  
 chusetts, on the coast of the township, in Norfolk  
 county; the north-east point of which approaches  
 within half a mile of Castle Island, and its  
 north-west point within half a mile of the south  
 part of Boston. During the American war forts  
 were erected on the heights, and the township  
 suffered greatly.

DORDOGNE, a department of France, com-  
 prehending part of the ci-devant province of  
 Perigord, bounded on the north-east by that of  
 the Upper Vienne, on the east by those of the  
 Lot and Correze, on the south by that of the Lot  
 and Garonne, on the west by those of the Gi-  
 ronde and the Lower Charente, and on the north-  
 west by that of the Charente. Perigueux is the  
 capital. Its superficial extent is about 3600  
 square miles, and the population 425,000, of  
 whom 8500 are Protestants. It was at first  
 divided into nine districts, but now consists of  
 the five arrondissements of Perigueux (the ca-  
 pital), Bergerac, Sarlat, Riberae, and Nontron.  
 The south of the department, particularly the  
 banks of the Dordogne, the Vezere, and the Ile,  
 is fruitful; but the north is mountainous, and  
 covered with wood; the deficiency of corn being  
 supplied by chestnuts and potatoes. There are  
 a few manufacturing establishments in various  
 places, viz. for hardware, paper, glass, and pot-  
 tery. Wine, oil, and cattle, form the chief  
 articles of export. Of wine 150,000 hogsheads  
 are accounted an average vintage; the cattle and  
 sheep are numerous.

DORDOGNE, a considerable river of France,  
 which rises about seven miles north-west of Besse,  
 in the department of the Puy-de-Dome. After  
 forming the limit of the departments of the Puy-  
 de-Dome and the Correze it runs through an  
 extensive tract, and falls into the Garonne, at



Bourg, about fifteen miles below Bourdeaux. Here the united stream takes the name of the Gironde. The course of the Dordogne is above 200 miles, during which it receives a great number of smaller rivers, the principal of which are the Vezere and Ile. The tide flows as high up as Castillon, about twenty-five miles from the confluence with the Garonne.

DORIA (Andrew), a celebrated patriot of Genoa, born in 1466. He entered into the service of Francis I. of France; but preserved that spirit of independence so natural to a sailor and a republican. When the French attempted to render Savona, long the object of jealousy to Genoa, its rival in trade, Doria remonstrated against the measure in a high tone; which, being represented by the malice of his courtiers in the most odious light, irritated Francis to that degree, that he ordered his admiral, Barbesieux, to sail to Genoa, then in the hands of the French troops, to arrest Doria, and to seize his galleys. This rash order being communicated to Doria, he retired with all his galleys to a place of safety; and, while his resentment was thus raised, closed with the offers of the emperor Charles V.; returned his commission, with the collar of St. Michael, to Francis, and hoisted the Imperial colors. To deliver his country, weary alike of the French and Imperial yoke, from the dominion of foreigners, was now Doria's highest ambition; and the favorable moment soon offered. Genoa was afflicted with the pestilence, the French garrison was greatly reduced, and ill paid, and the inhabitants were disposed to second his views. He sailed to the harbour with thirteen galleys, landed fifty men, and made himself master of the gates and the palace, with very little resistance. The French governor, with his feeble garrison, retired to the citadel, but was quickly forced to capitulate; when the people ran together, and levelled the citadel with the ground. It was now in Doria's power to have rendered himself the sovereign of his country; but, with a magnanimity of which there are few examples, he assembled the people in the court before the palace, disclaimed all pre-eminence, and recommended to them to settle the form of government they chose to establish. The people, animated by his spirit, forgot their factions, and fixed that form of government which subsisted till the revolution in 1797, with little variation. This event happened in 1528. Doria lived to a great age, respected and beloved as a private citizen, and is still celebrated among his countrymen by the most honorable of all appellations, 'The father of his country, and the restorer of its liberty.'

DO'RIC, *adj.* Lat. *dorus*; Fr. *dorique*.  
The ancient Dorians.

Love warms our fancy with enlivening fires,  
Refines our genius, and our verse inspires;  
From him Theocritus, on Enna's plains,  
Learn'd the wild sweetness of his *Doric* strains.

*Littleton.*

**DORIC DIALECT**, one of the five dialects which prevailed among the Greeks. It was first used by the Lacedæmonians, and particularly those of Argos; thence it passed into Epirus, Libya,

Sicily, and the islands of Rhodes and Cete. In his dialect, Archimedes and Theocritus wrote, who were both Syracusans, as well as Pindar. The Doric dialect is properly the manner of speaking peculiar to the Dorians, after their recess under Parnassus and Asopus; and which afterwards came to obtain among the Lacedæmonians. As Some even distinguished between the Lacedæmonian and Doric; but, in reality, they were the same; setting aside a few particulars in the language of the Lacedæmonians; as shown in Rulandus, in his treatise De Lingua Græcæ ejusque Dialectis, lib. v. To these authors we might add Archytas of Tarentum, Bion, Callinus, Simonides, Bacchylides, Cypselas, Alceus, and Sophron, as writers in the Doric dialect. Most of the medals of the cities of Græcia Magna and Sicily, use the Doric dialect in their inscriptions, e. g. AMBPAKIOTAN, AΠOΛΛΩΝΙΑΤΑΣ, ΑΞΠΟΝΤΑΝ, ΑΧΥΠΙΤΑΝ, ΗΡΑΑ, ΑΒΕΓΓΙΑΝ, ΠΡΟΙΝΙΩΝ, ΟΕΡΜΙΤΑΝ, ΚΑΥΑΟΝΙΑΤΑΝ, ΚΑΛΙΤΑΝ, ΤΑΥΡΟΜΕΝΙΤΑΝ, &c. Which shows the countries wherein the Doric dialect was used. The general rules of this dialect are thus given by the Port-royalists:

D's Hra, d'w grand, d's, d's, & d's l'a fait le  
D's fait hra; d's, w; & d'w au fait encore.  
Oste, de l' infini : & pour le singulier  
Se sert au feminin du nombre pluriel.

But they are much better explained in the book of Rulandus; where he even notices the minutest differences of the dialects of Sicily, Crete, Tarentum, Rhodes, Lacedæmon, Macedonia, and Thessaly.

DORIC Mode, in music, the first of the authentic modes of the ancients. Its character is to be severe, tempered with gravity and joy; and is proper upon religious occasions, as also to be used in war. It begins D, *la, sol, re*. Pausanias admires the music of the Doric mode, and judges it proper to preserve good manners as being masculine; and on this account allows it to his commonwealth. The ancients had likewise this subdoric or hypodoric mode, which was one of the plagal modes. Its character was to be very grave and solemn: it began with *re*, a fourth lower than the Doric.

DORIC ORDER, the second of the five orders of architecture. It is usually placed upon the Attic base, though originally it had none. THE ARCHITECTURE. The most considerable ancient monuments of this order, are the theatre of Marcellus at Rome, wherein the capital, the beads of the frize, and its projecture, are much smaller than in the modern architecture; and the Parthenon, or temple of Minerva, at Athens, in which the short and massy columns bear upon the pavement without a base; and the capital is a simple torus, with its cincture, and a square plain, and solid abacus.

DORIS, in ancient geography, a country of Greece, between Phocis, Thessaly, and Aetolia. It received its name from Dorus, the son of Deucalion, who made a settlement there. It was called Tetrapolis, from its four cities, viz. Pinus or Drypis, Erincum, Cytinium, and Borium. To these four some add Lilium and Carphia, and therefore call it Hexapolis. The



has been common to many parts of the Dorians in the age of Deucalion theiotis, which they exchanged for the age of Dorus. From thence even by the Cadmeans, and came to the town of Pindus. Thence they tryopis, and afterwards into Peloponnesus, and afterwards into Peloponnesus, Hercules having re-established of Phthiotis or Doris, who had from his country by the Lapithæ, being appointed Hyllus, the son of his successor, and the Heraclidæ that part of the country to recover. The Dorians sent many colonies to places, which bore the same name as their country. The most famous of Asia Minor, of which Halicarnassus capital. This part of Asia Minor xapolis, and afterwards Pentapolis. entomology, a genus of insects, belonging to the order of vermes testacea. They are flat beneath; creeping: mouth at the vent behind, surrounded with feelers, retractile. There are several particularly D. argo, the lemon doris, shiny, convex, marked with numerous, of a lemon color; the vent beset with ramifications. It inhabits different seas, and is called about Brighton

mythology, the daughter of Oceanus and wife of Nereus and mother of the

is a market town of Surry, situated in the beautiful hills. The church is a beautiful square tower, near the eight bells, and a set of chimes. Convenient workhouse, here are some almshouses, on a pleasant heath. Dean. A great traffic is carried on lime; and this town is noted for poultry, which is singular from their legs in each claw. Capons bred weigh seven or eight pounds each, and are sold there. In the neighbourhood are hills, and in the suburbs are many villages. The custom of Borough-English is a manor, by which the youngest son inherits the copyhold estate. This practice may be derived from the ancient custom of the manor having a right to marry with every bride on her wedding day on Thursday. Eight miles south and twenty-three S. S. W. from

*Dor*, adj. } Fr. *dormant*, from  
n. s. } Lat. *dormio*, to sleep.  
n. s. } Sleeping; hence private;  
concealed. Dortour and  
dormitory, a place to  
hence a burial place. Dormitive,

saw I by revelation,  
fretz, at home in our dortour.

Chaucer. *Cont. Tales*.  
other dormant musters of soldiers  
parts of the realm, that were put in  
drawn together.

Bacon's *War with Spain*.

He led us to a gallery like a *dorture*, where he shewed us along the one side seventeen cells, very neat. Bacon.

Prayer is the only *dormitice* I take to bedward, and I need no other laudanum than this to make me sleep; after which I close mine eyes in security, content to take my leave of the sun, and sleep unto the resurrection. Sir T. Browne.

He a dragon! if he be, 'tis a very peaceful one: I can insure his anger is *dormant*; or, should he seem to rouse, 'tis well lashing him, and he will sleep like a top. Congreve's *Old Bachelor*.

With this radius he is said to strike and kill his prey, for which he lies, as it were, *dormant*, till it swims within his reach. Grew's *Museum*.

Query.—Whether churches are not *dormitories* of the living, as well as of the dead. Swift.

It would be prudent to reserve these privileges *dormant*, never to be produced but upon great occasions. Id.

The places where dead bodies are buried, are in Latin called *cemiteria*, and in English *dormitories*. Ayliffe's *Parergon*

Old *dormant* windows must confess  
Her beams; their glimmering spectacles,  
Struck with the splendor of her face,  
Do the office of a burning-glass. Cleveland.

Naked mourns the *dormitory* wall,  
And Jones and Boyle's united labours fall. Pope's *Dunciad*.

Rooms that have thorough lights are left for entertainment, and those that have windows on one side for *dormitories*. Mortimer.

Many vegetables during the night do not seem to respire, but to sleep like the *dormant* animals and insects in winter. Darwin.

DORMANT, in heraldry, is used for the posture of a lion, or any other beast, lying along in a sleeping attitude with the head on the fore paws; by which it is distinguished from the couchant, where though the beast is lying, yet he holds up his head; as gules, a lion dormant, name Aylesworth.

DOR'MOUSE, n. s. *Dormio* to sleep, and mouse. A small animal which passes a large part of the winter in sleep.

Come, we all sleep, and are mere *dormice* flies,  
A little less than dead: more dullness hangs  
On us than on the moon. Ben Jonson's *Catiline*.

After they have lain a little while, they grow as drowsy as *dormice*, unless they are roused. Collier on *Thought*.

DORN, n. s. From German, *dorn*, a thorn. The name of a fish; perhaps the same as the thornback.

The coast is stored both with shell-fish, as scallops and sheathfish; and flat, as turbot, *dorn*, and holybut. Carew.

DORNHAN, or DORNEM, a town of Wirtemberg, in the Black Forest, in Suabia, and containing about 1050 inhabitants. It was burned down by lightning in 1718, but was soon after rebuilt. In the neighbourhood are the ruins of three castles. It is forty miles south-west of Stuttgart.





**DORNIC**, *n. s.* Of *Deornick* in Flanders, where first made. A species of linen cloth used in Scotland for the table.

**DORNOCH**, the county town of Sutherland, in a parish of the same name, on the Frith of Dornoch. It has five fairs; was made a royal borough in 1628; has a provost, four bailies, dean of guild, and treasurer; and joins with Tain, Dingwall, Wick, Kirkwall, and Cromarty, in electing a representative in parliament.

**DOROBAT**, a town of Arabia, in the capital of a district in the country of Yemen, situated on the crest of a mountain. Here is a remarkable prison excavated from the rock, wherein malefactors are secured by chains of considerable length. It is twelve miles west of Taas.

**DOROGOBUSH**, a town of European Russia, in the government of Smolensko, on the Dnieper. It is a place of great trade, and was burnt by the French, in 1812, in their retreat from Moscow. Forty-six miles E. N. E. of Smolensko.

**DORONICUM**, leopard's bane: a genus of the polygamia superflua order, and syngenesia class of plants; natural order forty-ninth, compositæ. Receptacle naked, the pappus simple; scales of the calyx in a double row, longer than the disc. The seeds of the radius naked without any pappus. There are six species; of which the

**DORONICUM PARDALIANCHES**, with obtuse heart-shaped leaves, is worthy of notice. It grows naturally in Hungary, and on the Helvetian mountains; but is frequently preserved in the English gardens. It has thick fleshy roots, which divide into many knobs or knees, sending out strong fleshy fibres which penetrate deep into the ground; from these arise in the spring a cluster of heart-shaped leaves, which are hairy, and stand upon foot-stalks: between these arise the flower-stalks, which are channelled and hairy, nearly three feet high, putting out one or two smaller stalks from the side. Each stalk is terminated by one large yellow flower. The plant multiplies very fast by its spreading roots; and the seeds, if permitted to scatter, will produce plants wherever they happen to fall; so that it very soon becomes a weed in the places where it is once established. It loves a moist soil and shady situation. The roots were formerly used in medicine as alexipharmics and purifiers of the blood, but their operation was so violent that they are now entirely laid aside.

**DORPAT**, or **DORPR**, a town in Livonia, European Russia, in the government of Riga. It is situated on the small river Embach or Einbach, on the high road to St. Petersburg, and its annual fair is of great importance. A university has been established here since 1802, with a revenue of from £10,000 to £15,000 sterling. It has a library, museum, and botanic garden, liberally endowed. The environs are very agreeable. Dorpat is an ancient town. In 1704 it was taken and burned by the Russians, and in 1775 was consumed by accidental fire. Population 4500. Sixty-five miles south-west of Narva, 120 N. N. E. of Riga, and 132 south-west of St. Petersburg.

To **DORR**, *v. n.* Teut. *tor*, stupido. To deafen or stupify with noise. This word I find only in Skinner, says Dr. Johnson.

**DORR**, *n. s.* So named probably from the noise which he makes. A kind of flying insect, remarkable for flying with a loud noise.

Some insects fly with four wings, as all the raptacious, or sheath-winged, as beetles and doves.

*Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

The *dorr* or hedge-chaffer's chief marks are these: his head is small, like that of the common beetle; this, and his eyes black; his shoulder-piece, and the middle of his belly also black; but just under the wing-shells spotted with white. His wing-shells, legs, and the end of his tail, which is long and the point of a light chestnut; his breast, especially, covered with a downy hair.

*Gray's Nomenclature.*

**DORSEL**, *n. s.* } From *dorsum* the back.  
**DORSER**. } A pannier; a basket or

bag, one of which hangs on either side a beast of burden, for the reception of things of small bulk. It is corruptly spoken, and perhaps written, dosset.

**DORSET**, a township of Vermont, in Bennington county, bounded by those of Rupert on the west, Manchester on the south, and Dashi on the north.

**DORSETSHIRE**, a county of England, is bounded on the north by Wiltshire and Somersetshire, on the east by Hampshire, on the west by Devonshire and part of Somersetshire, and on the south by the British Channel. It is a maritime county, lying between 50° 30' and 50° 6' N. lat., and 1° 58' and 3° 18' W. long. Across the centre, from north to south, it measures about thirty-six miles; and from east to west about fifty miles. It is said to contain in all about 512,154 acres. The political divisions of the county consist of divisions, hundreds, boroughs, liberties, and tithings. There are nine divisions, thirty-four hundreds, twenty-four market towns, 248 parishes, and four sea-port towns. The county is in the diocese of Bristol, and is divided into five deaneries. It is included in the western circuit, and the assizes are now held at Dorchester. According to Ptolemy and other writers, Dorsetshire under the Romans was inhabited by the Durotriges or Morini; British words implying maritime people, or dwellers on the sea-shore. The Saxon invaders gave the name of Dor-setta to this county, a word compounded of British and Saxon, and signifying the same as the Roman appellations. When the island was divided into Roman provinces, this county became part of Britannia Prima; and, on the establishment of the Saxons, it was included in the kingdom of Wessex. The varied beauty of this county, the mildness of its climate, and the value of its natural productions, have given to it the appellation of 'The Garden of England.' This character, however, is disputed by Mr. Stevenson, in his excellent View of the Agriculture of the county, which, he remarks, can scarcely be deemed to be so mild in its temperature, or so early in its seasons, as its beauty would lead us to expect. The fact is evident that the climate of Dorsetshire has undergone a very material alteration; and the air may now, as the same author remarks, be considered dry and salubrious rather than mild and bland; and the seasons, except in spots very sheltered or possessed of a very warm soil, are not nearly as



ard as they are in other parts of England so far southward.

This county, in respect to soil, is naturally divided into three principal districts, viz. chalky, gravelly sand, and clay, or various soils on a clay basis. The chalky district commences at the borders of Somersetshire, near Crewkerne, and runs in a very narrow slip across the interior of the county, as far as the town of Eversholt, where it suddenly widens, and spreads considerably to the north of Dorset. It then again abruptly contracts between Piddleton, south, and Bingham's Melbury, north; but immediately once more extending itself, branches out more than half the width of the whole county, and extends into the county of Wilts and the borders of Hampshire.

This district contains about 160,759

The sand district, occupying about 177,000 acres, approaches the borders of the Bristol Channel; and, commencing a little east of Bournemouth, forms a crescent, the east horn of which terminates near Ringwood in the county of Hampshire. The clayey soils are found in the central parts, west, north, and south of the county, but particularly on the northern borders, in the western districts near Devonshire. This district contains altogether about 117,331

the rivers of this county we may notice the Frome, the Hooke or Owke, the Ivel, the Piddle, the Stour, the Char, the Eype, and the Wey. The three last are the rivers of Dorsetshire running upon Devonshire. The celebrated bathing-place which is formed by the combined waters of Melcombe Regis and Weymouth, as Dr. Keene observes, graces the exit of the Wey into the sea, remarkable for its grand semicircular bay, and its excellent as well as level sands. The advantages, and the preference often given to this place by the royal family, have raised it to high consideration; splendid rows of houses are formed, with a superb esplanade in front of them, towards the coast, for a great extent, so that they command the whole of the bay, backed by great chalky cliffs, and backed by Dorsetshire downs. The pier of Weymouth lies out beneath an opposite rock, crowned with its garrison, which defends the harbour from north and west winds, offering a convenient place for shipping, and possessing no small port trade. The village and high church of Melcombe Regis occupy the highest point of this district of hills on the west, immediately opposed to the vast protruding mass of Portland Island. The Frome and the Eype, which come in succession before the Wey, have no striking points; that Charmouth, at the exit of the former, is a great western road, is preferred by some as a bathing-place, to Lyme, which is far more healthfully situated in its neighbourhood. The river joined by the Brit from Bedminster, and the stream westward of it, falls into the sea at Bournemouth Harbour, a few miles below that place.

These rivers all descend from the Dorsetshire downs, and their course is nearly southward. The most considerable river is the Frome, rising in the west, in that vast tract of downs which is called the Frome downs; its two channels

uniting in a pleasant bourn at Maiden Newton, from whence it pursues a south-east course to Dorchester; fed afterwards by various streams from the hollows in the downs in the south, and, meeting the Piddle from the north as it turns more and more eastward to reach Wareham, it forms the great expanse of water constituting Poole Harbour. The country through which this river takes its course is but thinly inhabited, and bare of wood; but the range of downs that extend parallel with the latter part of its course, separating its vale from the coast, is formed by Nature in the boldest manner, containing many tumuli and ancient encampments, with the singular curiosity of one perfect Roman amphitheatre near Dorchester, within view of the old fortress of Maiden Castle. Dorchester may be called a pleasant town from the neatness of its streets, and, above all, from the avenues and planted walks by which it is environed and approached, after the manner of many French towns, which have an increased effect in the midst of so bare a country. Wild heaths succeed to the downs before the Frome reaches the sea; and Poole Harbour is a very extensive sheet of water, bounded towards the south-west by the Isle of Purbeck, in which the towers of Corfe Castle make a considerable figure. Poole is a flourishing port on its north shore. The Stour finds its source in six streams at Stourton in Wiltshire, three of which are in the park of Stourhead. Though perhaps somewhat less than the Frome, this is certainly by far the pleasantest of the Dorsetshire streams, forming in its passage the charming dell beneath the cliff of Brianstone. The vicinage of this river in particular, and indeed Dorsetshire in general, is noted for a profusion of fine seats, and a race of noblemen and country gentlemen who exercise the splendid and captivating hospitality of past ages, yet uncontaminated by the encroachment of manufactures. This beautiful river yields trout, eels, and tench; and the author now quoted, Mr. Hutchins, remarks that the sea on the Dorsetshire coast abounds with sturgeons, turbot, mackerel, plaice, soles, basse, whiting, congers, porpoises, lobsters, red and gray mullet, thornbacks, piper or gurnet, trill or scollop, shrimps, prawns, and oysters. The rivers furnish salmon, pike, carp, gudgeons, perch, &c. The Bay of Weymouth opens immediately below Portland; and that tract of Dorsetshire called the Isle of Purbeck stretches out on the opposite side to the south-east, terminating in the point called St. Alban's Head. The range of cliffs which bound this coast, as well as the shoals called The Race of Portland, are extremely dangerous to shipping, and wrecks are very frequent here in stormy seasons. The Cove of Lulworth presents an occasional refuge to small vessels, but its entrance is so narrow as to render it of little use. Immediately behind it, Lulworth Castle occupies a charming elevation, and exhibits a grand baronial pile, in the midst of some ornamented grounds, commanding the sea with good effect, through a gap in the rocks. In the centre of the Isle of Purbeck, Corfe Castle displays its ruined towers on a high eminence with great majesty; and this pleasant district is inhabited



by several respectable families, whose seats make a handsome appearance; the Grange being the most conspicuous. Turning round the point of Purbeck, towards the north, the Bay of Strudland fronts the east, within which is the great expanse of Poole Harbour, marked with several islands, and distinguished by the port of Poole. Mr. Hutchins remarks of the mineral waters, that 'they are chalybeate at Farringdon, Aylwood, and Corfe; sulphureous at Sherford, Morden, Nottingham, and Sherborne; salt at Chilcombe; and petrifying at Sherborne and Botherwood, near Winborne-Minster.' There are no canals in this county, though Mr. Stevenson says that a navigable one is intended to pass from Somersetshire by Chardstock and Dorchester to the sea, near Beer and Seaton, in the county of Devon. The principal produce of Dorsetshire are its fine sheep, its extensive mac-karel fishery, and the celebrated stone quarries in the peninsula or isle of Portland. There are no metallic mines nor coals of any value. The 'pebbly desert,' called the Chesil Bank, is, as Dr. Maton remarks, one of the most extraordinary ridges or shelves of pebbles in Europe, and perhaps the longest, except that of Memel in Polish Prussia. Its length is supposed to be about seventeen miles; its breadth in some places near a quarter of a mile.

Dorsetshire sends thirteen members to parliament: viz. three for the county, two for Dorchester, two for Poole, one for Lyme Regis, two for Weymouth and Melcombe Regis, one for Bridport, one for Shaftesbury, and one for Wareham.

This county has produced among other eminent persons, Anthony Ashley Cooper, Earl of Shaftesbury—Christopher Pitt, a very ingenious poet and divine, born at Blandford, in 1699, died 1748—the learned and celebrated Bishop Stillingfleet—Dr. Thomas Sydenham, one of the most learned and rational physicians of his time, who died 1689—Sir James Thornhill, nephew to the above, an eminent painter—The celebrated Archbishop Wake—The Rev. Samuel Wesley, father to the celebrated founders of Methodism—Thomas Creech, the poet—Matthew Prior, &c. &c.

The principal manufactory in this county is that of flax and hemp, near Bridport and Bournemouth. These produce twine, string, and cordage in general; also nets, sacking, bags, &c. There are also several woollen manufactories, as also for twisting and making up raw silk into skeins. Shirt-buttons are manufactured at Shaftesbury; and malting and brewing are carried on at Wareham, Dorchester, &c.

**DORSIFEROUS**, *adj.* ? *Lat. dorsum* and *DORSIPAROUS*. *s. fero, or pario.* Having the property of bearing or bringing forth on the back. It is used of plants that have the seeds on the back of their leaves, as fern; and may be properly used of the American frog, which brings forth young from her back.

**DORSTENIA**, *contrayerva*, a genus of the monogynia order and tetrandria class of plants; natural order fifty-third, scabridæ: receptacle common, monophyllous, and carnosous; the seeds lying singly in the carnosous substances. There are eleven species, all low herbaceous plants,

growing in the warm countries of America. The root is used in medicine. It is full of knots, an inch or two in length, about half an inch thick; externally of a reddish-brown color, and pale within; long, tough, slender fibres shoot out from all sides of it, which are generally loaded with small round knots. The root has a peculiar aromatic smell, and a somewhat pungent, warm, bitterish taste, with a light and sweetish kind of acrimony when chewed. The fibres have little taste or smell; the tubercular part, therefore, should only be chosen. *Contrayerva* is one of the mildest of alexipharmics, and is a useful diaphoretic. Its virtues are extracted both by water and rectified spirit, and do not arise by evaporation with either. The plants cannot be propagated in this country without the greatest difficulty.

**DORSUM**, the back, in anatomy, comprehends all the posterior parts of the body, from the neck to the buttocks. See **ANATOMY**.

**DORT**, or **DORDRECHT**, a city of the Netherlands, in the department of Delft, South Holland. It is seated in a small island, formed by the rivers Meuse, Merue, Rhine, and Linge. The Meuse, on which it stands, gives it a good harbour, and separates it from the islands of Ysselmonde and Ablas. It is divided from Beyerland by a canal. The harbour is very commodious for the merchandise which comes down the Rhine and the Meuse. Its strength consists in being surrounded with water, is well being old and decayed. Dort is well built with brick, and had formerly the exclusive right of coining money. The church of Notre Dame is a good building, the tower lofty, and furnished with musical chimes. There is another church, dedicated to St. Nicholas, built in 1568. It had likewise, before the revolution, several religious houses for monks and nuns; and the town house is a fine building. It is at present the staple town for wines, particularly Rhenish, exempt to exclusive privileges in this respect are abolished. It was detached from the main land in 1421, on the 17th November, by a flood occasioned by the breaking down of the dyke, which overwhelmed seventy villages, and about 100,000 persons. However, by time, and the industry of the inhabitants, a great part of the land is recovered. It has two principal canals, namely, the New and Old Haven, by which heavy-laden vessels may enter into the city. Over the Old Haven is a large bridge, well built with brick. Dort was almost reduced to ashes in 1457, being then consumed 2000 houses, with the hospital, and church of Notre Dame. The company of tradesmen, and some other communities, elect the magistrates, and name one part of the members of the city council. In former times, Dort was the residence of the count of Holland; and, on the foundation of the Dutch republic, it became the first in rank of the towns of Holland at the States-general.

This city is famous for the meeting of the clergy, called the synod of Dort, in which the Calvinists obtained a sentence against the Arminians, who were called Remonstrants. The dispute between the contending parties occasioned disorders, skirmishes, and murders, in



of the principal cities. Those ministers, would not subscribe to the decree of the , were banished, of whom there were above

An important object of commerce here, at at, is the timber brought in large floats the Rhine, and either exported to Eng- Spain, and Portugal, or prepared for dif- fuses in the saw-mills which skirt the town. are several excellent docks for ship-build- and a brisk trade is carried on in the yarn men, as well as in the salt manufacture. salmon-fisheries here established are also ctive.

the brothers, De Witt, were sons of the bur- zer of this place; and the celebrated Vos- mas once superintendent of the college here. mation about 20,000. Dort lies eleven miles east of Rotterdam, and thirty-seven west nsterdam.

WER, SYNOD OF, a national synod, summoned thorty of the states-general, the provincesolland, Utrecht, and Overysel excepted, eld at Dort in 1618. The most eminent w of the United Provinces, and deputies the churches of England, Scotland, Swit- d, Bremen, Hessa, and the Palatinate, bled on this occasion, in order to decide ntroversy between the Gomarists or Cal- , and Arminians; the latter were declared sters of the true religion. But the autho- this synod was far from being universally wedged either in Holland or in England. rovinces of Friesland, Zealand, Utrecht, erland, and Groningen, could not be per- d to adopt their decisions; and they were ed by king James I. and archbishop Laud, gland. The reformed churches in France, h at first disposed to give a favorable recep- o the decisions of this famous synod, in as of time espoused doctrines very different hose of the Gomarists; and the churches andenburgh and Bremen would not suffer doctos to be tied down to the opinions and of the Dutch divines. The liberty of pri- dgment, with respect to the doctrines of stination and grace, which the spirit that led among the divines of Dort seemed so adapted to discourage and suppress, ac- new vigor in consequence of the arbitrary dings of this assembly.

RTMUND, a rich, populous, and once al city of Germany, in the circle of West- and territory of Nassau-Dillenburg, to it was ceded in 1802; but it was ceded to in 1815. It is pretty large, but not well

Formerly it was one of the Hanse Towns. itory was also formerly a county, and had f its own; but since 1504 it has been ed entirely by the city. Here are four an churches, one Catholic, a Dominican Franciscan monastery, a nunnery, three ls, and a provincial academy. Population It is seated on the Emster, forty miles east of Cologne.

DORYPHORI; from *δορυ*, a spear, and *φειω*, ; an appellation given to the life-guard f the Roman emperors. They were held in estimation as frequently to have the and of armies conferred on them. It was

usual also for chief commanders to have their doryphori or life-guards to attend them.

DOSE, *v. n.* Fr. *dose*; Ital. Teut. Span. Port. and Lat. *dosis*, from Gr. *δοσις* à *διδωαι*, to give. A given quantity of medicine, or any other thing; hence any thing nauseous.

No sooner does he peep into  
The world, but he has done his doe;  
Married his punctual dose of wives,  
Is cuckolded, and breaks, or thrives. *Hudibras.*

The too vig'rous dose too fiercely wrought,  
And added fury to the strength it brought.

*Dryden's Virgil.*

If you can tell an ignoramus in power and place that he has a wit and understanding above all the world, I dare undertake that, as fulsome a dose as you give him, he shall readily take it down. *South.*

In a vehement pain of the head he prescribed the juice of the thapsia in warm water, without mending the dose. *Arbutnot.*

We pity or laugh at those fatuous extravagants, while yet ourselves have a considerable dose of what makes them so. *Gravelle.*

DOSITHEUS, the chief of a faction among the Samaritans, mentioned by Origen, Epiphanius, Jerome, and other Greek and Latin fathers. But the learned are not at all agreed as to the time wherein he lived. St. Jerome, in his Dialogue against the Luciferians, places him before our Saviour; in which he is followed by Drusius, who, in his answer to Serrarius, places him about the time of Sennacherib, king of Assyria. But Scaliger will have him posterior to our Saviour's time. And Origen intimates him to have been contemporary with the apostles; where he observes, that he endeavoured to persuade the Samaritans that he was the Messiah foretold by Moses. He had many followers; and his sect was still subsisting at Alexandria at the time of the patriarch Eulogius, as appears from a decree of that patriarch published by Phocius. In that decree, Eulogius accuses Dositheus of injuriously treating the ancient patriarchs and prophets, and attributing to himself the spirit of prophecy. He makes him contemporary with Simon Magus, and accuses him of corrupting the Pentateuch in divers places, and of composing several books directly contrary to the law of God. Archbishop Usher takes Dositheus to have been the author of all the changes made in the Samaritan Pentateuch, which he argues from the authority of Eulogius. But all we can justly gather from the testimony of Eulogius is, that Dositheus corrupted the Samaritan copies since used by that sect; but that corruption did not pass into all the copies of the Samaritan Pentateuch now in use among us, many of which vary but little from the Jewish Pentateuch. And in this sense, we are to understand that passage in a Samaritan chronicle, where it is said, that Dousis, i. e. Dositheus, altered several things in the law of Moses. The author of that chronicle, who was a Samaritan by religion, adds, that their high priest sent several Samaritans to seize Dousis and his corrupted copy of the Pentateuch. Epiphanius takes Dositheus to have been a Jew by birth, and to have abandoned the Jewish party for that of the Samaritans. He imagines him likewise



to have been the author of the sect of the Sadducees; which is inconsistent with his being later than our Saviour; and yet the Jesuit Serrarius makes Dositheus the master of Sadoc, from whom the Sadducees are derived. Tertulian observes, that Dositheus was the first who dared to reject the authority of the prophets, by denying their inspiration. But he charges that as a crime peculiar to this sectary, which in reality is common to the whole sect, who never allowed any but the five books of Moses to be divine.

**DOSSIL**, *n. s.* Corrupted from *dorsel*, something laid upon the part. A pledget; a nodule or lump of lint to be laid on a sore.

Her complaints put me upon dressing with such medicaments as basilicon, with præcipitate, upon a dossil. *Wiseman.*

**DOT**, *v. a., v. n. & n. s.* Derived by Skinner from *Ger. dotter*, the white of an egg; and interpreted by him a grume of pus. It has now no such signification, and seems rather corrupted from jot a point. A small point or spot made to mark any place in a writing. To mark with specks; to make dots or spots.

**DOTAL**, *adj.* Lat. *dotalis*. Relating to the portion of a woman; constituting her portion; comprised in her portion.

Shall I, of one poor dotal town possess,  
My people thin, my wretched country waste,  
An exiled prince, and on a shaking throne,  
Or risk my patron's subjects, or my own?

*Garth's Ovid.*

**NOTE**, *v. n.* } Goth. *dotla*; Fr. *dot-*  
**DO'TAGE**, *n. s.* } *ter*, or *radoter*; Belgic,  
**DO'TARD**, *n. s.* } *doten*; to be dozing. To  
**DO'TED**, *adj.* } have the mind impaired  
**DO'TER**, *n. s.* } by age or otherwise; to  
**DO'TINGLY**, *adv.* } have extreme or foolish  
fondness; often used with *on* or *upon*. Doted is stupid: dotage is a state of imbecility or decayedness of mind; excessive fondness. Dotard and doter, he who is thus imbecile.

A sword is upon the liars, and they shall dote; a sword is upon her mighty men, and they shall be dismayed. *Jer. i. 36.*

His senseless speech and doted ignorance  
The prince had marked well. *Spenser.*

**Dotard**, said he, let be thy deep advise,  
Seems that through many years thy wits thee fail,  
And that weak old hath left thee nothing wise,  
Else never should thy judgment be so frail.

*Faerie Queene.*

Unless the fear of death make me dote,  
I see my son. *Shakespeare. Comedy of Errors.*  
I have long loved her, and bestowed much on her,  
followed her with a doting observance. *Shakespeare.*

If in black my lady's brow be deckt,  
It mourns that painting and usurping air  
Should ravish doters with a false aspect;  
And therefore is she born to make black fair. *Id.*

O vanity,

How are thy painted beauties doted on,  
By light and empty idiots! *Ben Jonson.*

The soul in all hath one intelligence,  
Though too much moisture in an infant's brain,  
And too much driness in an old man's sense,  
Cannot the prints of outward things retain:  
Then doth the soul want work, and idle set;  
and 'tis we childishness and dotage call. *Davies.*

No, no; I know the world too well to dote  
*Bp. Hall. Letter from the*

What should a bald fellow do with a comb,  
doter with a pipe, or a blind man with a looking

Our doters upon red and white are incessantly  
plexed by the uncertainty both of the common  
their mistress's kindness, and of the lasting  
beauty.

All the beauties of the court besides  
Are mad in love, and dote upon your person.

Time has made you dote, and vainly tell  
Of arms imagined in your lonely cell:  
Go, be the temple and the gods your care;  
Permit to men the thought of peace and war. *Dryden's*

That he, to wedlock dotingly betrayed,  
Should hope in this lewd town to find a maid.

We dote upon this present world, and the enjoy-  
ment of it; and 'tis not without pain and fear, as  
tancy, that we are torn from them, as if we  
lay all within the compass of this life.

The sickly dotard wants a wife,  
To draw off his last dregs of life.

When an old woman begins to dote, and  
chargeable to a parish, she is turned into a  
fills the country with extravagant fancies.

*Addison's*

O death all eloquent! you only prove  
What dust we dote on, when 'tis man we love.

Some, for renown, or scraps of learning dote,  
And think they grow immortal as they quote.

In vain their gifts the bounteous seasons part  
The fruit autumnal and the vernal flower,  
With listless eyes the dotard views the stem,  
He views and wonders that they please no more. *Johnson. Vanity of Human*

A strict accountant of his beads,  
A subtle disputant on creeds;  
His dotage trifled well:  
Yet better had he neither known  
A bigot's shrine, nor despot's throne.

**DO'TTARD**, *n. s.* This word seems  
nify a tree kept low by cutting; or is a  
false spelling of dotard, and means a  
decayed.

For great trees, we see almost all overgrown  
church-yards, or near ancient buildings, and  
are pollards and dottards, and not trees at all  
height.

**DOTTEREL**, *n. s.* From dote. The  
of a bird that mimics gestures.

We see how ready apes and monkeys  
tate all motions of man; and in chattering  
we see how the foolish bird playeth the  
tures.

**DOUAY**, a city of France, in the  
ment of the North (of which it was  
time the capital), and ci-devant French.  
It has a fine arsenal, a foundry for cannon,  
military and artillery school. The fort  
on the river of that name, within can  
serves for a citadel. It has three fa-  
leges, incorporated of late into one;  
great squares in the centre of the city,  
principal church, are worthy of notice.



a university by Philip II. of Spain, in it a seminary for English Roman 1569. In 1667 it was taken from by Louis XIV. in person. The duke of Marlborough, took it it was retaken by the French in the suspension of arms between and France. During the late wars ene of several operations. It has a inication with the Deule, and con-inhabitants, many of whom are the manufactures of linen, cotton, ead. It is fifteen miles north-west and eighty-three N. N. E. of Paris.

*v. a. & v. n.*

TING, *adj.*

EALER, *n. s.*

IE, *v. a.*

OUNSTED, *adj.*

ANDED,

EADED,

OCKED,

INDED,

INDEDNESS, *n. s.*

LEA,

UABREL,

INING, *adj.*

ONGUED,

*adv.*

quantity; to turn back or about: ve, twice the number; very strong or artifice. Doubleness is the state ble; duplicity. The compounds in their meaning.

hat ben wel gouvernour is be thei had e onour, moost thei that traielein in ag.

*Wiclif. i. Tymo. 5.*

f be found, let him pay double.

*Exodus.*

ouble the curtain in the tabernacle.

*Id.*

led man is unstable in all his ways.

*James.*

must be grave, not double-tongued, ch wine, nor greedy of filthy lucre.

*1 Tim.*

like a maister or a pope:

corsted was his semicope,

I was as a belle out of the presse,

he lisped for his wantonnesse.

*Chaucer. Prol. to Cant. Tales.*

ned'cine who his grieft imparts,

es afflict concealing harts,

s who striveth to suppress.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

well to carry this as you may, the e benefit defends the deceit from re-

*Shakspeare.*

doth double voice and echo

rs of the feared. *Id. Henry IV.*

I' the presence

ay untruths, and be ever double

words and meaning.

*Id. Henry VIII.*

of good double, neighbour: drink

r man.

*Id. Henry VI.*

t be the worse for me; there's gold, ould be double-dealing, Sir I would it another. *Id. Twelfth Night.*

Sailing along the coast, he doubled the promontory of Carthage, yet famous for the ruins of that proud city. *Knolles.*

Great honours are great burthens; but on whom They are cast with envy, he doth bear two loads: His cares must still be double to his joys, In any dignity. *Ben Jonson's Catiline.*

It is a curiosity also to make flowers double, which is effected by often removing them into new earth; as, on the contrary part, double flowers, by neglecting, and not removing, prove single.

*Bacon's Natural History.*

Under the line the sun crosseth the line, and maketh two summers and two winters: but in the skirts of the torrid zone it doubleth and goeth back again, and so maketh one long summer. *Id.*

Here the double-founted stream

Jordan, true limit eastward.

*Milton.*

And if one power did not both see and hear, Our sights and sounds would always double be.

*Davies.*

Jarres concealed are half reconciled; which, if generally known, 'tis a double task, to stop the breach at home, and men's mouths abroad. *Fuller.*

Double-dealers may pass muster for awhile; but all parties wash their hands of them in the conclusion.

*L'Estrange.*

Our foe's too proud the weaker to assail,

Or doubles his dishonour if he fail. *Dryden.*

He saw proud Arcite and fierce Palemon

In mortal battle doubling blow on blow;

Like lightning flamed their falchions to and fro.

*Id.*

Now we have the Cape of Good Hope in sight, the trade-wind is our own, if we can but double it.

*Id.*

Who knows which way she points?

Doubling and turning like a hunted hare,

Find out the meaning of her mind who can. *Id.*

Throw Ægypt's by, and offer in the stead,

Offer—the crown on Berenice's head:

I am resolved to double till I win.

*Id. Tyrannic Love.*

Reverend, fat, old gouty friar,

With a paunch swoln so high, his double chin

Might rest upon it. *Id. Spanish Friar.*

But most their looks on the black monarch bend,

His rising muscles and his brawn commend;

His double-biting ax, and beamy spear,

Each asking a gigantic force to rear. *Id. Fables.*

For much she feared the Tyrians double-tongued,

And knew the town to Juno's care belonged.

*Id. Virgil.*

Yes, I'll to the royal bed,

Where first the mysteries of our love were acted,

And double-die it with imperial crimson.

*Id. and Lee.*

This power of repeating or doubling any idea we have of any distance, and adding it to the former, as often as we will, without being ever able to come to any stop or stint, is that which gives us the idea of immensity. *Locke.*

All things being double-handed, and having the appearances both of truth and falsehood, where our affections have engaged us, we attend only to the former. *Glauville's Sccepsis.*

In all the four great years of mortality above mentioned, I do not find that any week the plague increased to the double of the precedent week above five times. *Graunt's Mortality.*



He was

Among the rest that there did take delight  
To see the sports of *double-shining* day. *Sidney.*

'Tis observed in particular nations, that within the  
space of three hundred years, notwithstanding all  
casualties, the number of men *doubles*.

*Burnet's Theory.*

Haply at night he does with horror shun  
A widowed daughter, or a dying son :  
His neighbour's offspring he to-morrow sees,  
And *doubly* feels his want in their increase.

*Prior.*

He bought her sermons, psalms, and graces,  
And *doubled* down the useful places. *Id.*

He immediately *double-locked* his door, and sat down  
carefully to reading and comparing both his orders.

*Tattler.*

These men are too well acquainted with the chase,  
to be flung off by any false steps or *doubles*. *Addison.*

Our poets have joined together such qualities as  
are by nature most compatible; valour with anger,  
meekness with piety, and prudence with dissimula-  
tion: this last union was necessary for the goodness  
of Ulysses; for, without that, his dissimulation might  
have degenerated into wickedness and *double-dealing*.

*Broome's View of Epic Poetry.*

I am not so old in proportion to them as I formerly  
was, which I can prove by arithmetick; for then I  
was *double* their age, which now I am not. *Swift.*

So keen thy hunters, and thy scent so strong,  
Thy turns and *doublings* cannot save thee long. *Id.*  
The sum of forty thousand pounds is almost *double*  
to what is sufficient. *Id. Drap. Letters.*

*Double-plea* is that in which the defendant alleges  
for himself two several matters, in bar of the action  
whereof either is sufficient to effect his desire in de-  
barring the plaintiff. *Cowell.*

*Double-quarrel*, is a complaint made by any clerk  
or other to the archbishop of the province, against an  
inferiour ordinary, for delaying justice in some cause  
ecclesiastical. The effect is, that the archbishop di-  
rects his letters, under the authentical seal, to all  
clerks of his province, commanding them to admonish  
the said ordinary within nine days to do the justice  
required, or otherwise to cite him to appear before  
him or his official; and lastly to intimate to the said  
ordinary, that if he neither performs the thing en-  
joined, nor appears at the day assigned, he himself  
will proceed to perform the justice required. And this  
seems to be termed a *double-quarrel*, because it is most  
commonly made against both the judge, and him at  
whose petition justice is delayed. *Id.*

Man is frail,

Convulsions rack his nerves, and cares his breast;  
His flying life is chased by ravening pains,  
Through all his *doubles*, in the winding veins.

*Blackmore.*

Lilies are by plain direction  
Emblems of a *double* kind;  
Emblems of thy fair complexion  
Emblems of thy fairer mind. *Cotton.*

The *double* rich scarlet nonsuch is a large *double*-  
*headed* flower, of the richest scarlet colour. *Mortimer.*

Every man hath a weak side. Every wise man  
knows where it is, and will be sure to keep a *double*  
guard there. *Mason.*

Since hope but soothes to *double* my distress,  
And every moment leaves my little less.

*Johnson's London.*

Far and wide

Temple and tower went down, nor left a sign  
Chaos of ruins! who shall trace the void,  
O'er the dim fragments cast a lunar light,  
And say, 'here was, or is,' where all is desolate.

**DOUBLE EMPLOYMENT**, in music, is  
by M. Rameau to the two different man-  
ners in which the chord of the subdominant  
is regarded and treated, viz. as the first  
chord of the sixth superadded, or as the  
the great sixth, inverted from a fundamen-  
tal of the seventh. In reality, the chords  
are exactly the same notes, are figured in  
the same manner, are employed upon the  
same tone, in such a manner, that they  
cannot discern which of the two chords  
the author employs, but by the assistance of  
the context, which resolves it, and which  
is different in these different cases. To  
make this distinction, we must consider the dis-  
tinction of the two notes which form the  
chord of the sixth, and which, constituting be-  
tween the interval of a second, must one or  
the other constitute the dissonance of the chord  
this progress is determined by the motion  
of the bass. Of these two notes, then, if the  
lower be the dissonance, it will rise by one  
into the subsequent chord, the lower  
keep its place, and the higher note will  
descend into the subsequent chord, the lower  
it will descend into the subsequent chord, the  
higher will remain in its place, and then  
be that of the great sixth. See the two  
double employment in Rousseau's  
Dictionary.

**DOUBLE FICHE**, or **DOUBLE FICHT**, is  
the denomination of a cross, when the  
has two points; in contradistinction  
where the extremity is sharpened away  
point.

**DOUBLE OCTAVE**, in music, an interval  
composed of fifteen notes in diatonic pro-  
gression, and which, for that reason is called a  
'It is,' says Rousseau, 'an interval com-  
posed of two octaves, called by the Greeks *disap-*

**DOUB'LET**, *n. s.* from *double*. The  
garment of a man; the waistcoat; so  
from being *double* for warmth, or *double*  
makes the dress *double*.

What a pretty thing a man is, when he puts  
on his *doublet* and hose, and leaves off his wit!

His *doublet* was of sturdy buff,  
And though not sword, yet cudgel-proof.

Two; a pair.

Those *doublets* on the sides of his tail were  
strength to the muscles which move the tail.  
*Greene's Works.*

It is common enough to see a countryman  
in a *doublet* and breeches of his great grand-father's  
fashion. *Addison's Works.*

They do but mimic ancient wits at best,  
As apes our grandsires, in their *doublets* and hose.

**DOUBLET**, among lapidaries, implies  
a counterfeit stone composed of two pieces of



glass softened, together with between them; so that they make rance to the eye as if the whole crystal had been tinged with the impracticability of imparting body of crystals, while in their tural state, and the softness of enders ornaments made of it in wear to crystal, gave induc-rodution of coloring the surface ight in a proper form, in such a e surfaces of two pieces so colored her, the effect might appear the hole substance of the crystal had he crystals, and sometimes white s so treated, were called doublets; ere greatly in use, on account of the h respect to wear, such doublets e of crystal, over glass, and the e colors which could with cer- to counterfeit stones this way, lass could not be procured, or at out a much greater expense. not indeed the property which of bearing to be set transparent, required in drops of ear-rings ents; but when mounted in rings, a manner that the sides of the e joint is made cannot be in- ure, when formed of crystal, pre-colored glass; and the art of is therefore, in some degree, of tance with that of preparing glass g gems; and is therefore properly o it, as being entirely subservient ion.

game on dice within tables; the only fifteen, being placed thus. cinque, and quatre points, there m apiece; and upon the trey, e, only two. He that throws benefit of throwing first, and what ys down, and so does the other: rows, and has not, the other lays but on his own account; and thus the men are down, and then they t is down first, bears first; and win the game, if the other throws overtake them: which he is sure advances or bears as many as the viz eight for two fours.

3, among hunters, is applied to a said to double, when she keeps and winds about to deceive the

in the manege, a term used of a aid to double his reins, when he mes together to throw his rider. in the military art, is the putting iles of soldiers into one. Thus, d of command is, Double your nd, fourth, and sixth ranks march third, and fifth, so that the six ced to three, and the intervals be- as become double what they were

ron, in naval tactics, the act of part of a hostile fleet between two monading it on both sides. It is

usually performed by the van or rear of that fleet which is superior in number, taking the advantage of the wind, or other circumstances, and tacking or veering round the van or rear of the enemy, who will thereby be exposed to great danger, and can scarcely avoid being thrown into general confusion.

**DOUBLOON**, *n. s.* Fr. A Spanish coin containing the value of two pistoles.

**DOUBS**, a department of France, bounded on the north by those of the Upper Saone and Upper Rhine; on the south-west by the department of Jura, and on the north-west by that of Upper Saone. It comprehends part of the ci-devant province of Franche Comté. Besançon is the capital.

**DOUBT**, *v. a., v. n. & n. s.*

**DOUBTER**, *n. s.*

**DOUBTFUL**, *adj.*

**DOUBTFULLY**, *adv.*

**DOUBTFULNESS**, *n. s.*

**DOUBTING**, *n. s.*

**DOUBTINGLY**, *adv.*

**DOUBTLESS**, *adj. & adv.*

Fr. *douter*; from Lat. *dubito*, i. e. *duo* and *eo*, *ito*, to go. To hold questionable or in danger; to fear; suspect; distrust; fill with distrust and fear. As a neuter verb, to question: be in uncertainty; hesitate; waver; suspect; sometimes taking *of*. As a substantive it means, uncertainty; difficulty of determination; suspension of mind, as well as the causes of it; and the effects, danger and fear. Doubtless is, without doubt. The examples will make the other derivatives plain.

But axe he in faith, and *doute* nothing, for he tha *doutith* is lyk to a walve of the see which is moued and borun aboute of wynd. *Wiclif. James i.*

I desire to be present with you now, and to change my voice; for I stand in *doubt* of you. *Gal. iv. 20.*

Knowing how *doubtfully* all allegories may be construed, and this book of mine being a continual allegory, I have thought good to discover the general intention. *Spenser.*

Even in matters divine, concerning some things, we may lawfully *doubt* and suspend our judgment, inclining neither to one side or other; as, namely, touching the time of the fall both of man and angels. *Hooker.*

Christ promiseth his Spirit shall be in him to whom he giveth it a spring of water running unto eternal life; also that he witnesseth them which believe in him already to be passed all *doubt* and death, and to be presently in eternal life.

*MS. Notes of Bradford the Martyr*

Friendship is a thing so rare, as it is *doubted* whether it be a thing indeed or but a word.

*Sir P. Sidney.*

The virtues of the valiant Caratach,  
More *doubt* me than all Britain.

*Beaumont and Fletcher.*

Our doubts are traitors,  
And make us lose, by fearing to attempt  
The good we oft might win. *Shakspeare.*

Methinks I should know you, and know this man;  
Yet I am *doubtful*. *Id. King Lear.*

*Doubting* things go ill, often hurts more  
Than to be sure they do. *Id. Cymbeline.*

He did ordain the interdicts and prohibitions which we have to make entrance of strangers, which at that time was frequent, *doubting* novelties and commixtures of manners. *Raon.*



In handling the right of a war, I am not willing to intermix matter *doubtful* with that which is out of *doubt*; for, as in capital causes, wherein but one man's life is in question, the evidence ought to be clear; so much more in a judgment upon a war, which is capital to thousands. *Id.*

Whatsoever a man imagineth *doubtfully*, or with fear, must needs do hurt, if imagination have any power at all; for a man representeth that oftener that he feareth, than the contrary. *Id. Natural History.*

Solyman said he had hitherto made war against divers nations, and always had the victory, whereof he *doubted* not now also.

*Knolles's History of the Turks.*

What fear we then, why *doubt* we to incense His utmost ire? *Milton.*

He from the terror of this arm so late *Doubted* his empire. *Id. Paradise Lost.*  
Thus they their *doubtful* consultations ended. *Milton.*

We have sustained one day in *doubtful* fight,  
What heaven's high Lord had powerfullest. *Id.*  
I *doubt* not to make it appear, to be a monstrous folly to deride holy things. *Tillotson.*

All their desires, deserts, or expectations, the Conqueror had no other means to satisfy, but by the estates of such as had appeared open enemies to him, and *doubtless* many innocent persons suffered in this kind. *Hale's Common Law.*

Nor did the goddess *doubtfully* declare  
Her altered mind, and alienated care. *Dryden.*

At first the tender blades of grass appear,  
And buds, that yet the blast of Eurus fear,  
Stand at the door of life and *doubt* to clothe the year. *Id.*

Those who have examined it, are thereby got past *doubt* in all the doctrines they profess. *Locke.*

In arguing, the opponent uses as comprehensive and equivocal terms as he can, to involve his adversary in the *doubtfulness* of his expressions; and therefore the answerer, on his side, makes it his play to distinguish as much as he can. *Id.*

Let no man, while he lives here in the world, *doubt* whether there is any hell or no, and thereupon live so, as if absolutely there were none. *South.*

In *doubtful* cases, reason still determines for the safer side; especially if the case be not only *doubtful*, but also highly concerning, and the venture be a soul and an eternity. *Id.*

*Doubtless* many men are finally lost, who yet have no men's sins to answer for but their own. *Id.*

Can we conclude upon Luther's instability, because in a single notion, no way fundamental, an enemy writes that he had some *doubtings*? *Atterbury.*

The king did all his courage bend  
Against those four which now before him were,  
*Doubting* not who behind him doth attend. *Daniel.*

This is enough for a project, without any name; I *doubt* more than will be reduced into practice. *Swift.*

Most of his philosophy is in broken sentences, delivered with much *doubtfulness*. *Baker on Learning.*

To teach vain wits a science little known,  
To admire superior sense, and *doubt* their own. *Pope.*

*Doubtless*, oh guest! great laud and praise were mine,  
If after social rites and gifts bestowed,  
I stained my hospitable hearth with blood. *Id. Odyssey.*

Though *doubtfulness* or uncertainty seems to be a medium between certain truth and certain falsehood

in our minds, yet there is no such medium in *things* themselves. *Wat.*

Hippocrates commends the flesh of the wild as above the tame; and no *doubt* but the animal is more or less healthy, according to the air it lives in. *Arbuthnot on Animals.*

Should reason guide thee with her brightest ray,  
And pour on misty *doubt* resistless day;  
Yet hope not life from grief or danger free,  
Nor think the doom of man reversed for thee. *Johnson. Vanity of Human Wishes.*

If I were to form a judgment from experience rather than theory, I should *doubt* much whether the capacity for, or even the possession of, a seat in parliament, did really convey much of power to be properly called political. *Id.*

But dreadful is their doom, when *doubt* has time  
To censure Fate and pious Hope forego:  
Like yonder blasted boughs by lightning riven,  
Perfection, beauty, life, they never know;  
But frown on all that pass, a monument of woe. *Id.*

Here Cocks heroic burn with rival rage,  
And Quails with Quails in *doubtful* fight engage;  
Of armed heels and bristling plumage proud,  
They sound the insulting clarion shrill and loud. *Id.*

Well was taught my brow that pride seems  
Which looks no triumph where no *doubt* had been;  
That easy scorn, all tranquil as before,  
Which speaks no insult, and insults the more;  
And with calm air, the surest to torment,  
Steals angry Spite's last torment, to resent. *Dr. T. Moore.*

DOUBTING, the act of withholding our assent from any proposition on suspicion that we are not able peremptorily to decide between its reasons for and against it. *Doubting* is distinguished by the schoolmen into two kinds, *dubitatio sterilis*, and *dubitatio efficax*. The former is that where no determination ensues; as the manner the Sceptics and Academics *doubt*, who withhold their assent from every thing. See SCEPTICS, &c. The latter is followed by judgment, which distinguishes truth from falsehood; such is the doubting of the Peripatetics and Cartesianes. The last in particular perpetually reculcate the deceitfulness of our senses, and tell us that we are to doubt of every one of their reports, till they have been examined and confirmed by reason. On the other hand the Epicureans teach, that our senses always tell truth; and that if we go ever so little from them we are within the province of doubting.

DOUBTING, in rhetoric, a figure wherein the orator appears some time fluctuating, and undetermined what to do or say. Tacitus furnishes us with an instance of doubting, almost to a degree of distraction, in those words of Tiberius written to the senate: *Quid scribam, P. S. ut quomodo scribam, aut quid omnino non scribam hoc tempore, dii me deique pejus perdat quam perire quotidie sentio, si scio.*

DOUCET, *n. s.* Fr. *doucet*. A count. This word I find only in Skinner and Anstey, says Dr. Johnson. The *Archæolog.* vol. ii. mentions it frequently as a part of the dress of Charles I. when duke of York.

DOUCINE, in architecture, a moulding concave above and convex below, serving commonly



to a delicate corniche. It is like-  
ala.

R. n. s. *Colymbus*; from *To douch*,  
a *To duck*. A bird that dips in the

, or *douchers*, or loons, are admirably  
diving, being covered with thick  
their feathers so slippery that water  
them.

Roy.

Goth. *dufa*; Sax. *dun*,  
Swed. *dufwa*; Arm. *dube*:  
perhaps from Heb. דב, to  
adj. murmur (Parkhurst), or  
ed. adj. from Gr. *devo*, to purify;  
*columba*, a dove, is formed from  
iver. A bird of the *COLUMNA* ge-  
ne: a doveote and dovehouse both  
ation for doves.

Jesus was baptisid, anon he wente  
tir, and lo hevenes weren opened to  
w the Spirit of God comynge downe as  
nyng on him. *Wiclif. Matt. iii.*  
nowy *dove* trooping with crows,  
o'er her fellows shows.

*Shakespeare. Romeo and Juliet.*  
an eagle in a *dovecot*, I  
d your *Volscians* in *Corioli*;  
did it. *Id. Coriolanus.*  
hou't blinder than thyself in this,  
-like friend for my amiss,  
sad truth may expiate  
make her fortune run my fate.

*Donne.*

e the weekly almanacks, shewing what  
e state, which, like the *doves* of Aleppo,  
very part of the kingdom.

*T. Ford. 1647.*

nt forth, a fowl both swift and simple.  
citizen of the ark, returns.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

Thou from the first  
, and with mighty wings outspread,  
t'at brooding on the vast abyss,  
it pregnant.

*Milton.*

ts up for protector, and makes havock  
n. *L'Estrange.*  
a is made up wholly of the *dove*, with-  
rain of the serpent in his composition,  
eulous in many circumstances of life,  
discredits his best actions. *Addison.*  
in administration so chequered and  
t together a piece of joinery so crossly  
whimsically *dove-tailed*; a cabinet 'so  
t; such a piece of diversified mosaic;  
ed pavement without cement, &c.

*Burke. Character of Lord Chatham.*

geography, a river of England, in  
hich rises in the Peak, divides that  
taffordshire, and falls into the Trent,  
th of Burton.

L.E., one of the most romantic spots  
, where the Dove runs in a chasm  
pitous rocks. It is situated near

cinque-port, sea-port, and market  
is a place of considerable historical  
ical interest. Camden and others

derive its name from the British  
na, which signifies a steep place:  
led it Dorfa, and Antoninus, in his  
bris. It is probable that the Roman  
n the south side of the Dour, and  
VII.

that the Watling Street entered it near the old  
Biggen-gate.

That the ancient Britons possessed it as a  
military post, anterior to the Roman conquest, is  
also extremely probable: and that the Romans  
fortified and adapted it to their system of tactics  
is universally admitted. The old tradition, quoted  
and confirmed by Mr. King in his *Monimenta*  
*Antiqua*, vol. ii., is, that 'Arviragus, the British  
chief, here fortified himself, when he refused to  
pay the tribute imposed by Julius Cæsar; and  
that here, afterwards, king Arthur also held his  
residence.' Darrell, in his *History of Dover*  
Castle, has given currency to another tradition,  
which assigns the foundation of this fortress to  
Cæsar: and Lambard quotes Lidgate and Rosse,  
as saying, that 'they of the castle kept till this  
day certeine vessels of olde wine and salte, which  
they affirme to be the remayne of suche provision  
as he (Cæsar) brought into it.' Cæsar's own nar-  
rative, however, would lead us to no such con-  
clusion. He speaks of being repulsed by the  
inhabitants of this part of Kent; and most proba-  
bly landed, in his first expedition, at Deal.  
The Roman writers, indeed, do not affect to speak  
of him as having made any conquest here, but  
merely as having led the way into Britain:

*Territa quæsitis ostendit terga Britannis.*

The fortifications, and all the works we can  
now trace of the Romans, upon the hill, near  
Dover, are bounded by the deep ditch, and it  
will be a vain attempt to search after any mili-  
tary works of that people in the castle beyond it.  
The form of the camp, the ditch, the parapet,  
and the octagon building, all point out the hand  
of the Roman engineer and architect. It was  
common for them, where the ground would ad-  
mit of it, to make their camp in the form of a  
parallelogram, with the angles rounded off, and  
to secure it with a deep ditch and a high parapet:  
and this appears to have been the original plan  
of the Roman camp on this hill, before it was  
altered, either by the Saxons or the Normans.  
The former, at an early period, became masters  
of Dover; and, soon after their conversion to  
Christianity, the ancient church within the walls  
of the castle is said to have been consecrated by  
St. Augustine, at the request of king Ethelbert,  
whose son and successor, Eadbald, founded a  
college near it for secular canons. In the reign  
of Edward the Confessor, if not before, the great  
earl Goodwin was governor of the castle, and is  
said to have strengthened it by new fortifications.  
It is well known that William the Norman, when  
he was contriving the conquest of England, re-  
fused to permit earl Harold to depart from Rouen,  
until he had bound him by a solemn oath to de-  
liver up, after Edward's death, 'the castle of  
Dover, with the well of water in it.'

Domesday Book informs us that, 'in the time  
of king Edward, Dover paid £18, of which sum  
Edward had two parts, and the earl Goodwin the  
third part of one moiety, and the canons of St.  
Martin the other. The burgesses have furnished  
the king with twenty ships once in each year for  
fifteen days, and in each ship were twenty-one  
men; this they had done because he had freed  
them from sac and soc. Whoever constantly  
resided in the town, and paid custom to the



king, was quit of toll throughout England. All these customs were in use there when king William came into England. For several succeeding centuries, Dover Castle was regarded as the 'key, and barrier of the whole kingdom; and, in every civil broil, the possession of this fortress was eagerly sought. Henry II., on his arrival from Normandy, rebuilt the keep, and fortified the castle, on the Norman plan, so that its strength was materially increased. Louis, the dauphin, besieged it when he landed to assist the barons, in the reign of king John; but was repulsed with great loss, by Hubert de Burgh, then governor.

In the civil wars of the seventeenth century, it was seized for the parliament, by a merchant named Drake, who, on the night of August 1st, 1642, took it by surprise, with the aid of ten or twelve men only. He contrived, by the means of ropes and scaling ladders, to lead his party to the top of the cliff on the sea-side, which, being considered as inaccessible, was left unguarded. After these commotions had subsided, this ancient pile was, for upwards of a century, left to moulder into ruins; though, in 1745, barracks had been built here sufficiently large to contain a regiment of soldiers. The wars of the French revolution, however, and the many threats of invasion then thrown out, occasioned a great alteration in the defences of this coast; and Dover Castle has been put in modern times into a respectable state of defence.

It at present consists of an immense mass of almost every kind of fortification; and is divided into two courts, a lower and an upper, defended into by deep, broad, and dry ditches, from which communications with the inner towers have been made by subterraneous passages. The buildings occupy nearly the whole summit of the eminence which bounds the south-east side of the deep valley in which Dover stands; the lower court is surrounded by an irregular wall, excepting on the side next the sea, where a considerable part of the cliff, with the remainder of the wall, was thrown down by an earthquake on the 6th of April, 1680. This wall is called the curtain, and is flanked, at unequal distances, by a variety of towers of different shapes, semi-circular, square, polygonal, &c., the workmanship of different ages. The oldest of them, which is on the eastern side of the castle, bears the name of earl Goodwin. Nine of the other towers are stated to have been built in Norman times, and to have derived their names from Sir John de Fiennes, and the eight approved warriors whom he had selected to assist in the defence of this fortress. These towers, according to their relative situation on the wall, beginning from the cliff on the western side, are: 1. The Old, or Canons' tower, which anciently had a drawbridge and battery. 2. A pentagonal tower, originally named after its first commander Albrancis, but afterwards Rokesly tower, from one of its captains. 3. Chilham, or Calderscot tower, built by Fulbert de Lucy, lord of the manor and castle of Chilham. 4. Hurst. 5. Arsic, or Sayes. 6. Gatton tower. These three were named after adjacent manors appropriated to their repairs. 7. Peveril, Beauchamp, or Marshal's tower, so

successively called after William de Peveril and Hugh de Beauchamp, ancient commanders, and the marshalmen who had the superintendence of military stores, &c. 8. Port, or Port's tower, which took its name from William de Port, and was also called Gasting's, from one of its captains; but now bears the name of Mary's tower, from queen Mary, by whom it was re-built. 9. Fiennes tower, as it was originally named, after Sir John Fiennes, now more generally called New-gate, to distinguish it from the ancient entrance; and Constable's tower, from its having been the occasional residence of the constable or governor of the castle. 10. Clopton's tower, built by Edward IV., and deriving its name from the lord of a manor assigned for its repair. 11. Goodwin tower, so called from an ancient commander. 12. Crevequer's, Craville's, or the earl of Norfolk's tower, a work of great magnificence, which has a subterraneous passage leading to a vaulted vast extent, and strongly defended. 13. Fitz-William's, or St. John's tower, which derived its former name from Adam Fitz-William, to whom, for his valor at the battle of Hastings, the conqueror gave the scarf from his own arm, and a latter name from lord St. John, who held the lands allotted to it. 14. Averanche's, or Mansel's tower, a fine remain of Norman workmanship, so named from Averanche, an ancient commander of this castle, and his successor Mansel, who was lord warden of the cinque-ports in the reign of Henry III. 15. Veville, or Pinner tower, so called from two of its commanders, the latter of whom assisted Hubert De Burgh in the defence of the castle against the Dauphin. 16. Earl Goodwin's tower, built by that nobleman when governor of the castle. The upper court, like the lower one, is surrounded by a strong wall and various towers; and near the centre stands a spacious keep, erected in the beginning of Henry III.'s reign. This building is in fine preservation, and is constructed on a similar plan to that built by bishop Gundulph, and particularly to that at Rochester. It is now used as a magazine, the roof having been rendered bomb-proof. On the eastern side of this court are three towers, which derive their names from Gilbert de Maunot, or Mainmouth, who was one of the knights that accompanied the conqueror to England, and was appointed marshal of this castle by John de Fiennes: these towers command the whole valley and ascent leading to the principal entrance to this court; near the south angle of which is another entrance, by a gate called Palace, or Subterranean Gate.

The new works recently formed for the defence of this fortress consist of different batteries, furnished with a very formidable train of artillery, casemates dug in the solid chalk-rock, covered-ways, and various subterraneous communications and apartments for soldiery: the latter are sufficiently spacious for the accommodation of about 2000 men, and, with their inhabitants, form a very curious spectacle: light and air are conveyed into them by well-like apertures cut in the chalk, and by other openings in the face of the cliffs. A new road has also been made under the direction of the Board of Ordnance, from the town to the top of the hill, where it



Deal road, in a direction to be commanded by the batteries. A branch from this runs to the right nearly opposite Gatton and enters the castle by a new bridge and near the edge of the cliff stands a piece of ordnance, twenty-four feet long, cast at in 1544, and called Queen Elizabeth's Pistol.

The Castle occupies altogether about thirty acres of ground: the hill on which it stands steep and rugged on the side of the town towards the sea it is a complete precipice of upwards of 320 feet from its base to the shore. But it is commanded by eminences both to the north-west by West Hill and to the west. Like other royal castles, it was by both extra-parochial and extra-judicial; several of the ancient franchises are either disused, the civil power has of late years exercised within its limits, independently of control from the warden. At the renewal of the town, in 1803, the heights on the western side were strongly fortified, agreeably to the new system, and a new military road led to them made. Other fortifications here are the Fort, at the extremity of the pier, and the Battery, at the north Pier-head: these, in conjunction with the heights and castle, command the road to the town.

The harbour of Dover was evidently at one time considerably more inland, particularly towards the north-east. At what period the ancient haven became useless is not known, but it flourished in Edward the Conqueror's time. A round tower was built on the west side of the present harbour, A.D. 1013, to protect the shipping from the violence of the south-west winds: to this tower it is said the vessels were moored by rings; and the haven called Little Paradise. In 1533 Sir John Mason, then holding the living, first proposed a pier at Dover, which was begun at Archway on the south-west side of the bay, and ran out directly eastward into the sea, to an extent of 131 rods. The bottom was laid with stones, of twenty tons weight, brought from the sea by water. The king himself came several times to Dover to view the works, and is by Harris to have expended about £80,000 on the pier. Attempts were made in the two reigns to forward the work, but no advance was made till the time of Elizabeth, to whom Sir Walter Raleigh presented a memorial, stating that 'no promontory, town, or haven, in Christendom, is so placed by nature as this town of Dover.' An immense quantity of beach thrown up by the sea, had totally impeded the passage. The queen was now granted the town the free exportation of 30,000 quarters of wheat, 10,000 quarters of rye, and 4000 tons of beer, in aid of the duty; and for the same purpose a duty of 3d. in the pound was laid on every vessel passing this port above twenty tons burden: this duty produced about £1000 annually in 24 and 25 Eliz. The same pairs have been since provided for by several acts of parliament. Agreeably to

the idea of captain Perry, in his report after a survey in 1718, several jetties have been erected towards the east, to prevent the encroachments of the sea. In 1737 the mole or cross wall was faced with Portland stone, and several flood-gates or sluices were constructed in it. When the tide had receded from the mouth of the outer harbour the immense back-water, confined by these sluices, was conveyed through them, to dislodge the beach that accumulates at its entrance. During a violent storm, in 1802, several rods of the north-pier head were beaten down by the fury of the waves. This was immediately rebuilt, in a most substantial manner, under the inspection of Mr. James Moon, the present harbour-master. A dry dock, and several other extensive and important works, have also been completed under the direction of this able and ingenious gentleman. The back-water, which formerly lost its force in passing through the outer harbour, is now carried round it, in cast-iron culverts or tunnels, seven feet in diameter, to the extremity of the south-pier head, where it branches off in several directions, and effectually removes the beach from the entrance of the harbour, during the spring tides. These works were accomplished by Mr. Moon in 1822. The depth at spring tides is now between eighteen and twenty feet, and at neap tides about fourteen; so that ships of 400 or 500 tons may enter in safety.

The town of Dover was formerly defended by a strong embattled wall, which included a space of about half a mile square, and in which were ten gates; though not a trace of the wall or gates now remains, except of the foundation in some places. From the hills above, the town has an interesting appearance. It extends in contrary directions, to the east, south-west, and north, three long streets meeting at one point in the centre. There were formerly six parishes, each of which had its distinct church; four of these edifices have long been destroyed, with the exception of some parts of those of St. Nicholas and St. Martin-le-Grand; and the town is now divided into the two parishes of St. Mary the Virgin, and St. James the Apostle. Great part of the priory buildings still remains: a Maison Dieu, or hospital, on the left of the entrance to the town, was endowed by Hubert de Burgh, the great justiciary of England, about the beginning of the reign of Henry III.; after the dissolution, this was converted by queen Mary into an office for victualling the navy, to which use it was appropriated up to the close of the late war. In times of war, all ships in the downs, belonging to the royal navy, are supplied hence by vessels engaged for that purpose.

St. Mary's, the principal church of modern times, is a spacious and curious edifice, in length about 120 feet, in breadth fifty-five, consisting of a nave and aisles, with a tower at the west end. It is said to have been built by the priory and convent of St. Martin, in the year 1216. The west front is of Norman architecture, as are also the first three arches and their supporting columns on each side of the nave. Two years after the dissolution, this church, which had previously belonged to the Maison Dieu, was given to the parishioners by Henry VIII., who was then at



Dover; and every house-keeper, paying scot and lot, has now a right to vote in the election of a minister. The other church, St. James's, is an irregular structure, and its interior, which is kept particularly neat and clean, displays its origin to have been Norman: it has a square tower, built in arches, directly over the centre of the north aisle, and the pulpit is placed under it.

This town is governed by a mayor, twelve jurats, and thirty-six common-council-men; from the latter of whom a town-clerk and chamberlain are annually chosen. The mayor was formerly elected by the resident freemen, in St. Mary's church, on the 8th of September, the nativity of the Virgin. The two members of parliament were also chosen in St. Mary's church by the whole body of freemen, resident and non-resident, in number about 2300. But in 1826 these elections were removed by act of parliament to the town hall, or to hustings erected in the market place. Freedom is acquired by birth, servitude, marriage, and burgage tenure: the franchise obtained by marriage ceases at the death of the wife, and that by tenure at the alienation of the freehold.

Both in times of peace and war the trade of Dover is extensive; this being the principal place of embarkation for the continent. From thirty to forty vessels, exclusive of packets, are employed in the passage to the opposite shores: some are from sixty to seventy tons burden each; and have been considered as the handsomest sloops in the kingdom. They have frequently reached Calais, with a favorable wind, in three hours: the shortest passage ever known was two hours and forty minutes. Several steam vessels are now also employed in the passage to the continent, which, as well as his majesty's steam packets stationed here, well sustain the honor of the ports for elegant accommodations. In the year 1778 an act was obtained for the better paving, cleansing, lighting, and watching the town; and, in 1822, an act was passed to light it with gas, which has been very completely carried into effect: so that Dover may now be said to be, on the whole, well paved and lighted.

Dover is distant seventy-two miles from London, sixteen from Canterbury, twenty-two from Margate, and eighty-eight from Brighton. It has two weekly markets, viz. on Wednesday and Saturday; the latter being the principal. There is an annual fair, which begins on the 22d day of November, and continues three market days. The number of persons of all ranks passing through the town, is generally very great. Including the garrison of Dover Castle, and the heights, together with those districts of other parishes which form a part of the town, the population may, with much probability, be fixed at from 16,000 to 18,000. It has of late become a favorite watering place. Numerous lodging houses have been erected, and fitted up in an elegant style, for the accommodation of visitors, and many others are in progress. During the bathing season, musical promenades are established at Batcheller's King's Arms Library and Assembly Rooms, and at Warren's Marine Library. The former is an extensive and elegant structure, and was finished in 1826. No place can boast of local attractions more numerous (and

which want of space alone compels us thus to pass over), or prospects more interesting. Shakespeare's beautiful description of the cliff that bears his name, on the south-west of the harbour, is well known.

DOVER, a considerable township of the United States, in Stafford county, New Hampshire; incorporated in 1633. It is situated on the south side of Cochecho River, about four miles above its junction with Salmon Fall River, which together form the Piscataqua. Ten miles south by east of Rochester.

DOVER, a large township of New Jersey, in Monmouth county, between Shrewsbury and New Stafford, extending from the sea to the county line.

DOVER, a township of Massachusetts, in Norfolk county, incorporated in 1650. It lies sixteen miles southward of Boston.

DOVER, the metropolis of Delaware state, in Kent county, on the south-west side of Jones Creek, about four miles and a half north-west from its mouth, in the Delaware; twelve mile from Duck Creek; forty-eight from Wilmington; and seventy-six S. S. W. of Philadelphia. The town has a lively appearance, and drives on a considerable trade with Philadelphia, chiefly in flour.

DOVER, a small town in York county, Pennsylvania, seated on the Fox Run.

DOVER, STRAITS OF, the narrow channel between Dover and Calais, which separates Great Britain from the French coast. Britain is supposed by many to have been once peninsula, the present straits occupying the site of the isthmus which joined it to Gaul. 'No certain cause,' says Mr. Pennant, in his *Arct. Zool. Vol. i. Introd. p. ii.*, 'can be given for the mighty convulsion which tore us from this continent; whether it was rent by an earthquake, or whether it was worn through by the continual dashing of the waters. The correspondence of strata,' he adds, 'on part of the opposite shores of Britain and France, leaves no room to doubt but that they were once united. The chalky cliffs of Blanc Nez between Calais and Bologne, and those to the westward of Dover, exactly tally: the latter are vast and continued; the former short, and the termination of the immense bed. Between Bologne and Folkstone (about six miles from the latter) is another memorial of the junction of the two countries; a narrow submarine hill, called the Rip-raps, about a quarter of a mile broad, and ten miles long, extending eastwards towards the Goodwin Sands. Its materials are boulder-stones, adventitious to many strata. The depth of water on it, in very low spring tides, is only fourteen feet. The fishermen from Folkstone have often touched it with a fifteen feet oar; so that it is justly the dread of navigators. Many a tall ship has perished on it, and sunk instantly into twenty-one fathoms of water. In July, 1787, the Belleisle of sixty-four guns struck, and lay on it during three hours; but, by starting her beam and water, got clear off.' These celebrated straits are only twenty-one miles wide in the narrowest part from the pier at Dover to that of Calais twenty-four. It is said that their breadth is diminishing, and that they are two miles narrower than



in ancient times. An accurate ob-  
servation, fifty years remarks, that the increased  
water, from a decrease of breadth, has  
ent even in that space. The depth  
is at a medium, in the highest spring  
about twenty-five fathoms; the bottom  
is sand or rugged scars, which have  
known resisted the attrition of the  
From the straits both east and west is  
a crease of depth through the channel  
islands, till soundings are totally lost.  
The tides in the straits rise on an average  
of five feet, the neap tides fifteen. The tide  
from the German Sea, passes the straits, and  
is a great rippling, the western tide  
is easterly, between Fairleigh near Hastings  
is a proof that, if the separation of  
is effected by the seas, it must have  
the overpowering weight of those of the

*l. n. s.* } Goth. and Scotch *deigh*;  
*BAKED, adj.* } Sax. *dah*; Welsh and  
*adj.* } Arm. *toas*; Belg. *deigh*;  
to, to increase, because dough increases,  
other things to increase, by fermenta-  
tion. Mr. Tooke insists that it is the  
name of the Sax. *despan*, to moisten or  
bake bread or pastry; dough-baked,  
is still dough, as in the similar phrase  
is: doughy, unsound; soft; weak.

from heaven is lyk to sour *dough*, whiche  
took and hidde in thre mesuris of mele,  
sowred. *Wiclif. Matt. xiii.*

a *dough*, but I'll in among the rest;  
of all, but my share of the feast.

*Shakespeare.*

was misled with a snipt taffata fellow  
the villainous saffron would have made all  
and *doughy* youth of a nation in his  
*Id.*

men, through tasteless flat humility,  
baked men some harmlessness we see,  
is phlegm that's virtuous, and not he.

*Donne.*

they would have been as good husbands  
as they were of their *dough*, they might  
ought to eat without need of murmuring:  
back-burden of *dough* lasted for a month,  
might have served them many years.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

the gods moulded up the paste of man,  
the *dough* was left upon their hands,  
souls, and so they made Egyptians.

*Dryden.*

from pliant paste would fabricks raise,  
hence to gain immortal praise,  
less try, and let your sinews know  
to knead, and give the form to *dough*.

*King.*

*HTY, adj.* Sax. *dohtiz*; Goth. *duht*,  
nave; noble; eminent. Often used

restless passion did all night torment  
ring courage of that fairy knight,  
ing how that *doughty* tournament  
atest honour he achieve might.

*Faerie Queene.*

*doughty* historian hath any honour or con-  
fidence, he ought to beg pardon. *Stillfleet.*

She smiled to see the *doughty* hero slain;  
But, at her smile, the bean revived again. *Pope.*

DOUGLAS (John), bishop of Salisbury, a  
native of Scotland, was born in 1721. He  
received his early education at Glasgow, whence  
he removed to Balliol College, Oxford, where he  
obtained a fellowship, and proceeded to the de-  
gree of master of arts, October 14th 1743. He  
accumulated the degrees of bachelor and doctor  
in divinity, May 6th, 1758. Not long after his en-  
tering into holy orders he obtained the rectory of  
Eaton Constantine in Shropshire, on the presen-  
tation of the earl of Bradford. In 1747 William  
Lauder, a native of Edinburgh, and a man of  
considerable talents and learning, excited general  
attention by publishing a paper, to which he gave  
the title of an Essay on Milton's Use and Imita-  
tion of the Moderns; the design of which was  
to prove that our great epic poet had made free  
with the works of some obscure Latin poets of  
modern date, in the composition of his immortal  
poem of Paradise Lost. Mr. Douglas published  
a detection of Lauder's forgeries in a letter to the  
earl of Bath, entitled, Milton Vindicated from  
the Charge of Plagiarism, brought against him  
by Mr. Lauder. In this masterly pamphlet the  
learned critic proves, that the passages which had  
been cited by Lauder from Masenius, Staphorstius,  
Taubmannus, and other obscure writers, had  
been interpolated by the forger himself, who had  
also foisted into his quotations entire lines from  
Hog's Latin translation of Paradise Lost, into  
which no examiner but Mr. Douglas had been  
inquisitive enough to look. The detection of  
this infamous fraud was so complete, that Lauder  
acknowledged it, and published a letter in  
which he assigned the reasons for his conduct,  
and his pretended contrition for the offence.  
Soon after the impostor published another attack  
on the character of Milton, charging him with  
having made additions to the Icon Basiliké of  
king Charles I. for the purpose of injuring that  
unfortunate monarch's reputation. This foul cal-  
umny, which was soon made manifest, rendered  
Lauder so infamous that he quitted the kingdom,  
and died some years after in the island of Barba-  
does. In his next literary work Mr. Douglas  
detected the pretensions of Archibald Bower, the  
author of the Lives of the Popes, whose story is  
too long for this place. In 1754 our author  
published his principal work; entitled, Criterion,  
or a Discourse on Miracles; in which he settles  
the distinction between true and false miracles in  
a masterly manner. And of all the answers to  
the sophistry of David Hume, except that of Dr.  
Campbell, this may be safely pronounced the  
clearest and most convincing. In 1757 the author  
was presented to a prebendal stall in the cathe-  
dral of Durham, in which he took his degree of  
doctor in divinity. In 1762 he was made canon  
of Windsor, on the promotion of Dr. Keppel to  
the bishopric of Exeter. His next elevation was  
to the episcopal bench on the death of Dr. Ed-  
mund Law, bishop of Carlisle, in 1783. From  
that see bishop Douglas was translated to Salis-  
bury, on the removal of Dr. Barrington to  
Durham, in 1791. Bishop Douglas was one of  
the first members of the celebrated beef-steak  
club, rendered so famous by Goldsmith's hu-



morous poem, entitled *Retaliation*. By the appointment of the lords of the admiralty, he arranged the journals and papers of captain Cook for publication, and he prefixed to the work a most admirable and perspicuous introduction. He died in 1807, and was buried in the collegiate chapel at Windsor.

DOUGLAS (Gavin), bishop of Dunkeld in Scotland, the third son of Archibald earl of Angus, was born in 1474. Where he was educated, is not known; but it is certain he studied theology; which did not, however, estrange him from the muses; for he employed himself at intervals in translating into beautiful verse the poem of Ovid, *de Remedio Amoris*. The advantages of foreign travel, and the conversation of the most learned men in France and Germany, to whom his merit procured him the readiest access, completed his education. His first preferment was to be provost of the collegiate church of St. Giles in Edinburgh; a place at that time of great dignity and revenue. In 1514 the queen regent appointed Douglas abbot of Aberbrothock, and soon after archbishop of St. Andrew's; but her power not being sufficient to establish him in that dignity, he relinquished his claim in favor of his competitor Foreman, who was supported by the pope. In 1515 he was by the queen appointed bishop of Dunkeld; and was soon after confirmed by Leo X. Nevertheless it was some time before he could obtain peaceable possession of his see. The duke of Albany, who in this year was declared regent, opposed him because he was supported by the queen; and, in order to deprive him of his bishopric, accused him of acting contrary to law in receiving bulls from Rome. On this accusation he was committed to the castle of Edinburgh, where he continued in confinement above a year; but the regent and the queen being at last reconciled, he obtained his liberty, and was consecrated bishop of Dunkeld. In 1517 he attended the duke of Albany to France; but returned soon after to Scotland. In 1521, the disputes between the earls of Arran and Angus having thrown the kingdom into violent commotion, he retired to England, where he became intimately acquainted with Polydore Virgil the historian. He died in London of the plague in 1522; and was buried in the Savoy. His most celebrated work was entitled *Thirteen Bukes of Eneades*, of the famous poet Virgil, translated out of Latin verses into Scottish metre, every buke having its particular prologue. Imprinted at London 1553, in 4to; and reprinted at Edinburgh 1710, in folio. He undertook it at the desire of lord Henry Sinclair, a munificent patron of arts in those times; and he completed it in eighteen months. It is said also that he compiled an historical treatise, *De Rebus Scoticis*.

DOUGLAS (Sylvester Baron Glenbervie) was of a noble family in Aberdeenshire, and born May 24th, 1743. He entered as a member of one of the English inns of court, and was called to the bar, where he received a silk gown. His first political situation was that of secretary to the earl of Westmoreland, when lord-lieutenant of Ireland. In 1800 he was appointed governor of the Cape of Good Hope, but relinquished

that situation the same year, and was created baron Glenbervie of Kincardine. In 1801 he was appointed joint paymaster-general of the forces; and in 1803 surveyor-general of the king's woods and forests. His lordship died at Cheltenham, May 2d, 1823. Lord Glenbervie published *An Account of the Wines of Hungary*, in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1773; *History of the Cases of Controverted Elections*, 4 vols. 8vo.; *Reports of Cases determined in the Court of King's Bench*, 2 vols. 8vo.; *Ricciardum*, a humorous poem, translated from the Italian of Fortiguerra, with an introduction, 1822.

DOUGLAS, a town in a parish seated on the river above Lanark, thirty-seven miles south-west of Edinburgh. Its ancient castle was built about forty years ago, but an elegant new one is built on its site. Two cotton-works were erected in it, in 1791, when it contained 60 inhabitants.

DOUGLAS, the capital of the Isle of Man. It has lately increased both in trade and building. The harbour, for ships of a tolerable burden, is the safest in the island, and is much mended by a fine mole that has been built on the eastern side. Population about 3000.

DOUGLAS, a township of Massachusetts, in southernmost in Worcester county, having the state of Rhode Island on the south, and that of Connecticut on the south-west. It is very fertile, and lies sixteen miles south of Worcester, and forty-seven south-west of Boston. It was incorporated in 1746, and named in honor of William Douglas, M. D. of Boston, a native of Scotland, and a considerable benefactor to the town.

DOUGLAS, CAPE, a promontory on the north-west coast of North America, which forms the west side of the entrance into Cook's River, opposite Point Bode, which forms the east side. It is a very lofty promontory, and its elevated summit appears above the clouds, forming two exceedingly high mountains. Long.  $206^{\circ} 11' E$ , lat.  $58^{\circ} 56' N$ .

DOUGLAS ISLAND, an island between Admiralty Island and the west coast of America. It is about twenty miles long, and six miles broad in the middle; but becomes narrow towards each end; eastward it terminates in a sharp point. The channel between this island and the mainland is generally choked up with ice.

DOULEIA, *δουλεία*, in antiquity, a punishment among the Athenians, by which the criminal was reduced to the condition of a slave. It was never inflicted upon any but the *απαύριοι*, foreigners and freed servants.

DOVRAFIELD, the highest range of mountains in the Scandinavian peninsula, which, with another chain, divides the kingdom of Norway into north and south. Its highest peak is upwards of 8000 feet above the level of the sea. It derives its name from the village of Dovre.

DOURO, or DUERO, a river of Spain, which rising on the borders of Arragon, and flowing westward, traverses more than half the width of the peninsula. It receives a number of streams from the mountains of Biscay and Leon to the north, and from those of Old Castile to the south. In part of its course, it forms the bound-



Spain and the province of Tras los montes. In the lower part of its wholly in Portugal, and forms a union between Beira and the north.

It finally discharges itself into little below Oporto. The banks were the scene of various movements of English and French armies in 1812 owing to the battles of Salamanca

, *v. a. & v. n.* Gr. δόσις; but prominent word formed from the sound. Heard suddenly in the water. To go to the water.

Meaning trivial matter, the air, or douse in water.

*Hudibras.*

(Rembrandt), a celebrated painter, born 1613. At the age of fifteen he was the pupil of Rembrandt, and continued for several years. From Rembrandt he learned the principles of coloring, and acquired complete knowledge of the chiaroscuro; that knowledge he added a delicacy and a patience in working up his subjects, a degree of neatness, superior to most masters. His pictures are usually small, with figures so exquisitely transparent, so wonderfully delicate, and astonishing as well as pleasing. Every object after nature, and with a singularity, that each figure separates perfect in respect to color, fresh.

Of his patience Sandrart gives an instance. Having once, in company with Caravaggio, visited Douw, they took a room of a broom he was then painting, and their surprise at the excess of that minute object, Douw told them to spend three days more on that, he should account it complete. The picture of Mrs. Spiering, the same as that of the lady sat five days for the use of her hands that leaned on an arm, therefore, would sit to him for ever; so that he indulged himself in works of fancy, on which he could spend as much time as suited his inclination. In 1674, aged sixty-one. He is most wonderful in his finishing of his masters. His pictures are also valued only for retaining their original color, having the same beautiful effect. In the gallery at Florence it is a piece by candle-light, which is dimmed; and, in the same apartment, attended by a number of figures, it is impossible either sufficiently to describe.

*Dowry*, *n. s.* Fr. *douairiere*. A widow's estate. A title also given generally to a widow.

My desires, fame or a dowager, on a young man's revenue.

*Shakespeare.*

Marjane no more

Queen; but princess dowager, prince Arthur. *Id.* Henry VIII.

Widows have a greater interest in property than either maids or wives; so that it is as unnatural for a dowager as a freeholder to be an enemy to our constitution.

*Addison.*

*DOW'DY*, *n. s. & adj.* From *dowd*, or *dey-hood*; *dey* a nurse, and *hood* a cap. An awkward ill-dressed woman: slatternly.

Laura, to his lady, was but a kitchen wench; Dido, a dowdy; Cleopatra, a gipsy; Helen and Hero, slatterns and harlots. *Shakespeare. Romeo and Juliet.*

The bedlam train of lovers use

To inherit the value, and the faults excuse;

And therefore 'tis no wonder if we see

They doat on dowdies and deformity. *Dryden.*

No housewifery the dowdy creature knew;

To sum up all, her tongue confessed the shrew.

*Gay.*

Let dowdies simper, and let bumpkins stare,

The strolling pageant hero treads in air.

*Churchill.*

*DOWER*, *n. s.* } Fr. *douaire*, from Lat.

*DOW'RY*, } *donare*, expletive of *do*, *dare*,

*DOW'ERED*, *adj.* } to give. The portion given

*DOW'ERLESS*. } with a wife, or for a wife;

the settlement on a widow; hence endowment: generally; gift.

Ask me never so much dowery and gift, and I will give according as you shall say unto me; but give me the damsel to wife. *Gen. xxxiv. 12.*

Returne from whence ye came, and rest awhile,

Till morrow next, that I the elfe subdew,

And with Sansfoyes dead dowry you endew.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

And ask no other dowry but such another jest.

*Shakespeare.*

Will you with those infirmities she owes,

Unfriended, new adapted to our hate,

Dowered with our curse, and strangered with our oath,

Take her, or leave her? *Id. King Lear.*

Thy dowerless daughter, king, thrown to my chance,

Is queen of us, and ours, and our fair France. *Id.*

His patrimonial territories of Flanders were in

dower to his mother-in-law. *Bacon's Henry VII.*

Our first mother Eve bequeathed this dowry to her

daughters, that they should be our helpers to sin.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

What spreading virtue, what a sparkling fire,

How great, how plentiful, how rich a dower,

Doat thou within this dying flesh inspire! *Davies.*

Thine own hand

An hundred of the faithless foe shall slay,

And for a dower a hundred foreskins pay.

*Cowley.*

I could marry this wench for this dower. *Sidney.*

His wife brought in dower Cilicia's crown,

And in herself a greater dower alone. *Dryden.*

The king must die, that I may make you great,

And give a crown in dowry with my love.

*Id. Spanish Friar*

His only daughter in a stranger's power;

For very want, he could not pay a dower? *Pope.*

Rich, though deprived of all her little store,

For who can seize fair virtue's better dower?

*Melmoth.*

Yes, when he shines in gold

Girl, you but grasp your dowry. *Byron.*

*DOWER*, *DOTARIUM*, *DOARIUM*, or *Dos*, is the estate, for life, which a widow acquires in a certain portion of her husband's real property, after his death, for the maintenance of herself and the education of her children.



The custom of dower is derived from the Germans, amongst whom it was a rule, that a woman should have no marriage portion, but that the husband should allot a part of his property for her use, in case she survived him. Thus Tacitus, in his treatise, *De Moribus Germanorum*, sect. 18, says, '*Dotem non uxor marito, sed uxori maritus offert.*' The Saxons, also, were acquainted with it, as appears from the laws of King Edmond; by which a widow was entitled to a moiety of her husband's property for her life. And no alteration seems to have been made in this custom at the conquest, nor indeed until the reign of Henry II.; when, according to Glanville, every man was bound, both by the civil and ecclesiastical law, to endow his wife, at the time of marriage, either of all his lands, generally, or of some particular part thereof: if endowed generally, the wife was entitled to her *dos rationabilis*, which was one third part of her husband's freehold; if specially, to the particular land named, provided it did not amount to more than a third. Similar regulations with respect to dower are contained in the *Grand Coutumier* of Normandy.

The following are the five different kinds of dower which once existed, but the first two only are now in use. 1. *Dower by the common law.* This entitles the widow, after the death of her husband, to the enjoyment, during her life, of a third part of all the lands and tenements of which he was seized in fee simple or fee tail at any time during the coverture. This right is not prejudiced by the husband's conveyance of such lands, even though the wife join therein (unless a fine or recovery be used, as stated subsequently in this article), nor by his disposing of the same by will. 2. *Dower by custom* is where a widow becomes entitled to a certain portion of her husband's lands in consequence of some local and peculiar custom. Thus, by the custom of gavelkind (a tenure by which a great part of the land in Kent is still held), she is entitled to a moiety of the lands held by her husband in that tenure: and by the custom of some boroughs she is entitled to all the tenements that were her husband's. Copyhold lands are not at common law subject to dower; but, by the custom of most manors, the widows of copyholders are entitled to a certain part, and sometimes to the whole, of the copyhold lands of which their husbands die possessed. This kind of dower is generally called the widow's free bench.

The species of dower now out of use are, 3. *Dower ad ostium ecclesie*, which was where the husband, at the church door, after the marriage, endowed his wife with the whole or a certain portion of his lands. 4. *Dower ex assensu patris*, in which species the husband being heir apparent of his father, with his consent, endowed the wife, at the church door, with a part of the lands of the father. And, 5. *Dower de la plus beale*. This was merely a consequence of tenures by knight-service, and was abolished by the statute of 12 Car. II., when those tenures were converted into socage.

As to the persons entitled to dower.—Alien women are not generally capable of acquiring dower: an alien queen is, however, an exception

to this rule; and, by an act passed in the reign of Henry V. (not printed among the statutes but contained in Rot. Parl. vol. iv. 128-129), all alien women, who from thenceforth should be married to Englishmen, by license from the king, are enabled to have their dower. Naturalization also removes this disability; as does also denization, so far as relates to the lands of which the husband was seized when his alien wife was created a denizen, but not to any of which he was seized before, and which he had then parted with. Jewesses also, as long as they continue of that religion, cannot be endowed. With the above exceptions every woman, who has attained the age of nine years, is by the common law entitled to dower; but she may be deprived thereof in the several ways following. 1. By the attainder of the husband for treason; but not for misprision of treason or felony. 2. By the attainer of herself for treason or felony, unless afterwards pardoned, in which case her capacity to be endowed is restored as fully as if it had not been lost. 3. By divorce *a vinculo matrimonii*: it must be observed that a divorce *a mensa et thoro* will not deprive the wife of dower, such divorce being merely a permission to the parties to live separate, and not a dissolution of the marriage. 4. By elopement from the husband, and living with an adulterer: but if the former be afterwards voluntarily reconciled, and she be wife to dwell with him, the incapacity will be removed. 5. By withholding the title-deeds of the property from the heir at law. 6. By joining with the husband in levying a fine or suffering a common recovery of his lands: but this will only prevent her from claiming dower out of the lands comprized in the fine or recovery. Also, by the custom of London, a married woman may bar herself of dower by a bargain and sale acknowledged before the lord mayor, or the recorder, and one alderman, and enrolled in the court of husting: in this case the wife must be examined separately from her husband as to her consent. 7. The last and most usual mode, now in practice, of barring dower, is a jointure settled on the wife before marriage. See JOINTURE.

**DOWLAS**, *n.s.* A coarse kind of linen.

*Dowlas*, filthy *dowlas*; I have given them away to bakers' wives, and they have made boulders of them. *Shakespeare.*

**DOWLAS HEAD**, a cape of Ireland, on the coast of Kerry, in Munster. Near this are several large caves, one of which has its entrance low as hardly to admit of a boat with a man standing up in it; but, further in, the roof is high as that of a Gothic cathedral, and has fine echo.

**DOWLETABAD**, a district of Hindostan, the nizâm's dominions, in the province of Arungabad, situated between the nineteenth and twentieth degrees of north latitude, and extending along the north side of the Godavery.

**DOWLETABAD**, **DEOGHIN**, or **DEOGHAT**, a town and strong fortress in the province of Arungabad, deemed by the natives impregnable. It stands on the summit of a mountain, surrounded with other enclosures, of which that the plain contains a large town. The two lower forts are overtopped by the upper, and are



In 1595 Dowletabad surrendered to Shah, of Ahmednuggur, and his dynasty it was taken possession of by the Moguls. It was taken by the Moguls of Shah Jehan, and the capital of the neighbouring town of Gurka, is named AURUNGABAD, which see.

*Bel. dons; Swed. dun; Dan. duun.* The softest part of a bird's plumage; hence soft fibres of plants, and any thing soft or soothing.

By his gates of breath downy feather, which stirs not :  
That light and weightless down,  
It move. *Shakespeare.*  
Donalbain! Malcolm! awake!  
Is downy sleep, death's counterfeit,  
Death itself. *Id. Macbeth.*  
That have prickles, yet have a downy  
Upon their leaves, as stock-gillyflowers  
Which down or nap consisteth of a  
A soft substance.

*Bacon's Natural History.*  
Down, by howling Eurus blown,  
Winds from his mansion thown.

*Sandys.*  
Give me flattery,  
Of courts, that I may rock him,  
In the down of his desires. *Beaumont.*  
Virtue is the roughest way,  
That at night a bed of down. *Wotton.*  
Ave, fair bride! your solitary bed,  
Will you return to it alone;  
Sadness: and your body's print,  
Ave, the yielding down doth dint.

*Donne.*  
On our down, and court the blessing  
Of slumber. *Derham's Sophy.*

In her hand she held  
The sweet fruit, that downy smiled,  
Red, and ambrosial smell diffused.  
*Milton.*  
From westward waits their sails to fill,  
Those high beds his downy wings.

*Dryden.*  
I love my husband still;  
As he was when youthful grace,  
Down began to shade his face. *Id.*  
Weak constitution is very much owing  
To down beds. *Locke.*

Softness, down of all my cares!  
I lay my thoughts upon this breast  
Of all my griefs,  
Happy. *Southern's Oroonoko.*  
When the springing beard began  
A doubtful down, and promise man.

*Prior.*  
To quit the world, just made their own,  
Deeply downed, and built so high!  
Build who build beneath the stars.

*Young.*  
Still her downy pillow prest,  
An sylph prolonged the balmy rest.

*Pope.*  
Do they mistake, how little know  
Kingdoms, and the pains which flow  
From, who fancy that a crown,  
Must be lined with down.

*Churchill.*

How long shall sloth usurp thy useless hours,  
Unnerve thy vigour, and enchain thy powers;  
While artful shades thy downy couch inclose,  
And soft solicitation courts repose?

*Dr. Johnson's Poems.*

For the preservation of the immature seed nature has used many ingenious methods; some are wrapped in down, as the seeds of the rose, bean, and cotton-plant; others are suspended in a large air-vessel, as those of the bladder-sena, staphylaea, and pea.

*Darwin.*

DOWN, *v. a., v. n., n. s., adj.*

*adv. prep. & interj.*

DOWN'CAST, *adj.*

DOWN'FALL, *n. s.*

DOWN'FALLEN, *adj.*

DOWN'GYVED, *adj.*

DOWN'HILL, *n. s. & adj.*

DOWN'LOOKED, *adj.*

DOWN'LYING, *n. s.*

DOWN'RIGHT, *adj. & adv.*

DOWN'SITTING, *n. s.*

DOWN'TRODDEN, *part. adj.*

DOWN'WARD, *adj. & adv.*

DOWN'WARDS, *adv.*

Saxon *dun*; Erse, *dune*; a-hill. The substantive has here originated the other uses of the word, and still retains in Sussex, and in some other parts of England, its primitive meaning. To down is used by Sidney for to subdue; beat downwards. As a neuter verb it signifies, to descend; to be received. As an adjective, dejected; and sometimes firm; positive (figuratively). As a preposition, it means along or towards a lower point. As an adverb, on or tending to the ground; below the horizon, answering and opposed to up; also from former to later times, and from higher to lower station or repute. As an interjection, it encourages to, or pronounces, degradation or destruction. Downcast is, bent towards the ground. Downfal, ruin; calamity. Downgyved, hanging down like fetters. Downright is, plain; open; or, as we say, by a similar figure, straightforward; direct; unqualified. The meaning of the other compounds is apparent.

And now the axe is put to the roote of the tree,  
Therefore every tree that maketh not good fruyt schal be  
kit down and schal be cast into the fyr.

*Wiclif. Matt. 3.*

Let them wander up and down for meat, and  
grudge if they be not satisfied. *Psalm lix. 15.*

Thou knowest my downmitting and mine uprising;  
thou understandest my thoughts afar off.

*Id. cxxxix. 2.*

Then thought the prince all peril sure was past,  
And that he victor onely did remayne,  
No sooner thought, then that the carle as fast  
Gan heap huge strokes on him, as ere he down was  
cast. *Spenser.*

How goes the night, boy?

—The moon is down; I have not heard the clock.  
And she goes down at twelve. *Shakespeare. Macbeth.*

Down, down to hell, and say I sent thee thither.

*Shakespeare.*

Go, some pull down the Savoy; others to the inns  
of courts: down with them all. *Id.*

Why dost thou say king Richard is deposed;  
Darest thou, thou little better thing than earth,  
Divine his downfal? *Id. Richard II.*

Lord Hamlet, with his stockings loose,  
Unartered and downgyved to his auncles.

*Shakespeare.*

Elves away!

We shall chide down: ight if I longer stay. *Id.*



A ring the count does wear,  
That downward hath succeeded in his house,  
From son to son, some four or five descents. *Id.*

Mahomet puts his chief substance into certain boats,  
to be conveyed down the river, as purposing to fly. *Knolles.*

An admonition from a dead author, or a caveat  
from an impartial pen, will prevail more than a down-  
right advice, which may be mistaken as spoken ma-  
gisterially. *Bacon.*

I would rather have a plain downright wisdom,  
than a foolish and affected eloquence.

*Ben Jonson's Discoveries.*

Lord of much riches, which the use renowns :  
Seven thousand broad-tailed sheep grazed on his  
downs. *Sandys.*

The idolatry was direct and downright in the peo-  
ple, whose credulity is illimitable.

*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

No bread will down with them, save that which  
the earth yields ; no water but from the natural wells  
or rivers. *Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

To come from all things to nothing, is not a descent  
but a downfall ; and it is a rare strength and con-  
stancy, not to be maimed at least. *Id.*

We can naturally like no view of ourselves, unless  
we look downwards, to teach us what humble admirers  
we ought to be of our own value. *Butler.*

He shared our dividend o' the crown,  
We had so painfully preached down ;  
And forced us, though against the grain,  
To have calls to preach it up again. *Hudibras.*

A giant's slain in fight,  
Or mowed o'erthwart, or cleft downright. *Id.*  
Whom they hit, none on their feet might stand,  
Though standing else as rocks : but down they fell  
By thousands. *Milton's Paradise Lost.*

But first I mean  
To exercise him in the wilderness,  
There he shall first lay down the rudiments  
Of his great warfare. *Milton.*

Not all the fleecy wealth  
That doth enrich those downs is worth a thought,  
To this my errand, and the care it brought. *Id.*

Look downward on that globe, whose hither side,  
With light from hence, shines. *Id.*

It is downright madness to strike where we have no  
power to hurt. *L'Estrange.*

Down sinks the giant with a thundering sound,  
His pond'rous limbs oppress the trembling ground. *Dryden.*

But now they cry, down with the palace, fire it,  
Pull out the usurping queen. *Id.*

My wily nurse by long experience found,  
And first discovered to my soul its wound ;  
'Tis love, said she ; and then my downcast eyes,  
And guilty dumbness witnessed my surprize. *Id.*

Heavy the third, and stiff, he sinks apace ;  
And though 'tis downhill all, but creeps along the race. *Id.*

Jealousy, suffused with jaundice in her eyes,  
Discolouring all she viewed, in tawny dressed ;  
Downlooked, and with a cuckoo on her fist. *Id.*

When Aurora leaves our northern sphere,  
She lights the downward heaven, and rises there. *Id.*

A downright scholar is one that has much learning  
in the ore, unwrought and untried, which time and  
experience fashions and refines. *Bp. Earle.*

It has been still preached up, but acted down ; and  
dealt with as the eagle in the fable did with the oyster,

carrying it up on high, that by letting it fall, he  
dash it in pieces.

We have seen some, by the ways by which  
had designed to rise uncontrollably, to have  
procured their utter downfall.

The hidden beauties seemed in wait to be  
To down proud hearts that would not wait.

On the downs we see, near Wilton fair,  
A hastened hare from greedy greyhound ga-  
Wanton languishing borrowed of her eye  
downcast look of modesty.

A man falling down a precipice, though in a  
is not at liberty, because he cannot stop that  
if he would.

If he be hungry more than wanton, bread shall  
down ; and if he be not hungry, 'tis not fit he  
eat.

Hills are ornamental to the earth, affording  
pleasant prospects to them that look downwards from  
upon the subjacent countries. *Ray on the Clouds.*  
Hills afford pleasant prospects ; as they must  
acknowledge who have been on the downs of St

There are few, very few, authors, that will  
themselves in a mistake, though all the world  
them to be in downright nonsense.

There is not a more melancholy object in  
learned world, than a man who has written his  
down.

Thy downcast looks, and thy disordered change  
Tell me my fate : I ask not the success  
My cause has found. *Id.*

It is then (in old age) we have nothing to say  
as the phrase is ; we speak the downright truth  
whether the rest of the world will give us the  
lege or not, we have so little to ask of them, it  
can take it.

What remains of the subject, after the lesson  
is continued to be boiled down, with the addition  
fresh water, to a sapid fat. *Arbutnot on Alms.*

And the first steps a downhill greensward yet  
lay.

As you lift up the glasses, the drop will fall  
slower and slower, and at length rest, being  
downward by its weight as much as upward  
attraction. *Id.*

O happy plains, remote from war's alarms,  
And all the ravages of hostile arms !  
And happy shepherds ! who, secure from harm  
On open downs preserve your fleecy care.

To compass this, his building is a tower,  
His pond an ocean, his parterre a down.

What would this man ? Now upward will he  
And, little less than angel, would be more ;  
Now looking downwards, just as grieved appear  
To want the strength of bulls, the fur of bears.

Religion seems not in danger from down-  
atheism, since rational men must reject that  
of proof.

Who shall dispute what the reviewers say ?  
Their word 's sufficient ; and to ask a reason  
In such a state as theirs, is downright madness.

This structure in some degree obtains in the  
phagus or throat of cows, who by similar motion  
vey their food first downwards and afterwards  
wards by a retrograde motion of the annular  
or cartilages, for the purpose of a second mastication  
of it.

A more unsafe and uncertain rule would be  
be laid down, than this of estimating property ac-  
cording to its value at some remoter period of our life.

*Sir S. Hall.*



on his Trojan bride,  
 orse within for Hector slain  
 sping, mingled with deep passion  
 innocent virgin, whose young hand  
 who slew her brother. *Byron.*  
 or form a thin robe twining,  
 scaled her bosom shining;  
 parting of her hair,  
 dly downward there,  
 arm shewed white and bare.

*Id. Siege of Corinth.*

immerce, the fine feathers from  
 several birds, particularly of the  
 at of the eider duck, see *ANAS*,  
 able. These birds pluck it from  
 d line their nests with it. We  
 quantity of down found in one  
 filled the crown of a hat, yet  
 e than three quarters of an ounce.  
 f this down may be compressed  
 cely bigger than one's fist; yet is  
 latable as to fill a quilt five feet  
 und in the nests is most valued,  
 down; it is infinitely more elas-  
 cked from the dead bird, which  
 d.

nty in the north of Ireland, con-  
 pic of the same name, founded  
 tury: it contains eight baronies,  
 p, is fifty miles in length, by forty  
 ing a surface of 364,118 plan-  
 Down is thickly inhabited by  
 , and is extensively engaged in  
 e of linen. The towns of this  
 e of the most comfortable and  
 od. The surface is rather hilly:  
 rock, slate; the soil clay loam,  
 y sand. A group of lofty granite  
 the south occupies an area of  
 uare miles, between Newry and  
 ; in these mountains beryls, not  
 s, are frequently found, and sold  
 high prices. The Sliebh Croob  
 ntre of the county, is also a gra-  
 Sand-stone is also met with, but  
 ely at all. If we except the above  
 ricts, this county may be said to  
 er tillage or pasture. The chief  
 gor, Donaghadee, Hillsboro' (the  
 e marquis of Downshire), Ros-  
 aresque bathing village, Bann-  
 patrick, the assizes town; and  
 dsome flourishing town, in the  
 t name. There are several valu-  
 ations on the sea-coast of this  
 langor to Carlingford. Dundrum  
 ood trawling-ground: Strangford  
 herto been avoided, from a sup-  
 of navigation, and from being  
 a bar-harbour; but it has been  
 Nimmo that Strangford Lough is  
 ur on the coast, at the same time  
 ected the existence of a rock in  
 alled the Buller Pladdy, hitherto  
 arlingford harbour is obstructed  
 Cranfield and Stalken: this har-  
 a new chart. A pier has lately  
 t Ardglass, at the public expense,  
 Killough, by the proprietor, lord

Gratate is found in two great districts of  
 Down, the Mourne and Sliebh Croob groups.  
 Slate is also abundant, and it is probable that, at  
 their junction, valuable mines will yet be dis-  
 covered. Lead mines have been opened near  
 Newton-Ardes, Portaferry, and Castlewellsan, but  
 not yet worked to any extent. Copper is found  
 at Rostrevor, Portaferry, and Clontigg. Slate,  
 of superior quality, is raised at Ballywalter and  
 Doomarah: limestone at Cultra and Moira;  
 and several quarries of blackish marble are suc-  
 cessfully worked in this last-mentioned district.  
 Pearls, of some value, are often found in the  
 rivers Bann and Lagan. This county is rich in  
 remains of antiquity; here are stone altars and  
 cromliachs; the giant's ring; raths and mounds  
 of singular formation: round towers stood at  
 Drumboe and Downpatrick, and many beautiful  
 ecclesiastical buildings, though now almost  
 ruined, bear testimony to the ancient learning  
 and piety of this county; the remains of thirty-  
 six are still discoverable. Amongst the natural  
 curiosities, the chief are the caves of Ardglass  
 and Ballycam. Many military antiquities also  
 exist here: several of the finest castles were  
 erected, during the civil wars, by colonel Monck.

DOWNHAM, a town of Norfolk, ten miles  
 south of Lynn, famous for its butter; there being  
 nearly 1000 firkins bought here every Monday,  
 and sent up the river Ouse to Cambridge; from  
 whence it is conveyed to London in the Cam-  
 bridge waggons, and hence called Cambridge  
 butter. The church is a neat building, situate  
 on a rising ground; the ascent to it on the north-  
 west is by a flight of brick steps, and on the  
 south by a gradual ascent, ornamented with a  
 row of lime-trees. In the vicinity of this  
 church were formerly several religious found-  
 ations, particularly a priory of Benedictine  
 monks. Downham has a market on Saturday,  
 and is seated on the Ouse; thirty-five miles  
 north-east of Cambridge, and eighty-four north  
 by east of London. Long. 0° 20' E., lat. 54°  
 40' N.

DOWNINGS, a post town of Pennsylvania,  
 in Chester county, on the east side of Brandy-  
 wine Creek; thirty-three miles west by north of  
 Philadelphia, and nearly seven north-west of  
 Westchester.

DOWNPATRICK, the assizes town of the  
 county of Down, in Ireland: it is ninety-two miles  
 from Dublin, is a borough, post, and fair town.  
 Here St. Patrick is said to have been interred,  
 along with St. Bridget and St. Columb. There  
 are several monastic ruins in the vicinity, also  
 St. Patrick's well, still supposed to possess very  
 singular healing virtues, and used as Holy-well,  
 in Flintshire, both for partial and total immer-  
 sion. This town has a handsome court-house; a  
 capacious jail, lately erected; a diocesan school;  
 an establishment for the support of clergymen's  
 widows; Southwell's hospital; a poor school;  
 and meeting-houses for Presbyterians and Metho-  
 dists. The staple is linen.

DOWNNS, a celebrated road for ships, extend-  
 ing six miles along the east coast of Kent, be-  
 tween North and South Foreland; where both  
 the outward and homeward-bound ships fre-  
 quently make some stay; and squadrons of men



of war rendezvous in time of war. It affords excellent anchorage; and is defended by the castles of Deal, Dover, and Sandwich, as well as by the Goodwin Sands.

**DOWNTON, or DUNKTON**, an ancient borough in Wiltshire, which sent two members to parliament. It retained this privilege until 1832, when it was disfranchised by the first and second clauses in the Reform Bill. Its chief trade is in malt, paper, leather, laces, &c. It has a neat church, the tower of which has been raised about thirty feet, at the expense of the earl of Radnor. Here is a good free-school, chiefly supported by the produce of the fairs, and also a well-regulated workhouse. It is seated on the Avon, six miles south-east of Salisbury, and eighty-four W.S.W. of London. Lon. 1° 36' W., lat. 51° 0' N.

**DOXOLOGY**, *n. s.* Δόξα and λόγος. A form of giving glory to God.

David breaks forth into these triumphant praises and *doxologies*, Blessed be the Lord God of Israel, who has kept me this day from shedding blood, and from avenging myself with my own hand. *South.*

Little did Athanasius imagine, that ever it would have been received in the Christian church, to conclude their books with a *doxology* to God and the blessed virgin. *Stillingfleet.*

**Doxology**, an hymn used in praise of the Almighty, distinguished by the title of greater and lesser. Both the *doxologies* have a place in the church of England, the former being repeated after every psalm, and the latter used in the communion service.

**Doxology, the Greater**, or the angelic hymn, was of great note in the ancient church. It began with these words, which the angels sung at our Saviour's birth, Glory be to God on high, &c. It was chiefly used in the communion service, and in private devotions.

**Doxology, the Lesser**, was anciently only a single sentence, without response, running in these words, Glory be to the Father, and to the Son, and to the Holy Ghost, world without end, Amen. Part of the latter clause, As it was in the beginning, is now, and ever shall be, was inserted some time after the first composition. Some read this ancient hymn, Glory be to the Father, and to the Son, with the Holy Ghost: others, Glory be to the Father, in or by the Son, and by the Holy Ghost. This difference of expression occasioned no disputes in the church, till the followers of Arius began to make use of the latter as a distinguishing character of their party, when it was entirely laid aside by the Catholics, and the use of it was sufficient to bring any one under suspicion of heterodoxy. The *doxology* was used at the close of every solemn office. The western church repeated it at the end of every psalm. Many of their prayers were also concluded with it, particularly the solemn thanksgiving or consecration prayer at the eucharist. It was also the ordinary conclusion of their sermons.

**DOXY**, *n. s.* A whore; a loose wench. A diminutive of Duck, which see.

When daffodils begin to pure,  
With heigh! the *doxy* o'er the dale.

*Shakespeare.*

**DOYEN** (François), a celebrated painter, born at Paris in 1726, was, while a boy, constantly disfiguring his school-books with sketches. Some of these being seen by an amateur, he persuaded the parents of the lad to place him under C. Vanloo, and at twenty years of age he contended for the prize of the academy and gained it. By virtue of this he went to Rome, where he studied himself principally to the works of Annibale Caracci, but became equally enamoured, afterwards, of the style of Pietro da Cortona. On his return to Paris he employed himself ten years on a large picture of the death of Virginia. His principal object was to gain the approbation of Vanloo. But that artist had been prejudiced against him, and it was with difficulty he could be prevailed upon to look at it. At last, after regarding it silently for some time, he exclaimed Doyen affectionately, and applauded the performance every where. From this time Doyen rose rapidly into fame. One of his best paintings was a representation of winter, of which there is an engraving. He visited Petersburg at the invitation of the Empress Catharine, and was chosen professor of the academy of painting there, where he died in 1806.

**DOZE**, *v. n. & v. a.* } Sax. *dræm*; *Doel*  
Doz'iness, *n. s.* } *daes*; *Teut. dæz*  
Dozy, *adj.* } *Swed. dæsa*. See *Dæsa*.  
To slumber; sleep lightly; become confused or drowsy. The active verb signifying to stupefy, make dull, seems derived from the neuter *doziness* is sleepiness; and figuratively *dozily*; *dozy*, *drowsy*.

He was now much decayed in his parts, and his immoderate drinking *dozed* in his understanding.

There was no sleeping under his roof; if he happened to *doze* a little, the jolly cobbler waked him.

It has happened to young men of the greatest wit to waste their spirits with anxiety and pain, as to *doze* upon their work with too much negligence of doing well.

The yawning youth, scarce half awake, says  
His lazy limbs and *dozy* head to raise.

A man, by a violent fit of the gout in his back, finds a *doziness* in his head, or a want of attention.

How to the banks, where bards departed down,  
They led him soft.

**DOZEN**, *n. s.* *Fr. douzaine*; *Teut. dutzend*. Ital. *Span.* and *Port. dozzena*; probably a corruption of Lat. *duodecim*. Twelve, taken collectively. Dr. Johnson says, it is seldom used but on light occasions. But see the definition of Locke: its convenience in fact has occasioned it to be in constant use in modern times, both in serious as well as light occasions.

We cannot lodge and board a *dozen* or *dozen* gentlemen, but we keep a bawdyhouse straight.

That the Indian figs bear such huge leaves, a delicate fruit, I could never find; yet I have travelled a *dozen* miles together under them.

We have more words than notions, and half a dozen words for the same thing. Sometimes we put a new signification to an old word, as when we call a piece a gun.



twelve units together, we have the com-  
dozen. *Locke.*

r of dissenters was something under a  
m. *Swift.*

A, or DREHYEH, a well-built town  
capital of the Wahabees sect. It  
as 160 leagues south-east of Jeru-  
situated at the base of lofty moun-  
tile country.

s. Sax. *drabbe*, lees. A whore;

ship will take order for the *drabs* and the  
eed not fear the bawds. *Shakespeare.*

e the wretch so venal and so vain,  
proud as *drabs* in Drury-lane. *Pope.*

in botany, a genus of the siliculosa  
mamia class of plants; natural order  
siliquosæ. The silicula is entire,  
long; with the valves a little plain,  
the partition: there is no style.  
teen species; of which the one  
y of notice is the *D. verna*, or early  
s. It has naked stalks with leaves  
ed. The blossoms are white, and at  
vers hang down. It grows on old  
y banks. It is one of the earliest  
nts we have, and is good to eat as a  
s, sheep, and horses eat it: cows are  
t; swine refuse it.

CIUS (Nicholas), a celebrated enthu-  
Moravia in 1587. He was admitted  
616; but, on account of the severe  
t the Protestants, he retired to Hun-  
b. He then commenced woollen  
when about fifty years of age, assumed  
al office, and had his first vision on  
ruary, 1638, by which he was pro-  
great armies from the north and  
should crush the house of Austria.  
bricius was restored to his ministry,  
re visions than ever, which he com-  
his coadjutor Comenius, that he  
h them to all nations. Comenius,  
if he did not print them he should  
and if he did he would be exposed  
e of men, printed them, but would  
e the copies, and entitled the book  
bris. Some say Drabricius was  
se prophet; others, that he died in

R, in the sea language, a small sail  
ich is the same to a bonnet, that a  
course, and is only used when the  
bonnet are too shoal to clothe the  
ONNET and COURSE.

NG, in angling, is a method of catch-  
Take a large line of six yards;  
fastening it to the rod, must be  
piece of lead, that, if the fish bite,  
to and fro, and that the water may  
ove it on the ground; bait with a  
ll secured, and so by its motion the  
e enticed into the danger without  
he best places are in running water,  
r under wooden bridges, supported  
sted and slimy.

in the salt works, a kind of wooden  
ding the salt when taken out of the

boiling pan, the bottoms of which are made  
shelving or inclining forwards, that the briny  
moisture of the salt may drain off.

DRAC, an imaginary being, formerly much  
dreaded by the country people in many parts of  
France. The dracs were supposed to be mali-  
cious, or, at least, troublesome demons; said to lay  
gold cups and rings over the surface of pits and  
rivers, as baits to draw women and children in.

DRACÆNA, in botany, a genus of the mono-  
gynia order, and hexandria class of plants: con-  
sempartite and erect; the filaments a little thicker  
about the middle; the berry trilocular and  
monospermous. Species, one only, a native of  
the West Indies.

DRACHM, *n. s.* } Fr. *dragme*; Span. and  
DRAM, *n. s.* & *v. n.* } Port. *drama*; Lat. *drach-*  
*ma*; Arab. *drahm*; Gr. *δραχμή*; Heb. *דרמן*,  
from *דרך*, a way, *מנה*, to spend; i. e. as much  
as would be expended by a traveller.—Or, says  
Parkhurst, because anciently equal to six *οβολοι*,  
or bars of iron, that a man could grasp in his hand,  
thus deriving it from the verb *δρασσω*, *δεδραγμα*,  
to clutch. A coin; a weight; the eighth part  
of an ounce; a small definite quantity; a dose.  
The verb is sometimes used, vulgarly, for to  
drink drams.

True be it said, whatever man it said,  
That love with gall and honey doth abound;  
But if the one be with the other weighed,  
For every dram of honey therein found,  
A pound of gall doth over it redound. *Spenser.*

I could do this, and that with no rash potion,  
But with a lingering dram, that should not work  
Maliciously like poison. *Shakespeare. Winter's Tale.*

See here these movers, that do prize their honours  
At a cracked drachm. *Id. Macbeth.*

The trial being made betwixt lead and lead, weigh-  
ing severally seven *drams* in the air, the balance in  
the water weigheth only four *drams* and forty-one  
grains, and abateth of the weight in the air two *drams*  
and nineteen grains: the balance kept the same depth  
in the water. *Bacon.*

No hallowed oils, no gums I need,  
No new-born *drams* of purging fire,  
One rosy drop from David's seed  
Was worlds of seas to quench thine ire:  
O, precious ransom! which, once paid,  
That consummatum est was said. *Wotton.*

He that has not religion to govern his morality, is  
not a *dram* better than my mastiff-dog. *Selden.*

If there had been but any *drachm* of good nature in  
these Hebrews, they had relented.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

No *dram* of judgment with thy force is joined,  
Thy body is of profit, and my mind.

*Dryden's Fables.*

Every *dram* of brandy, every pot of ale that you  
drink, raiseth your character. *Swift.*

A second see, by meeker manners known,  
And modest as the maid that sips alone;  
From the strong fate of *drams* if thou get free,  
Another Durfy, Ward! shall sing in thee. *Pope.*

DRACO, a celebrated lawgiver of Athens.  
When he exercised the office of archon, he made  
a code of laws for his fellow-citizens, wherein all  
crimes were made capital; and even idleness was  
punished with death as well as murder. These  
laws were at first enforced, but they were after-



wards neglected on account of their extreme severity; and Solon totally abolished them, except that one which punished a murderer with death. The respect of Draco's admirers proved fatal to him. When at Egina, he appeared on the theatre, he was received with repeated applause; and the people, according to the custom of the Athenians, showed their respect by throwing their garments upon him. This was done in such profusion, that Draco was soon hid under them, and smothered. He lived about A. A. C. 624.

**DRACO.** See **ASTRONOMY.**

**DRACO**, the dragon, in zoology, a genus belonging to the order of amphibia reptilia; the characters of which are: it has four legs, a cylindrical tail, and two membranaceous wings, radiated like the fins of a fish, by which he is enabled to fly, but not to any great distance at a time. There are two species, both harmless creatures, feeding on flies, ants, and small insects, viz. 1. *D. praeos*, with the wings fixed to the fore-legs. It is a native of America. 2. *D. volans*, the flying dragon, with the wings entirely distinct from the fore-legs. It is found in America and the East Indies.

**DRACO VOLANS**, in meteorology, a fiery exhalation, frequent in marshy and cold countries. It is most common in summer; and though principally seen playing near the banks of rivers, or in boggy places, yet sometimes mounts up to a considerable height in the air; its appearance being that of an oblong, sometimes roundish, fiery body, with a long tail. It is entirely harmless, frequently sticking on the hands and clothes of people without injuring them.

**DRACOCEPHALUM**, dragon's head, a genus of the gymnospermia order, and didynamia class of plants: cor. throat inflated, upper lip concave. There are thirteen species, most of them herbaceous, annual, or perennial, plants, from eighteen inches to three feet high, garnished mostly with entire leaves, and whorled spikes of small monopetalous and ringent flowers of a blue, white, or purple color. They are all easily propagated by seeds, which may be sown either in spring or autumn. They require no culture but to keep them clear from weeds.

**DRACONARIUS**, Gr. *δρακοναριος*, and *δρακοντιοφορος*, in antiquity, dragon-bearer. The Persians, Parthians, Scythians, &c., bore dragons on their standards; whence the standards themselves were called dracones. See next article. The Romans borrowed the custom from the Parthians; or, as Casaubon has it, from the Dacæ; or, as Codin, from the Assyrians. The Roman emperors carried it to Constantinople.

**DRACONES**, among the Romans, were figures of dragons, painted in red, on their flags, as appears from Ammianus Marcellinus; but among the Persians and Parthians they were like the Roman eagles, figures in full relief; so that the Romans were frequently deceived, and took them for real dragons.

**DRACONTIUM**, in botany, dragons; a genus of the polyandria order, and gynandria class of plants; natural order second, piperitæ. The spathe is cymbiform, or shaped like a boat; the spadix covered all over: CAT. none; petals

five; berries polyspermons. There are species, all natives of the Indies. *D. purpureum* with leaves having holes, and a climbing habit. It is a native of most of the West-India islands and has trailing stalks which put out at every joint, that fasten to the trunks of trees, walls, or any support which is near them, thereby rise to twenty-five or thirty feet. The plant is easily propagated by cuttings; when planted in pots filled with poor sandy earth, plunged into a hot-bed, will soon put out roots, but the plants are so tender, that they are preserved in a stove.

**DRACUNCULI**, in medicine, small worms which breed in the muscular parts of the arms and legs, called Guinea worms. The temper is very common in Guinea, and particularly among the natives: Kemper found them also at Ormuz, upon the Persian Gulf, likewise in Tartary; but this distemper is frequent any where as on the Gold Coast, Anamaboe, and Cornantin. The worm is round, and uniform, very much resembling round tape, or bobbin. It lodges between interstices and membranes of the muscles, it insinuates itself, sometimes exceeding a foot in length. It occasions no great pain at first; but at such times as it is about to make its exit, the part adjoining to the end of the worm, where it attempts to issue, begins to swell, throb, and be inflamed. This generally happens about the ankle, leg, or arm, and seldom higher. The countries where this distemper is in any degree prevalent, are hot and sultry, liable to great droughts, and the inhabitants make use of stagnating and unwholesome water, in which it is very probable that the eggs of these animalcula may be contained; the white people as drink this water, are more liable with the disease as well as the negroes, who seldom attempt to extract the worm, but making an incision; but as soon as they perceive the tumor rise to a competent bulk, they endeavor to bring it to a suppuration, with a convenient expedition; and then the head of the worm discovers itself, which they secure by tying it to a bit of stick or cotton, that it may not draw itself up again: thus they continue to roll it round the stick, sometimes making it sometimes two or more, each day, taking care not to break the worm, for it would be very difficult to recover the end of it again; an abscess would be formed, not only at the purged part, but likewise through the winding of the muscles, where the dead part of the worm remains, which generally causes very obstinate ulcers. During the extraction of the worm, the patient should be plied with aloetic and other anthelmintic medicines, in order to dislodge the worm the sooner from its tenement. When the worm is totally extruded, the remaining ulcer may be treated in the same manner as other common ulcers; nor does any farther inconvenience remain in the part which it had possession. To prevent the worm from coming again, wash the parts with weak vinegar, alum, nitre, or common salt, or with a decoction of oak-ashes, and afterwards anoint them with an ointment of the common kind.



eruptions, with a small mixture of

OLUS, in botany. See ARUM.

DRAG, a township of the United States, part of Middlesex county, on the Merrimack, opposite Patucket Falls, miles north by west of Boston, and south-west of Exeter, in New

adj. for dread, or the part. passive of which see. Terrible; formidable.

land-breach they shortly fetch, and danger does behind remain.

Faerie Queene.

n. s. } -Sax. *drag*; Dutch, *drag*; adj. } from Saxon, *drabbe*. Filth; DRAB.

had they to keep their auditors from sill and *druff*. Yes; now and then the hand into the dish before his master, naked himself, eating slovenly and rouse sport. Surrey.

act, that often jest and laugh:

rue, still swine eat all the *draught*.

Shakespeare.

think I had a hundred and fifty tattered y come from swinekeeping, from eating

Shakespeare. Henry IV.

ple fury, still thyself to waste

h as have no taste;

sew a surfeit of pure bread

appetite is dead!

them grains their fill;

uff, to drink and swill. Ben Jonson.

let me drudge, and earn my bread,

r the *druff* of servile food.

Milton's Agonistes.

weepings. Perhaps improper.

thers but the *druff* of nature. Dryden.

a., v. n. & n. s. } Goth. *draga*;

n. s. } Belgic, *trecken*;

Lat. *traho*; Gr. *dragere*. To draw;

eds; to draw that which is weighty

ae; hence to pull about with vio-

luciny: as a neuter verb, to hang

o sweep or trail on the ground. A

net which is drawn along the bot-

ater.

They shall surprise

ince of air, and drag in chains

s realm, and there confounded leave.

Milton.

had seen and heard Saul breathing out

nd executing his bloody cruelties upon

God; dragging poor Christians to their

executions; would not have given him

randred for hell!

Dp. Hall.

le was no sooner espied but he was re-

disdainful words, beaten and dragged in

manner, that he hardly escaped with

Clarendon.

the morning find it near to some fixed

a take it up with a *drag-hook*, or other-

Walton.

in St. Austin's opinion; and is not

o drag me at his chariot-wheels, but he

of me.

Stillington.

men, that had been out with a *drag-net*,

hing, had a draught towards the even-

a them in hope of a sturgeon at last.

L'Estrange.

Dragnets were made to fish within the deep,  
And casting-nets did rivers' bottoms sweep.

May's Virgil.

'Tis long since I, for my celestial wife,  
Loathed by the gods, have dragged a lingering life.

Dryden.

From hence are heard the groans of ghosts, the  
pains

Of sounding lashes, and of dragging chains. Id.

The creatures are but instruments in God's hand:  
the returning our acknowledgments to them is just the  
same absurdity with theirs who burnt incense to the  
drag, and sacrificed to the net. Rogers.

While I have any ability to hold a commerce with  
you, I will never be silent; and this chancing to be a  
day that I can hold a pen, I will drag it as long as I  
am able. Swift.

Can I, who loved so well,

To part with all my bliss to save my lover,

Oh! can I drag a wretched life without him?

Smith.

The drag is made somewhat like a low car: it is  
used for the carriage of timber, and then is drawn by  
the handle by two or more men.

Moxon's Mech. Exerc.

A door is said to drag, when, by its ill hanging on  
its hinges, the bottom edge of the door rides in its  
sweep upon the floor. Id.

Whatsoever old Time, with his huge dragnet, has  
conveyed down to us along the stream of ages, whe-  
ther it be shells or shellfish, jewels or pebbles, sticks  
or straws, sea-weeds or mud, these are the ancients,  
these are the fathers. Watts.

Warburton attacks the revival of Shakspeare's  
text with a gloomy malignity, as if he were dragging  
to justice an assassin or incendiary. Johnson.

We can only lament their fate, and still more that  
of a sailor, who is often dragged by force from his  
honest occupation, and compelled to imbrue his hands  
in perhaps innocent blood. Franklin.

Thou wast the veriest slave in days of yore,

That ever dragged a chain, or tugged an oar.

Corper.

Here, sheltering from the sons of murder,

The hares drag their tired limbs no further. Beattie.

DRAG, in sea language, is a machine consisting  
of a sharp, square, iron ring, encircled with a net,  
and commonly used to take the wheel off from the  
platform or bottom of the decks. The word  
is also used for whatever hangs over the ship in  
the sea, as shirts, coats, or the like; boats, when  
towed, or whatever else may retard the ship's  
way when she sails.

DRAGGLE, v. a. & v. n. From drag. To  
make or become dirty, by dragging on the  
ground

His dragging tail hung in the dirt,

Which on his rider he would flirt. Hudibras.

He wore the same gown five years, without drag-  
gling or tearing. Swift.

You'll see a draggled damsel, here and there,

From Billingsgate her fishy traffick bear.

Gay's Trivia.

DRAGOMAN, or DRUGHMAN, a term of gene-  
ral use through the east for an interpreter, whose  
office is to facilitate commerce between the ori-  
entals and occidentals. These are kept by the  
ambassadors of Christian nations residing at the  
Porte for this purpose. The word is formed  
from the Arabic *targemen* or *targiman*, of the  
verb *targam*, 'he has interpreted.' From dra-



goman the Italians formed dragomano, and, with a nearer relation to its Arabic etymology, turcimanno; whence the French and our trucheman, as well as dragoman and drogman.

DRAG'ON, *n. s.*

DRAG'ONET, *n. s.*

DRAG'ON-FLY, *n. s.*

DRAG'ONISH, *adj.*

DRAG'ON-LIKE, *adj.*

because the dragon is said to be possessed of a keen and watchful eye.—Minsheu. A real or supposed flying serpent; hence a fierce animal or man, and a fierce kind of fly: dragonet is a diminutive of dragon.

He caught the *dragoun*, the elde serpent, that is the deucl and sathanas, and he boond hym bi a thou- synde gheeris. *Wiclif. Apoc. xx.*

And ever as he rode, his hart did earne  
To prove his puissance in battell brave  
Upon his foe, and his new force to learne;  
Upon his foe, a *dragon* horrible and stearne.

*Spenser. Faerie Queene.*

Or in his womb might lurk some hidden nest  
Of many *dragonets*, his fruitful seed. *Id.*

I go alone,  
Like to a lonely *dragon*, that his fen  
Makes feared and talked of more than seen.

*Shakespeare.*

He fights *dragonlike*, and does achieve  
As soon as draw his sword. *Id. Coriolanus.*  
The body of the cantharides is bright-coloured; and it may be, that the delicate coloured *dragon-flies* may have likewise some corrosive quality.

*Bacon's Natural History.*

ake *dragonsblood*, beat it in a mortar, and put it in a cloth with aqua vitæ, and strain them together.

*Peacham.*

And you, ye *dragons!* of the scaly race,  
Whom glittering gold and shining armours grace;  
In other nations harmless are you found,  
Their guardian genii and protectors owned. *Roue.*  
On spiry volumes there a *dragon* rides;  
Here, from our strict embrace, a stream he glid's.

*Pope.*

*Dragonsblood* is a resin, so named as to seem to have been imagined an animal production. *Hill.*

So, borne on brazen talons, watched of old  
The sleepless *dragon* o'er his fruits of gold. *Darwin.*

DRAGON, in botany. See ARUM.

DRAGON, in zoology. See DRACO.

DRAGON, WILD. See ARTEMISIA.

DRAGONET, or DRAGON-FISH, in ichthyology. See CALLIONYMUS.

DRAGON FLY. See LIBELLULA.

DRAGON GUM, or GUM TRAGACANTH. See ASTRAGALUS.

DRAGONS-BLOOD, a gummi-resinous substance brought from the East Indies, either in oval drops wrapped up in flag leaves, or in large masses composed of smaller tears. It is said to be principally obtained from the *dracæna draco*, the *pteroecarpus draco*, and several other vegetables. The fine dragon's blood of either sort breaks smooth, free from any visible impurities, of a dark red color, which changes, upon being powdered, into an elegant bright crimson. Several artificial compositions, colored with the true dragon's blood, or Brasil wood, are sometimes sold for this commodity. Some of these dissolve like gums in water; others crackle in the fire without proving inflammable; whilst the genuine

sanguis draconis readily melts and catches fire, and is not acted on by watery liquors. It readily dissolves in pure spirit, and tinges a large quantity of the menstruum of a deep red color. It is likewise soluble in expressed oils, and gives them a red hue, but less beautiful than that communicated by anchusa. This drug, in substance, has no sensible smell or taste; when dissolved, it discovers some degree of warmth and pungency. A solution of dragon's blood in spirit of wine is used for staining marble, to which it gives a red tinge, which penetrates more or less deeply according to the heat of the marble during the time of application. But as it spreads at the same time that it sinks deep, for fine designs the marble should be cold.

DRAGON'S HEAD. See DRACOCOPRAIRIA.

DRAGON'S HEAD AND TAIL, *caput and cauda draconis*, in astronomy, are the nodes of the planets; or the two points in which the ecliptic is intersected by the orbits of the planets, and particularly that of the moon; making with it angles of 5° 18'. One of these points lies northward, the moon beginning then to lean north latitude, and the other southward, when she commences south. Thus her deviation from the ecliptic seems, according to the fancy of astrologers, to make a figure like that of a dragon, whose belly is where she has the greatest latitude; the intersection representing the head and tail, from which resemblance the denomination arose. These points abide not always in one place, but have a motion of their own in the zodiac, retrograde-wise 3' 11" per day; completing their circle in eighteen years 225 days; so that the moon can be but twice in the ecliptic during its monthly period, but at all other times she will have a latitude or declination from the ecliptic. About these points of intersection all eclipses happen. They are usually denoted by the characters  $\Omega$  dragon's head, and  $\gamma$  dragon's tail.

DRAGON TREE. See DRACONTIUM.

DRAGON WORT. See ARTEMISIA.

DRAGOON, *v. a. & n. s.* *Fr. dragon.* Supposed to have been derived from *drag*, the cause mounted on horseback with lighted ensigns, he seemeth like a fiery dragon' (Preface to Dr. Meyrick's Ancient Armour); or from the Latin *draconarii*, horse-soldiers who bore dragons for ensigns. See the article. The verb is derived from the noun.

Two regiments of *dragoons* suffered much in the late action. *Tate.*

In politicks I hear you're staunch,  
Directly bent against the French -  
Deny to have your free-born foe  
*Dragooned* into a wooden shoe. *Fin.*

Will the famished wretch who has braved your bayonets be appalled by your gibbets? When death is a relief, and the only relief it appears that you will afford him, will he be *dragoon*ed into tranquillity? *Burns.*

DRAGOONS are divided into brigades or the cavalry: and each regiment into troops; each troop having a captain, lieutenant, cornet, quarter-master, two sergeants, three corporals, and two drums. Some regiments have bandmen. They are very useful on any expedition that



es despatch; for they can keep pace with valry, and do the duty of infantry: they ap, generally, on the wings of the army, or passes leading to the camp; and sometimes are brought to cover the general's quarters—they march in front and rear of the army. The first regiment of dragoons raised in England in 1681, and called the regiment of dragoons north Britain. In battles or attacks they ally fight sword in hand after the first fire. Arms are, a sword, firelock, and bayonet, which pistols are now generally added.

**DAGOONING**, a term that has been used to press the horrible persecution and oppression inflicted on the French Protestants under XIV. after the revocation of the edict of 1713. By these means the Protestants in Languedoc alone were, in four or five days, sold of above a million of money. Their g-rooms were turned into stables; and the roofs of the houses where the military were quartered were treated with every possible injury and cruelty, without intermission. At Nîmes, a town near Montauban, they hung a man, Favin, a Protestant citizen of that town, by his arm-pits, and tormented him a whole night, by pinching and tearing off his flesh with pincers. They made a great fire round a man of about twelve years old, who, with hands raised lifted up to heaven, cried out, 'My help me;' And when they found the youth refused to die rather than renounce his religion, they matched him from the fire just as he was at the point of being burnt. In several places soldiers applied red-hot irons to the hands and feet of men and breasts of women. At Nîmes they hung up several naked women by the feet, and others by their arm-pits, and exposed them to public view. They led to posts mothers that gave suck, and let sucking infants lie languishing in their arms for several days and nights, crying, mourning and gasping for life. Some they bound to a great fire, and, being half roasted, let go. Amidst a thousand hideous cries and screams, they hung up men and women on the chimneys by the hair, and feet, and coated them with wisps of wet hay. Some were tied under the arms with ropes, and plunged again and again into wells: but we cannot dwell in these shocking details. If any to escape these barbarities endeavoured to save themselves by flight, they pursued them into the sand woods, where they were hunted down like wild beasts, and prohibited at the same time from departing the kingdom, upon pain of execution of their effects.

**RAGUIGNAN**, a town of France, the capital of the department of the Var, Provence, situated in a fertile plain, on the river Piss. Bishops of Frejus had formerly a palace.

The town is the seat of the courts of probate justice, and has a public library. There is the trade, and the manufactures are coarse soap, oil, and sugar of lead, the two last made in considerable quantities. The town is raised on the sides of the neighbouring hills, is remarkable for its strength. The general population is by no means considerable. Population 10,000. Vol. VII.

about 5000. Thirty-five miles north-east of Toulon.

**DRAIN**, *v. a. & n. s.* } Fr. *trainer*; Teut. *DRAIN'AGE*. } *trancer*, part. of verb *drygan*, Sax. to expel; and therefore to dry, according to Mr. Tooke; or from *drehnigean*, to strain, says Mr. Todd. To draw off; to empty of a fluid gradually; to make dry: as a substantive, it means the channel, or course of the water or fluid taken off. Drainage is the act or system of draining.

The fountains *drain* the water from the ground adjacent, and leave but sufficient moisture to breed moss. Bacon.

In times of dearth it *drained* much coin of the kingdom, to furnish us with corn from foreign parts. Id. to Villiers.

Sinking waters, the firm land to *drain*,  
Filled the capacious deep, and formed the main  
Ravine common.

The royal babes a tawny wolf shall *drain*. Dryden.

While cruel Nero only *drains*  
The mortal Spaniard's ebbing veins,  
By study worn, and slack with age,  
How dull, how thoughtless is his rage! Prior.  
Had the world lasted from all eternity, these comets must have been *drained* of all their fluids. Cheyne.  
When wine is to be bottled wash your bottles, but do not *drain* them. Swift's *Directions to the Butler*.  
Whilst a foreign war devoured our strength, and *drained* our treasures, luxury and expences increased at home. Atterbury.

That boy was blest,  
Whose infant lips have *drained* a mother's breast. Gay.

By oppression's woes and pains!  
By your sons in servile chains!  
We will *drain* our dearest veins,  
But they shall be—shall be free! Burns.  
Strike up the dance, the cava bowl fill high,  
*Drain* every drop!—to-morrow we may die. Byron.

In cases which arise from springs, as well as those which are produced by the stagnation of surface water, it will frequently be necessary, in order to effect their *drainage*, to have one or more deep open cuts, brought up in a proper direction from the lowest point at which the water can be discharged. Dr. A. Rees.

**DRAINS**, in the fen countries, are certain large cuts or ditches of twenty or thirty, nay sometimes forty feet wide, carried through the marshy ground to some river or other place, capable of discharging the water out of the fen lands. To clear wet and boggy lands of their superfluous moisture, is an art of the highest importance, not only to the agriculture, but to the health of a country; yet it is only of late years that the principles of this art became well understood, and opened the way for many improvements. Dr. James Anderson of Edinburgh, in his *Essays on Agriculture*, seems to have been the first who treated the subject scientifically; but before quoting his ingenious introductory observations, it may be remarked that land becomes charged with moisture from two causes: 1. From water collected in the higher grounds, and filtrating among the different beds of gravel and other porous materials, forming springs below, and flowing over the surface, or stagnating underneath it. 2. From



rain or water lodging and becoming stagnant on the surface, from the clayey or impervious nature of the soil or superior stratum. The first of these is the cause of bogs, swamps, and morasses, and is the most difficult to remedy. Dr. Anderson says, 'springs are formed in the bowels of the earth, by water percolating through the upper strata where that is of a porous texture, which continues to descend downwards till it meets with a stratum of clay that intercepts it in its course; where, being collected in considerable quantities, it is forced to seek a passage through the porous strata of sand, gravel, or rock, that may be above the clay, following the course of these strata till they approach the surface of the earth, or are interrupted by any obstacle which occasions the water to rise upwards, forming springs, bogs, and the other phenomena of this nature; which, being variously diversified in different circumstances, produce that variety of appearance in this respect that we often meet with. This being the case, we may naturally conclude that an abundant spring need never be expected in any country that is covered to a great depth with sand, without any stratum of clay to force it upwards, as is the case in the sandy deserts of Arabia, and the immeasurable plains of Libya: neither are we to expect abundant springs in any soil that consists of a uniform bed of clay from the surface to a great depth; for it must always be in some porous stratum that the water flows in abundance; and it can be made to flow horizontally in that, only when it is supported by a stratum of clay, or other substance that is equally impermeable by water. Hence the rationale of that rule so universally established in digging for wells, that if you begin with sand, gravel, &c. you need seldom hope to find water till you come to clay; and, if you begin with clay, you can hope for none in abundance till you reach to sand, gravel, or rock. It is necessary that the farmer should attend to this process of nature with care, as his success in draining bogs, and every species of damp and spouting ground, will in a great measure depend upon his thorough knowledge of this,—his acuteness in perceiving in every case the variations that may be occasioned by particular circumstances—and his skill in varying the plan of his operations according to these. As the variety of cases that may occur in this respect is very great, it would be a very tedious task to enumerate the whole, and describe the particular method of treating each; I shall therefore content myself with enumerating a few particular cases, to show in what manner the principles above established may be applied to practice.'

Let fig. 1. Plate DOGS and DRAINS represent a perpendicular section of a part of the earth, in which A B is the surface of the ground, beneath which are several strata of porous substances, which allow the water to sink through them till it reaches the line C D, that is supposed to represent the upper surface of a solid bed of clay; above which lies a stratum of rock, sand, or gravel. In this case, it is plain, that when the water reaches the bed of clay, and can sink no farther, it must be there accumulated into a body; and seeking for itself a passage, it flows

along the surface of the clay, among the sand, gravel, from D towards C; till at last it issues forth, at the opening A, a spring of pure water. If the quantity of water that is accumulated between D and C is not very considerable, and the stratum of clay approaches near the surface, that case, the whole of it will issue by the opening at A, and the ground will remain dry both above and below it. But if the quantity of water is so great, as to raise it to a considerable height in the bed of sand or gravel, and if that bed of sand is not discontinued before it reaches the surface of the ground, the water, in this case, would not only issue at A, but would likewise ooze out in small streams through every part of the ground between A and C; forming a large patch of wet, sandy, or gravelly ground on the side of a declivity, which every attentive farmer must have frequently met with. To drain a field of ground in this situation is perhaps the unprofitable task that a farmer can engage in, not only because it is difficult to execute, but also because the soil that is gained is of very little value. However, it is lucky that patches of this kind are seldom of great extent, although they sometimes run along the whole of the declivity in a horizontal direction for a great length. The only effectual method of draining this kind of ground, is to open a ditch, or drain, up as the highest of the springs at A, which will be of such a depth as not only to pass through the whole bed of sand or gravel, but to sink so far into the bed of clay below as to form a canal therein sufficiently large to carry off the whole of the water. Such a ditch is represented by the dotted lines *a c c*; the expense of making a ditch of such a depth as this would suppose, and of keeping it in repair, is very great, it is but in a few cases that this mode of draining would be visable; and never, unless where the declivity happens to be so small, as that a great quantity of water lost for little depth, as would have been the case here if the surface had extended in the direction of the dotted line *a d*. But supposing the stratum of clay, after approaching the surface at A, continued to keep at a little below ground; and that the soil which lies above it was of a sandy or spongy nature, it would allow the water to penetrate it easily; exposing the quantity of water that flowed to C was but very inconsiderable, issuing out at the spring A, it would flow along the surface of the clay among the sand or gravel, so as to keep it so drenched with water, and of consequence it would be of very little value. Wetness arising from this cause, is usually of much greater extent than the former; and, as it admits of an easy remedy, ought not to be one moment delayed; a drain of a very moderate depth opened at A, and passing through a part of the stratum of clay (represented by the dotted lines *A k f*), would carry off the whole of the water, and leave the field as dry as could be desired. It is, therefore, of very great consequence to be able to accurately distinguish between these two cases, so nearly allied to each other in appearance, as this can be easiest done by boring, or



Fig. 1.



Fig. 6.



Fig. 3.



Fig. 4.



Fig. 5.









is much ground of this kind ought to provide itself with a set of boring irons, which he may find use for on other occasions. I here enumerate a great variety of cases which might be reduced to the same head with going: but as any attentive reader may, what has been said, be able easily to distinguish I shall only in general observe, that every soil of a soft and porous texture, that lies upon a hard clay, whatever its situation in other respects may be, will in some measure be subject to disease. And, if it is upon a declivity of considerable length, the undermost parts of the soil will be much damaged by it, unless ditches be dug down up across the declivity, at proper distances from one another, to intercept the water in its descent. It may not likewise be improper to observe, that in cases of this nature, unless the soil is of a very great depth, the mounds will always be increased, by raising the surface to a considerable height; as will appear by examining fig. 2; in which the line ABCD represents the surface of a field of this kind, and CD the surface of the bed of clay. If this field were raised into high ridges, as in fig. 3, so that the furrows EEE descended to the surface of the clay, it is plain, that all water that should sink through the middle of the ridges, would run along the surface of the clay, and come to the sides of the ridge LLLLLL. The ridges would thus be kept continually soaked with water. Whereas, if the ground had been level, as in the part of the field from G to H, the open furrows H, at moderate distances from each other, the water would immediately descend to the clay, and be carried off by the furrows, so as to damage the soil far less than when the ridges are high. If the soil is so thin as that the furrows can always touch the clay, the ridges should be made narrow and quite flat, as from H to I: but if there is a little greater depth of soil, then it ought to be raised into ridges of a moderate height, as from H to B, so as to allow the bottom of the furrow to reach the clay: but where it is necessary where the soil is of any considerable depth. I have seen some industrious farmers, who, having ground in this situation, and been at the very great expense of making a drained drain in each furrow. But, had they understood the nature of the disease, they would have thought of applying such a remedy; as must appear evident at first sight to who examine the figure. The success was might be expected from such a foolish undertaking. These observations, it is hoped, will be sufficient as to the manner of treating wet, or porous soils. I now proceed to take notice of such as are of a stiff, clayey nature, which are often very different in appearance, and require a different treatment from these. I suppose that (in fig. 3) the stratum of sand and gravel DC should be discontinued, as it is, and that the stratum above it should be of a coherent clayey nature. In this case, the water that flowed towards E, being there in on every side, and being accumulated in great quantities, it must at length find a passage for itself in some way; and being strongly upon the upper surface, if any

one part is weaker than the rest, it there would burst forth and form a spring (as suppose at A). But if the texture of every part of this stratum were equally strong, the water would squeeze through many small crannies, and would ooze out in numberless places, as between A and F, so as to occasion that kind of wetness that is known by the name of a spouting clayey soil. The cure, in this case, is much more easily effected than in any of the former; for if a ditch of a considerable size is opened, as at A, towards the lowermost side of the spouting ground, so deep as to penetrate through the upper stratum of clay, and reach to the gravel, the water will rise up through it at first with very great violence, which will gradually decrease as the pressure from the water behind is diminished; and when the whole of the water accumulated in this subterranean reservoir has run off, there being no longer any pressure upon the clay above it, the whole soon becomes as dry as could be desired, and continues so ever afterwards, if the ditch is always kept open. This I speak from experience, having rendered some fields of this kind that were very wet, quite dry by this method of treating them. It will hardly be necessary for me here to put the farmer upon his guard, to be particularly careful in his observations, that he may distinguish between the wetness that is produced from this cause, and that which proceeds from the cause before mentioned; because the treatment that would cure the one would be of no use at all to the other. The attentive observer likewise will readily perceive, that if any field that is wet from this cause admits of being ploughed, it will be in equal danger of being hurt by being raised into high ridges, with the other kind of damp ground before mentioned. For, as the depth of earth above the reservoir would be smaller in the deep furrows than any where else, there would, of consequence, be less resistance to the water in that place, so that it would arise there in greater abundance. And if, in this case, a farmer should dig a drain in each furrow, as a considerable quantity of water would rise into them, in some cases the ground might be improved, or even quite drained thereby, especially if they should have accidentally reached the gravel in any one place; although at an expense much greater than was necessary. I take notice of this circumstance, in some measure to prevent the prejudice, that some inattentive observers might entertain, against what was said before of this method of draining, from their having accidentally seen some fields that may not have been bettered by it.

'Bogs,' continues the doctor, 'are only a variety of this last-mentioned kind of wet ground; and therefore ought, in general, to be drained after the same manner with them. Clay is a substance that strongly resists the entrance of water into it: but when it is long drenched with it, it is, in process of time, in some measure, dissolved thereby, loses its original firmness of texture and consistence, and becomes a sort of semi-fluid mass, which is called a bog; and as these are sometimes covered with a strong scurf of a particular kind of grass, with very matted roots, which is strong enough to bear a



small weight without breaking, although it yields very much, it is in these circumstances called a swaggle. But, whatever be the nature of the bog, it is invariably occasioned by water being forced up through a bed of clay, as just now described, and dissolving or softening, if you will, a part thereof: I say only a part; because whatever may be the depth of the bog or swaggle, it generally has a partition of solid clay between it and the reservoir of water under it, from whence it originally proceeds: for if this were not the case, and the quantity of water were considerable, it would meet with no sufficient resistance from the bog, and would issue through it with violence, and carry the whole semi-fluid mass along with it. But this would more inevitably be the case if there was a crust at the bottom of the bog, and if that crust should ever be broken, especially if the quantity of water under it were very considerable: and as it is probable, that in many cases of this sort, the water slowly dissolves more and more of this under crust, I make no doubt, but that in the revolution of many ages a great many eruptions of this kind may have happened, though not deemed of sufficient importance to have the history of them transmitted to posterity. Of this kind, although formed of a different substance, I consider the flow of the Solway moss, in Northumberland, to have been; which, upon the 16th of November, 1771, burst its former boundaries, and poured forth a prodigious stream of semi-fluid matter, which in a short time covered several hundred acres of very fine arable ground. Nor will any one, who is acquainted with the nature of moss, who knows its resemblance to clay, in its quality of absorbing and retaining water, and its very easy diffusibility therein, be surprised at this; as, from all these properties, it is much better adapted for forming an extensive bog, and therefore in greater danger of producing an extensive devastation by an eruption of the water into it, than those that are formed of any kind of clay whatever. If the bog or swampy ground is upon a declivity, the ditch ought to be carried across the field about the place where the lowest springs arise. But if the surface of the ground is level, or nearly so, as between A and B, fig. 4, and the springs break out in several places, *q q q q q*, so as to form soft quagmires, interspersed through the whole of the field, it will be of little consequence in what part the drain is opened; for if it be dug up so deep as to allow the water to rise in it with freedom, it will issue through that opening, and the field will be left perfectly dry. But as it may frequently happen that the stratum of gravel should be at a considerable depth beneath the surface of the earth, and as it may be sometimes even below the level of the place into which the drain must be emptied, it might sometimes be extremely difficult to make a ditch so deep as to reach the bed of sand or gravel. But it is lucky for us that this is not absolutely necessary in the present case; as a drain of two or three feet deep, as at D, will be equally effectual with one that should go to the gravel. All that is necessary in his case, is to sink pits P in the course of the drain, at a moderate distance from

one another, which go so deep as to reach gravel; for, as the water there meets with resistance, it readily flows out at these openings and is carried off by the drain without being forced up through the earth; so that the ground is entirely dry ever after. I have likewise done several fields in this way; and, as I have just found the appearance pretty much alike, I give for the information of the inexperienced a short account of them. If you then make your pit in one of these soft quaggy places where the water is found in great abundance, it will meet with very great difficulty in forming, as the substance of which it is composed, it will always flow into the hole as fast as you dig it; on which account I would advise, not to attempt to make the pit in the swaggle, but near it in the solid earth as you convenient. However, if it is pretty firm, and of no great extent, it is sometimes practicable to make the soft bog at the driest time of the year. I have sometimes practised, which gave me opportunity of observing the nature of the bog more perfectly than I otherwise should have done. In the trials of this kind that I have made, the soft quaggy ground has seldom been above four feet deep, below which I have found a stratum of hard tough clay usually mixed with stone; and so firm, that nothing but a pick-axe could penetrate it; and is comparatively so much drier than the bog above it, an inexperienced operator is apt to imagine that this is the bottom of the bog. In digging through this stratum, you will frequently meet with small springs of water coming out in all directions; some of them will fill the tube of a small quill, and others as to be scarcely perceptible; but, regarding these, you must continue to dig out intermission, till you come to the bottom of the reservoir, if I may so call it, which is contained in the rock, gravel, or sand; you will generally find from two to four feet below the bottom of the swaggle, and which will be in no danger of mistaking when you dig for, if there has been no opening made in the field, as soon as you break the stratum immediately above the gravel or rock, it bursts forth like a torrent; and, on these occasions, rises like a jet d'eau to a considerable height above the bottom of the ditch; and then flows off with great impetuosity for a short time, till the pent up water being drained, the violent boiling up begins to subside, and the strength of the current to abate; and, at length, it flows gently out like any ordinary stream—allowing it to remain in this state, the earth begins to subside, and gradually becomes firmer and firmer every day; so that, in the space of a few months, those bogs which were so soft as hardly to support the weight of a dog, become so firm, that oxen and horses tread upon them without any danger. At the very wettest season of the year, if you had a field of this nature, that, by sinking one such pit as I have now described, it was entirely drained to the distance of 100 yards around it in every direction, it is possible that the stratum in which



be in some places interrupted, it will be an expedient to make several of these drains in the field is of great extent; always carry the drain forward through the lowermost part of the field, or as near the quag as you can; and sinking a pit wherever you think it will be most necessary. But, if the surface of gravel is not interrupted, there will be no great burst of water at opening any of these drains at first, as I have frequently experienced. To prevent these wells from closing up after they are opened, it is always expedient to fill them up with small stones immediately after they are opened, which ought to rise to the height of the surface of the drain. I have often imagined, that the expense of digging these pits might be saved by boring a hole through this solid stratum with a large wimble made on purpose; but I never experienced this, I cannot say whether or not it would answer the desired end. If the whole field that is to be drained consists of one extensive bog, it will require a great time before the whole work can be entirely finished, as it will be impossible to open a drain through it till one part of it is first drained, and the rest solid ground. In a situation of this kind, the undertaker, after having opened a drain to carry the water from the lowest part of the bog, must approach as near to the swampy ground as he can, and there make his first pit; which will drain off the water from the nearest parts of the bog. When this has continued open for some time, and that part of the bog has become so dry as to admit of being worked, let him continue the ditch as far forward through it as the bog will permit it to be in, and there sink another pit, and proceed gradually forward in the same manner; making cross cuts where necessary, till the whole be finished. In this manner, may a bog or track of spouting ground of this nature be rendered dry at a very inconsiderable expense; and, as there can be no other method of draining ground of this sort effectually, I recommend the study of it to the attention of every farmer who may have occasion for it. In the first circumstances of his particular fields, that he may be certain which of the classes above enumerated it may be ranked with; and, when perfectly sure of that, he may proceed with confidence, being morally certain of success. There is, however, one kind of damp ground not yet particularly specified, that I have purposely not taken notice of till this time, as I have not had any opportunity of examining particularly into the nature of it, nor of ascertaining, by experience, what is the most proper method of draining it. The soil I have now particularly in view, consists of a deep strong clay that does not vary its nature even on the surface, but is as hard as manures may have rendered it more soft and tender; the color usually inclines to a reddish cast, and, for the most part, it is situated on the side of some declivity. This bed of clay reaches to a great depth, without any variation, and is intermixed with a considerable quantity of small round stones. Many soils, of the kind now described, are apt to be continually saturated with water during the winter season;

but when the dry weather of summer sets in, the moisture is diminished, and the surface becomes hard; and it is rent into many large gaps which allow free admission to the sun and air, so as to scorch up almost every plant that is sowed upon it; and, as these soils are usually in themselves naturally fertile when drained, it were to be wished that some method could be discovered, that would be less expensive than what is usually practised with regard to some soils of this kind in Essex; where they make covered drains of two feet and a half deep, running diagonally through the whole field, at the distance of twenty feet from each other.

In the *Georgical Essays*, T. B. Bayley, Esq. of Hope, near Manchester, gives the following directions for making covered drains:—First make the main drains down the slope or fall of the field. When the land is very wet, or has not much fall, there should, in general, be two of these to a statute acre; for the shorter the narrow drains are, the less liable they will be to accidents. The width of the trench for the main drains should be thirty inches at top, but the width at the bottom must be regulated by the nature and size of the materials intended to be used. If the drain is to be made of bricks ten inches long, three inches thick, and four inches in breadth, then the bottom of the drain must be twelve inches; but if the common sale bricks are used, then the bottom must be proportionably contracted. In both cases there must be an interstice of one inch between the bottom brick and the sides of the trench, and the vacuity must be filled up with straw, rushes, or loose mould. For the purpose of making these drains I order my bricks to be moulded ten inches long, four broad, and three thick, which dimensions always make the best drains. The method I pursue in constructing my main drains is as follows: when the ground is soft and spongy, the bottom of the drain is laid with bricks placed across. On these, on each side, two bricks are laid flat, one upon the other, forming a drain six inches high and four broad, which is covered with bricks laid flat. When the bottom of the trench is found to be a firm and solid body, as clay, or marle, the bottom of the drain does not then require being laid with bricks. In that case the sides are formed by placing one brick edgewise, instead of two laid flat. This latter method is much cheaper, and in such land equally durable with the other. When stones are used instead of bricks, the bottom of the drain should be about eight inches in width. And here it will be proper to remark, that, in all cases, the bottom of the main drains must be sunk four inches below the level of the narrow ones, even at the point where the latter fall into them. The main drains should be kept open till the narrow ones are begun from them, after which they may be finished; but before the earth is returned upon the stones or bricks, it will be advisable to throw in straw, rushes, or brush-wood, to increase the freedom of the drain. The small narrow drains should be cut at the distance of sixteen or eighteen feet from each other, and should fall into the main drain at very acute angles, to prevent any stoppage. At the point where they fall



in, and eight or ten inches above it, they should be made firm with brick or stone. These drains should be eighteen inches wide at top, and sixteen at bottom. See plate DOGS and DRAINS. Fig. 3, represents a field with drains, laid out according to Mr. Bayley's method. The black lines represent the main drains, and the dotted lines represent the narrow drains communicating with the former from all parts of the field.

About the same time that Dr. Anderson had reduced the system of draining to scientific principles in Scotland, Mr. Joseph Elkington, of Princethorpe, in Warwickshire, appears to have made some similar discoveries in England. The priority, indeed, is claimed by Dr. Anderson, but as each party has his merits, and as the public is, doubtless, highly indebted to both, we shall not presume to decide upon this point. The great object of Mr. Elkington's system is the draining of lands rendered wet by waters confined beneath the surface, and attempting to rise in the manner of springs. Among these, bogs or morasses are the chief. Having attempted, a considerable number of years ago, to drain a piece of ground of this kind on his farm at Princethorpe, by making a trench of five feet deep, but without success, he thought it might be of use to know, what kind of strata lay under the trench. Accordingly, he forced an iron crow, of about an inch and a half in diameter, three feet down, and upon taking it out, was agreeably surprised, to find a great quantity of water burst forth, and run down the trench. This led him to think of applying an auger, an instrument fitter for the purpose of boring, which, upon trial, he found equalled his expectations; and, by continuing the same plan with the auger, he at last drained all the wet parts of his farm, which were numerous, and had proved destructive to his sheep, by inducing the rot. When a morass is to be drained, his first object is to ascertain the direction in which the trench is to be dug. The substance of his rules for this, as laid before the Board of Agriculture in 1796, are these: 1. To obtain as much knowledge as possible respecting the strata in the neighbourhood. 2. To direct the trench so as to hit the bottom of the bed, which occasions the mischief, and the particular spot where the main spring lies. 3. If there are various beds through which the water issues, to prefer the stone one for draining the whole; and to make the trench from six to eight yards from the tail of the bed, where the rock ends, because in limestone, and other rocks, the tail, as it is technically termed, is harder than any other part of the rock; but a few yards above it, it is softer, and the water is more accessible. The tail of these beds may often be found jutting out in a point. 4. To direct the trench in a line with the bottom of the hill; as it makes the best separation between the upland and meadow enclosures, where the spring can be best intercepted. The trench, however, must be carried in or near the line of the spring; for, if it diverges to any distance, all chance of reaching the spring by tapping is over, and the labor of digging it probably lost. 5. To make a new trench, rather than to tap the spring in any old brook, or run of water. 6. and lastly, having fixed on the line

of direction, and marked out the trench, to at the bottom or lowest level, carrying the gradually up. The fall of the water need be above a few inches in 100 yards. The which must often be used for tapping, not exceed two inches in diameter. Mr. Elkington bored a hole with one, to the depth of feet, which threw up water equal to three heads in a minute, and completely drained the neighbourhood. In such cases, further operations in draining are unnecessary. In cases, the trench being once made, and then cut off, by tapping, or otherwise, it remains to determine, whether it is to be kept open or covered. Fig. 5 serves to exemplify one of the advantages which result from the arrangement of drains indicated by A B C D. The top of a hill at fig. 6 is furnished with outlets to carry off the water or supply springs at various heights. Thus A is supplied by the lowest at the top of the hill. B and D are supplied by the bed beneath, while by the aid of a trench at C we procure a continuously flowing stream of the water being insulated in its passage through the intermediate strata.

On the drainage of *mixed and varied* strata of the clayey kind, we have the following observations in Mr. Loudon's *Encyclopedia of Agriculture*:—"The business of draining is, he remarks, 'considerably more tedious and difficult than where the superficial and subterranean parts have greater regularity. In such lands, as all the different collections of water are perfectly distinct from each other, by the nature of the beds of clay that separate them, each collection becomes so much increased, or accumulated in the time of heavy rains, that they rise quite to the level of the surface of the soil, which they are surrounded; when they get a free passage, as it would overflow from a bowl or dish, overflows and saturates the surface of that bed of clay in such a manner as to render it so perfectly wet and so unproductive becomes not only annually more scanty, but the soil itself more unproductive. From the sand-beds, however, having no communication with the clay, it must evidently require as many drains as there are beds of this kind, in order fully to carry off the water from each of them. A drain is therefore recommended to be cut through the nearest and lowest part of the field in which the water is to be drained, up to the highest and most elevated sand-bank in such a line of direction as is possible, to pass through some of the intermediate sand-beds, and prevent the labor and expense of making longer cuts on the sides, which would otherwise be requisite.

Where the different beds of sand are of less extent, and lie together with greater regularity, they can be drained in a more simple manner with less cutting, and of course less expense. Below the layers or beds of clay that lie, in this manner, alternately and nearly parallel to each other, is a body of impervious clay, which keeps the water that is contained in the sand, from being constantly full, renders the soil dry and moist; and in wet seasons runs or tris



ese cases, the principal under-strata rarely above four or five feet beneath, a drain is advised to be cut through the middle of the field, if it is from both sides; but if it declines, the drain must be made in that water will more readily discharge; and unless the field be of great size, more depressions or hollows in the drain may be quite sufficient for it, by crossing the different beds that it must take it off from each of the principal difficulty in draining ground is, and which renders it impracticable, is when the direction of the strata, or beds of clay and sand, lie contrary to the declivity of the land, so that one drain can perform no other service than that of conveying water after it has passed over the surface, and would naturally stagnate in the middle of the field, if there was no other outlet.

Where the land lies in this way, frequently the case, it will therefore be necessary to cut the drain in the lowest part, and to cut up from it in a slanting direction to the declivity, which by crossing the strata, or narrow strata of sand, will be able of drawing the water from each side, forming the drains in these cases, is intended that, after laying the bottom of a drain, or of a sough, or in the way of a drain, filled some way up by small stones, being applied, the green side down, and them before the mould is filled in. Stones cannot be readily procured, but may be employed in their place, where it is difficult: the under part of the drain is coupled, with stones, so as to form a passage for the conveyance of the water, and sink through the faggots, and for of rendering them more durable; water cannot get freely off, which is the case where there is not an opening of some solid material, it must, by time, soon destroy the faggots, and the drain.

of draining *retentive* soils, is manifest from that which has been described. Many tracts of level land are the stagnation of a superabundant water in the upper parts of the surface, which does not rise up into them, or into the springs below. The retentiveness in these cases may, for the most part, be effected without any very heavy labour from the upper or surface soil, in being constituted of a loose porous material, to the depth of from two to three feet, which has a stiff retentive body beneath it, any water that may come up from the surface from heavy rains, or other causes, filtrates and sinks down through the obstructing body of clay beneath it from proceeding; the consequence is, that the porous open soil is filled and saturated with water, as to utility for the purpose of producing corn or grass. Land situated in frequently said by farmers to be wet-

bottomed. In order to remove this kind of wetness, it seldom requires more than a few drains, made according to the situation and extent of the field, of such a depth as to pass a few inches into the clay, between which, and the under surface of the porous earth above, there will obviously be the greatest stagnation, and consequently, collection of water, especially where it does not become much visible on the surface. In these cases there is not any necessity for having recourse to the use of the boring instrument, as there is no water to be discharged from below. When the field to be drained has only a slight declination, or slope, from the sides towards the middle, one drain cut through the porous superficial materials into the clay, in the lowest part of the ground, may be sufficient to bring off the whole of the water detained in the porous soil. This effect may likewise be greatly promoted, by laying out and forming the ridges so as to accord with the direction of the land, and by the use of the plough or spade in removing obstructions, and deepening the furrows. In such situations, where the drain has been formed in this manner, the water will flow into it through the porous surface materials, as well as if a number of small trenches were cut from it to each side, as is the practice in Essex and some other parts of the country; but which is often an unnecessary labor and expense. The drain made in the hollow may frequently serve as a division of the field, in which case it may be open; but in other circumstances it may be more proper to have it covered. Where a field of this description has more than one hollow in its surface, it will obviously be requisite to have more than one main drain; but when it is nearly level, or only inclines slightly to one side, a trench or drain along the lowest part, and the ridges and furrows formed accordingly, may be sufficient for effecting its drainage. There may, however, be cases, as where a field is large and very flat, in which some side-cuts from the principal drain may be necessary, which must be made a little into the clay, and as narrow as they can be wrought, and then filled up with stones or other suitable materials.

What is called the *Essex method* of draining in ploughed springy lands, where the surface soil is tenacious, is described by Kent, and consists in substituting small under-drains for open furrows; or in some cases having a small under-drain beneath every other or every third furrow. These drains lead to side or fence ditches, where they discharge themselves. For draining of mines, see MINING.

Drains may be conveniently classed, as Mr. Loudon observes, under, 1. Drains of conveyance simply; and 2. Drains of conveyance and collection. The most complete drain of conveyance is a large pipe of metal, masonry, or brickwork: and the most complete collecting drain, one formed with a channel built on the sides, and covered with flat-stones, with a superstratum of round stones or splinters, diminishing to the size of gravel as they rise to the surface, and there covered with the common soil. As the best constructions, however, are not always practicable, the following are a few leading sorts



adapted for different situations. (We are indebted to Mr. Loudon for this selection).

For drains of conveyance, there are the walled or box drain, the barrel drain, the walled or the triangular drain, and the arched drain, fig. 1.

Fig. 1.



Fig. 2.



Drains of collection are formed of stone, brick, gravel, cinders, wood, spray, straw, turf, and earth alone.

The boxed and rubble drain, fig. 2, is a drain of conveyance and collection. The common rubble drain is formed of rough land-stones of any sort, not exceeding six or seven inches in diameter, thrown in the bottom, with smaller ones over, and, if to be had, gravel or ashes at top. On this is laid a thin layer of straw or haum of any kind, and the remainder is filled up with the surface soil.

The brick drain is formed in a great variety of ways, either from common bricks and bats in imitation of the boxed and rubble, or rubble drain; or by the use of bricks made on purpose, of which there are great variety. Draining tiles to be used with effect as collecting drains, should always be covered a foot in depth, or more, with stones or gravel.

The gravel or cinder drain is seldom made deep, though, if the materials be large, they may be made of any size. In general they are used in grass lands; the section of the drain being an acute-angled triangle, and the materials being filled in, the smallest uppermost, nearly to the ground's surface.

The wood drain is of various kinds. A very sufficient and durable construction consists of poles or young fir-trees stripped of their branches and laid in the bottom of the drain lengthways. They are then covered with the branches and spray. Another form is that of filling the drain with faggot-wood, with some straw over. A variety of this mode is formed by first setting in cross stakes to prevent the faggots from sinking; but they are of no great use, and often occasion such drains to fail sooner than common faggot drains, by the greater vacuity they leave after the wood is rotten. In some varieties of this drain the brush-wood is first laid down alongside the drain, and formed by willow, or other ties, into an endless cable of ten or twelve inches in diameter, and then rolled in, which is said to form an excellent drain with the least quantity of materials, and to last a longer time than any of the modes above mentioned. Some cut the brush-wood into lengths of three or four feet, and place them in a sloping direction with the root end of the branch in the bottom of the drain; others throw in the branches at random, with little preparation, and cover them with

spray, straw, or rushes, and finally the surface soil.

The spray drain is generally like the grass drain, of small size, and formed like it, with an acute angled bottom. In general, the spray is laid firmly in; though in some cases it is previously formed into a cable, as in the brush-wood drain. Drains of this sort are much in use in grass lands, and when the spray of larch-wood, beech, or ling can be got, they are of great durability. The straw drain, when reeds, rushes, and bent straw is used, is sometimes made like the spray drain, by pressing the loose material down, or forming a cable; but in general the straw is twisted into ropes as big as a man's leg, by the aid of a machine, and three or more of these laid in the bottom of a triangular drain, with or without the protection of three turves.

The turf drain,

fig. 3, may be made of any convenient depth, but it must be at least the breadth of a turf at bottom. The drain being dug out as if it were to be filled with stones or any ordinary material; the operator next, with a spade three inches wide, digs a narrow channel along its centre, clearing it out with the draining scoop; and over this the turves, *b*, are laid without any other preparation, or any thing put over them but the earth that was excavated. This is found to be a very cheap, and, considering the materials, a surprisingly durable method of draining; answering, in pasture-fields especially, all the purposes that the farmer can expect to derive from drains constructed with more labor, and at a much greater expense. They are said to last frequently twenty years and upwards; but the period which it can be supposed they will continue to prove effectual, must depend on the nature of the soil, and the current of water.

The triangular sod drain is thus made: when the line of drain is marked out, a sod is cut in the form of a wedge, the grass side being the narrowest, and the sods being from twelve to eighteen inches in length. The drain is then cut to the depth required, but is contracted to a very narrow bottom. The sods are then set with the grass side downwards, and pressed as far as they will go. As the figure of the drain does not suffer them to go to the bottom, a cavity is left, which serves as a watercourse; and the space above is filled with the earth thrown out.

The hollow furrow drain is only used in sheep pastures. Wherever the water is apt to stagnate, a deep furrow is turned up with a straw plough. After this, a man with a spade pares the loose soil from the inverted sod, and scatters it over the field, or casts it into hollow places. The sod thus pared, and brought to its original situation, with the grassy side uppermost, as if no furrow had been made. A pipe or opening is thus formed beneath it, two or three

Fig. 3.





ches deep in the bottom of the furrow, which is sufficient to discharge a considerable quantity of surface water, which readily sinks into it. These furrows, indeed, are easily choked up by any pressure, or by the growth of the roots of the grass; but they are also easily restored, and no surface is lost by means of them.

**Pipe** drains of turf are sometimes formed where the surface soil is a strong clay, as it is only turves from such a surface that are sufficiently durable. A semicylindrical spade is used to dig the turves, the ground plan of which presents a series of semicircles or half pipes. The drain being dug out to the proper depth, one turf is laid in the bottom, and another being placed over it completes the pipe. The same sort of pipe drain has been formed out of solid beds of clay, and has served for a time to convey water. As collecting drains, of course, they can be of little or no use. This mode of draining appears to have been first practised by Hannah, an ingenious farmer in Wigtonshire. Headed for the purpose of conveying water through running sand, in which only a pipe drain will last for a moderate time. After a number of the clay turves were found effective in conveying away the water, and preventing the running away of the sandy sides of the drain.

**DRAKE**, *n. s.* Swed. *andrake*, from *drake*, male; or *duck*, *drake*, duck, and Goth. *reke*, a prior or fighter, says Mr. Thomson; 'from noise it makes,'—Minshew. The male of a duck; an old piece of ordnance.

Two or three shots, made at them by a couple of drakes, made them stagger. *Clarendon.*

Mourn, sooty coots, and speckled teals,

Ye fisher herons, watching eels;

Ye duck and drake, wi' airy wheels

Circling the lake.

*Burns.*

**DRAKE**, in ornithology. See *ANAS*.

**DRAKE** (Sir Francis), the renowned English admiral, was the son of Edmund Drake, a sailor, and born near Tavistock, in Devonshire, in 1545. He was brought up under the care of Sir John Hawkins, who was his kinsman; and, at the age of eighteen, was purser of a ship trading to Biscay. At twenty, he made a voyage to Guinea; and, at twenty-two, was made captain of the *Judith*. In that capacity he was in the harbour of St. John de Ulloa, in the gulf of Mexico, where he behaved most gallantly in the actions under Sir John Hawkins, and returned with him to England with great reputation. He next projected a design against the Spaniards in the West Indies; which he no sooner published, than he had volunteers enough ready to accompany him. In 1570 he made his first expedition with two ships; and in 1571 with one only, in which he returned safe, if not with such advantages as he expected. He made another expedition in 1572, wherein he gained considerable booty. In these expeditions he was much assisted by a nation of Indians, who then were engaged in war with the Spaniards. The prince of these people was named Pedro, to whom Drake presented a cutlass from his side, which he saw the chieftain greatly admired. Pedro, in return, gave him four large wedges of gold; which Drake

threw into the common stock, saying, 'That he thought it but just that such as bore the charge of so uncertain a voyage on his credit, should share the utmost advantage that voyage produced.' Then, embarking his men with all the wealth he had obtained, which was very considerable, he bore away for England, where he arrived in August, 1573. His success in this expedition, joined to his honorable behaviour towards his owners, gained him a high reputation: and the use he made of his riches, a still greater. For, fitting out three stout frigates at his own expense, he sailed with them to Ireland: where, under Walter, earl of Essex, the father of the famous unfortunate earl (see *DEVEREUX*), he served as a volunteer. After the death of his noble patron, he returned into England, where Sir Christopher Hatton introduced him to queen Elizabeth. He now proposed a voyage into the South Seas, through the Straits of Magellan, which was what hitherto no Englishman had ever attempted. The project was well received at court: the queen furnished him with means; and his own fame quickly drew together a sufficient force. The fleet with which he sailed, or this extraordinary undertaking, consisted only of five vessels, small when compared with modern ships, and no more than 164 able men. He sailed on the 13th December, 1577: on the 25th fell in with the coast of Barbary, and on the 29th with Cape Verd. On the 13th March he passed the equinoctial, made the coast of Brasil on the 5th April, and entered the river de la Plata, where he lost the company of two of his ships; but meeting them again, and taking out their provisions, he turned them adrift. On the 29th May he entered the port of St. Julian's, where he continued two months, for the sake of laying in provisions; on the 20th August he entered the Straits of Magellan, and on the 25th September passed them, having then only his own ship. On the 25th November he came to Macao, which he had appointed for a place of rendezvous in case his ships separated; but captain Winter, his vice-admiral, having repassed the Straits, returned to England. Thence he continued his voyage along the coasts of Chili and Peru, taking all opportunities of seizing Spanish ships, and attacking them on shore, till his men were sated with plunder; and then, coasting America to the height of 48°, he endeavoured to find a passage that way back into our seas, but could not. However, he landed, and called the country New Albion, taking possession of it in the name of queen Elizabeth; and, having careened his ship, set sail from thence, on the 29th September, 1579, for the Moluccas. He is supposed to have chosen this passage round, partly to avoid being attacked by the Spaniards at a disadvantage, and partly from the lateness of the season, whence dangerous storms and hurricanes were dreaded. On the 13th October he fell in with certain islands inhabited by the most barbarous people he had met with in his voyage; on the 4th November he had sight of the Moluccas; and, coming to Ternate, was well received by the king. On the 10th December he made Celebes, where, the 9th January following, his ship unfortunately ran upon a rock, from which, how-



## DRAKENSTEIN.

ever, he got off. On the 16th March he arrived at Java Major, and on the 25th, began to think of returning home. He doubled the Cape of Good Hope on the 15th June, having then on board fifty-seven men, and but three casks of water. On the 12th July he passed the line, reached the coast of Guinea on the 16th, and there watered. On the 11th September he made the island of Tercera, and on the 3d November entered the harbour of Plymouth. This voyage round the world was performed in two years and about ten months. Shortly after his arrival, the queen going to Deptford, went on board his ship, where, after dinner, she conferred on him the order of knighthood, and declared her approbation of all he had done. She likewise gave directions for the preservation of his ship, that it might remain a monument of his own and his country's glory. This celebrated ship, which had been laid up many years at Deptford, at length decaying, it was broke up, and a chair, made out of the planks, was presented to the university of Oxford. In 1585 he sailed with a fleet to the West Indies, and took the cities of St. Jago, St. Domingo, Carthagena, and St. Augustin. In 1587 he went to Lisbon with a fleet of thirty sail; and having intelligence of a fleet assembled in the bay of Cadiz, which was to have made part of the Armada, he with great courage entered that port, and burnt there upwards of 10,000 tons of shipping, which he afterwards merrily called 'burning the king of Spain's beard.' In 1588, when the Armada from Spain was approaching our coasts, Sir Francis Drake was appointed vice-admiral under Charles lord Howard of Effingham, high admiral of England, where fortune favored him as remarkably as ever; for he made prize of a very large galleon, commanded by Don Pedro de Valdez, who was reputed the projector of this invasion; and who surrendered, as soon as he learned it was Drake who summoned him. This Don Pedro remained about two years Sir Francis Drake's prisoner in England; and, when he was released, paid him for his own and his captains' freedom, a ransom of £3,500. Drake's soldiers were well recompensed with the plunder of this ship, for they found in it 55,000 ducats of gold, which were divided among them. In 1589 Sir Francis Drake commanded, as admiral, the fleet sent to restore Don Antonio, king of Portugal; the command of the land forces being given to Sir John Norris: but they were hardly got to sea, before the commanders differed, and so the attempt proved abortive. The war with Spain continuing, a more effectual expedition was undertaken by Sir John Hawkins and Sir Francis Drake, against their settlements in the West Indies, than had hitherto been made during the whole course of it: but the commanders here again not agreeing about the plan, this also did not turn out successfully. All difficulties, before these two last expeditions, had given way to the skill and fortune of Sir Francis Drake; which probably was the reason why he did not bear these disappointments so well as he otherwise would have done. A strong sense of them is supposed to have thrown him into a melancholy, which occasioned a bloody flux; and of this he

died on board his own ship, near the town of Nombre de Dios, in the West Indies, on the 28th January, 1595-6. His death was lamented by the whole nation. In the twenty-seventh parliament of queen Elizabeth, he was elected Burgess for the town of Bossiney, alias Tintagal, in the county of Cornwall; and he Plymouth in Devonshire, in the thirty-fifth of the same reign. This town had very particular obligations to him: for, in 1587, he undertook to bring water into it, through the want of which, till then, it had been grievously distressed; and he performed it by conducting thither a stream from springs eight miles distant in a straight line; for, in the manner he brought it, the course of it runs upwards of twenty miles.

DRAKE (James), an English physician and author, born at Cambridge in 1667, and educated at that university, where he took his degree. In 1704 he published a pamphlet, entitled *The Memorial of the Church of England*, which gave such offence that a proclamation was issued for discovering the author, which obliged him to keep concealed for some time. He was afterwards prosecuted for the publication of a newspaper, entitled *Mercurius Politicus*; and, although he was acquitted, it is supposed that the vexation threw him into a fever, of which he died in 1707. Besides the above, he published a *System of Anatomy*, 3 vols. 8vo; a *Translation of Herodotus*; a play, called *the Sham Lawyer*, &c.

DRAKE, in geography, a harbour of California, so called after the celebrated Sir Francis Drake, who discovered and took possession of the peninsula.

DRAKENSTEIN, a district in the territory of the Cape of Good Hope. The division which goes by the general name of 'Stellenbosch and Drakenstein' includes a large portion of the Cape territory. See *STELLENBOSCH*; but the name Drakenstein is peculiarly applied to two beautiful and extensive valleys situated about thirty or forty miles from Cape Town, at the foot of lofty mountains. They are called the valleys of Great and Little Drakenstein, and are to the west-east of the district of Stellenbosch, sheltered by lofty mountains, and watered throughout by the Berg and its minor streams. The subdivision of Little Drakenstein is enclosed by the large valleys, and the two together supply a large portion of the wine of the Cape. West of the valley is the village of Paarl, surrounded by a fine tract of land, and distinguished by a vast mass of granite, surmounted with a number of large round stones, like the pearls of a necklace. Mr. Anderson, Captain Cook's surgeon, describes it as at least half a mile in circumference, and appearing in its highest part 'to equal the dome of St. Paul's church. It is one uninterrupted mass, or stone,' he adds, 'if we except some fissures, or rather impressions, not above two or four feet deep, and a vein which runs across near its north end. It is of that sort of stone called by mineralogists *saxum conglomeratum* and consists chiefly of pieces of coarse quartz and glimmer, held together by a clayey cement. But the vein which crosses it, though of the same materials, is much compacter. This vein



above a foot broad or thick, and its surface cut into little squares or oblongs, disposed irregularly, which makes it look like some artificial work. But I could not observe whether it extended far into the large rock or was only superficial.' Cook's Voyages, vol. v. p. 109. The same gentleman described this remarkable stone, at length, in a letter to Sir Joseph Pringle, which is inserted in the Philosophical Transactions, vol. lxxviii. part. I. p. 102, and sent home a specimen of it which induced Sir William Hamilton to suppose it to have been raised by a volcanic explosion. Mr. Barrow considers this a perfectly gratuitous assumption, and describes it as of similar materials with the mountains of the colony, viz. aggregates of quartz and mica; the first in large irregular masses, and the latter in black lumps resembling short, mixed with pieces of felspar, and bound together by a clayey iron ore. The pearl and the diamond he speaks of as two distinct central points of the summit, of which the latter is the higher block, and shaped like a cone. The pearl is inaccessible on three sides, and rises about 400 feet from its base on the summit of the mountain, where it measures in circumference, according to this writer, a full mile. The sloping northern side, by which it is ascended, is upwards of 1000 feet in length, and nearly covered with species of green lichen. Towards the summit it is split by two deep clefts crossing at right angles, in which grow a number of beautiful plants, and several cryptogamous plants.

In the side of the mountain numerous species of the protea, particularly the mellifera, mingle with the lively green of the wild olive, and the elegant and almost endless tribe of heaths for which the colony is so remarkable, and some of which have here the growth and appearance of considerable trees. The fruit of this olive is too acid for use, but the wood is close grained, and is said to bear a fine polish. The mellifera yields a saccharine juice in the bottom of its flowers, which is considered as an excellent stomachic by the inhabitants of the district, and is occasionally boiled down with preserves, in the place of sugar. They call it the sugar-tree. The scenery of this spot in the autumn is exquisitely beautiful.

At the north, or upper end of the valley of Drakenstein, are the divisions of Dall Josephat, Waggon-maker's Valley, and Groenberg. The latter being a projecting eminence that bounds the valley northward, and participating in the fruitful character of the surrounding scene. Corn, vines, and fruits adorn its sides,—all of good quality; and the finest peaches and oranges of the colony grow in the two little dales at its feet. Little Drakenstein, the Paarl village, Franche Hook, and the three last subdivisions, northward, embrace all the divisions of this remarkable valley.

The oaks in this valley commonly reach from twenty to thirty feet in height in the stem, and measure from ten to eighteen feet in circumference; many are larger; they appear to grow more freely and naturally in the degree of shelter they here find from the violent winds: the tops are not so bent as in the neighbourhood of Cape

Town, nor is the grain of the wood, when cut, so irregular and twisted. The whole valley is well inhabited, so that few wild animals appear in the day-time; but hyenas, wolves and jackals descend from the mountains at night. Game abounds in the thick shrubbery; particularly the diiker (the diver or plunger) and the griesbock or grizzled deer; nor is the steenbok, once so plentiful as to be supposed to have given name to the neighbouring drosdy, wholly driven from the northern hills. The diiker stands about two feet and a half high, and measures upwards of three feet in length; his color is a dusky brown, and the male has black straight horns, about four feet long, and nearly parallel. The female is without horns. The griesbock is rather smaller, and of a grizzled brown color; in every other respect it is of similar appearance with the diiker. Both these animals commit considerable depredations on the young branches of the vine. Hares are numerous in the valley; common and red-winged partridges (which are as tame as poultry) quails, snipes, widgeons, and other species of wild ducks. In the mountains, both northward and eastward, are found the reebok, and the klip-springer, as he is called, or rock-leaper, the fleetest animal, perhaps, and the most formed for agility, of any in the world. His cloven hoofs are each divided into two segments, and jagged at the edges, so that he will adhere, like an insect, to the smoothest and steepest parts of the rocks. His color is a cinereous gray, and his hair is used as the best stuffing for mattresses, chairs, and saddles. No dog has any chance of keeping up with this animal, but he is easily shot as he leaps from rock to rock. The Paardeberg, or Horse Mountain, and Rick-beck's Casteel or Castle, form a continuation of the Paarl Mountain, northward. Here the zebra, Kolben's 'wild ass,' or horse, formerly abounded; at present neither horses nor cattle are reared here, except for agricultural purposes. See CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

DRA'MA, *n. s.*  
 DRAMAT'IC, *adj.*  
 DRAMAT'ICAL,  
 DRAMAT'ICALLY, *adv.*  
 DRAM'ATIST, *n. s.*

Fr. *drâme*; Lat. *drama*; Gr. *δραμα*, a scene, from *δραω*, to act. A poem representing action, or in which actions are supposed to be carried on, not related. A dramatist is the author of a drama.

Many rules of imitating nature Aristotle drew from Homer, which he fitted to the *drama*; furnishing himself also with observation from the theatre, when it flourished under Æschylus, Euripides, and Sophocles. *Dryden.*

Ignorance and errors are severely reprehended, partly *dramatically*, partly simply. *Id.*

I hope to make it appear, that, in the great *dramatic* poem of nature, is a necessity of introducing a God. *Bentley.*

The whole theatre resounds with the praises of the great *dramatist*, and the wonderful art and order of the composition. *Burnet's Theory.*

There is a kind of *drama* in the forming of a story, and the manner of conducting and pointing it, is the same as in an epigram. *Steele.*

To distress them as nothing human ever was distressed; to deliver them as nothing human ever was delivered, is the business of a modern *dramatist*. *Johnson.*



In short, his idea is to *dramatise* the penal laws, and to make the stage a court of ease to the Old Bailey.

*Sheridan.*

**DRAMA.** The drama is, for the greater part, as Dr. Johnson has defined it, an adaptation of poetry to fictitious representation and dialogue. But it is not confined to any single form that language may have assumed. The works of our greatest dramatist are interspersed occasionally with prose; and the sources of the influence of the dramatic art over our minds lie deep in the constitution of our nature. Neither are the scenic representations of our theatres essential to a just perception of the beauties, or a full resignation of the mind to the power, of this enchanting art. They are but the trappings that occasionally adorn, but often impede its progress. Man, in the lowest stages of civilisation, exhibits rude and barbarous attempts to arrive at the pleasure which the drama is calculated to impart. The inhabitants of China, and even of the islands of the South Sea, secluded from the influence of European example, participate in amusements resembling, in species, those of the theatre: and we observe in the earliest pastimes of children, imitations and representations of the conduct of their elders and superiors. They not only indulge in the mimicry of objects immediately before them, but frame out for themselves fancied similitudes of things, of which they can only have very partial knowledge. They 'pipe and they dance;' they 'mourn and they weep,' in early dramas: thus eagerly going out of themselves towards objects which have acquired a hold on the imagination and the heart. The Hindû theatre is extensive and various. Dramas bearing internal and almost indubitable evidence of being at least 500 years old (if not twice that age), could be adduced in proof of the early excellence of the Hindûs in that species of composition.

But it is to ancient Greece and her rhapsodists, tragedians, and comedians, that we must look, historically, for the origin of this art. The modern distinction between the province of the epic and the dramatic poet, was, in the rise of those pursuits, unknown. In the impassioned recitations of the rhapsodist, in the journeyings and declamations of Homer, they were mingled; while, in the orgies of Bacchus, the historians of the dramatic art are accustomed to trace its first distinct appearance. It was customary, at the feasts of this deity, to sacrifice a he-goat, that animal being supposed to be peculiarly obnoxious to the god, in consequence of the injuries the vine received from its bite. On these occasions, religious hymns were chanted in honor of the festive god, and rustic poets and reciters contended for the prize of victory. The compositions, at first produced on these occasions, were merely lyrical. To relieve the singer, however, and vary the gratification of the audience, interlocutors were soon introduced, who filled up the pauses of the song with short narratives of some heroic event. Thespis and Phrynichus added a little to this idea, by making one entire story occupy, in continuation, all the pauses of the song. In consequence of this improvement, the odes became subordinate, in some degree, to the narration, and

seemed to interrupt it at intervals. Dialogue, however, was still unknown; and, as far as this is considered essential to the dramatic art, Æschylus must be given the praise of its invention.

This distinguished poet was born, as it is generally stated, in the 69th, but on better authority, in the 63d Olympiad. Bacchus, it is said, appeared to him in a dream, in his early youth, and commanded him to write tragedies. It is far better established that he was a general in the battle of Marathon, fought in the year before Christ 490; and that he was, like the father of the British drama, Shakspeare, an actor in his own plays. Before his time the Greeks had no regular theatre. The faces of the performers being stained with the lees of wine, they exhibited themselves in the cart of Thespis, a kind of mountebank stage. To this succeeded a theatre of wood; and to that, a more permanent building of stone.

But the improvement of the chorus, in the ancient tragedy, was the most important of the alterations which it owed to Æschylus. It consisted of hymns sung in honor of Bacchus, as we have intimated, and constituted, at first, the principal part of the performance. It gradually, however, diminished in importance, as the character of the drama became developed; and Æschylus first gave it that peculiar and complicated form which is so characteristic of the Greek plays. He found it composed of a body of musicians whose lyrical performances were entirely independent of the incidents of the piece; but he makes them to sympathize with all that is transpiring on the stage, and, in effect, to become the echo of the feelings of the audience. He divided the chorus, which was formerly directed by a single person, named the Coryphæus, who frequently spoke or sung alone, into two or three bands, who addressed and replied to each other. 'By this means,' as Sir Walter Scott observes, 'the two unconnected branches of the old Bacchanalian revels were combined together; and we ought rather to be surprised that Æschylus ventured, while accomplishing such a union, to render the hymns sung by the chorus subordinate to the action or dialogue, than that he did so take the bolder measure of altogether discarding that which, before his time, was reckoned the principal object of a religious entertainment.'

The ancient tragedy was principally concerned in the development of some great event, influencing the fortunes of a dynasty, or involving the fate of a nation. Exalted personages, the sport of a luckless destiny, hurried by the god or something above the gods, from the pinnacle of their greatness to the depths of wretchedness, gave to the representation a dark and great interest, hurrying the mind irresistibly on through the widest extremes of mortal condition, to surprising the soul with fearful examples, instability in the things on which man relies with the proudest confidence. The modern drama, with more artificial contrivance and intricacy of plot, shakes the mind with quick alternations of feeling, sustaining and perpetuating its emotions by the anxiety of suspense, the flow of expectation, and the shock of discovery. The



entre among the Greeks was prone magnificent conceptions of their I had stages capable of exhibiting places almost in their real magnific proportions. Neither did their consist of tinsel ornaments, which ter amidst a profusion of artificial e the genuine productions of the he great events they celebrated neath the cope of an unclouded h the scene was formed to harmo- exence nor labor was spared to resentation perfect in its minutest : the mask and the buskin, though d to our dramatic style, were the lages of that of Athens. The chief ttained was a magnificent ideal

ow to the other branch of the art, ho flourished about B. C. 450, is of any consideration in comic dra-

Philologists and philosophers he derivation of the word *κωμῳδία*, *κωμη*, a 'village,' and have ex- son for this derivation; but they inform us who first introduced or haracters, the actors, and the pro- tote here confesses his incapacity: tely suggests the true allusion of *κωμῳδία*, and combats the absurd being derived from *κωμος*, com- revel. *Ὁς κωμῳδός, εκ απο τη εντας αλλα τη κατα κωμης πλανη, εκ τη αστιως.* 'Comedians were

wandering in the *κωμης*, or vil- gracefully expelled from the city.' His language would induce us to

comic followers of Thespis were e respectable in the origin of the e estimation of many of the legis- alists of modern times, and ill mparison with the more dignified pursuits of the tragedians. Aris- attempt a definition of comedy.

'from the first, he observes, 'for, d not, till a late period, allow a edians, but formerly they were vo- only conjectures that as the *Iliad* ormed the materials of tragedy (for fesses that his repasts consisted ents from the banquet of Homer), ner, that the *Margites* of the bard e the same analogy to comedy.

precise nature of this work, how- k philosopher does not condescend is understood to have been a ludi- cal poem at the expense of some pedagogue. The Greek comedy ow progress, and had originally but on the public mind, as compared ssful efforts of the early tragedians. er shades of human character, the ies, the characteristic traits of fri- hich the whole structure of comedy ut, were not observed, because they een elicited by circumstances, and a more artificial state of society. dy nor satire could have found opy nor feelings to work upon in

the earlier ages of the world: the whole inhab- tants of a district were divided mainly into two classes—those of the artisan and the soldier: and the simplicity and necessities of the one, and the bullying insolence of the other, were almost the only topics upon which the old comedy could descant. There was little subdivision of labor, and no subdivision of character, to furnish the Proteus-shapes of the modern comic muse.

In the old comedy of Greece the illustrious statesmen, generals, and public characters of the commonwealth were brought forward on the stage, and held up to ridicule by name before an applauding audience, until it was deservedly su- perseded by what is termed the middle comedy which abolished the chorus, and compelled the poet to substitute for any real personages or characters, in whom he attempted to satirize the vices and follies of the times, disguised or ficti- tious names. This soon gave way in its turn to the new comedy, having for its object the ludi- crous incidents and mortifications of private life. It included also some scenes which call forth pa- thetic emotion, and approached more nearly to the character of tragedy than had been admitted in the ancient comedies of Aristophanes. An agreeable intermediate species of composition was thus introduced, which became the founda- tion of the modern drama. The translations of Menander, in Plautus and Terence, give us the only remaining specimens of the new comedy.

Of the Roman tragedy the works of Seneca are the only existing remains. The alterations, indeed, which the Romans made in the drama- tic art are of little importance to its history. They lessened the theatres; and the orchestra, or, as we should say, the pit of the theatre was no longer left vacant for the occasional occupa- tion of the chorus, but was filled with senators, knights, and the more respectable citizens. The stage was thus brought more near to the eye of the better class of the audience. But an im- portant revolution was effected among this great people in the rank and estimation in which actors were held. 'The ancient Romans,' says Augustin, 'accounting the art of stage-playing and the whole scene infamous, ordained that this sort of men should not only want the honor of other citizens, but also be disfranchised, and thrust out of their tribe by a legal and disgrace- ful censure, which the censors were to execute; because they would not suffer their vulgar sort of people, much less their senators, to be de- famed, disgraced, or defiled with stage-players;' which act of theirs he calls 'an excellent true Roman prudence, to be enumerated among the Romans' praises.' Individual players, however, it is but just to add, rose to high public estima- tion. Cicero called the celebrated Roscius his friend; and Paris, the actor, preserved the life of Statius.

It has been admitted on all hands, that the progress of Christianity was unfavorable to the theatre. The primitive Christians regarded it with a double dislike: first, upon the account of its origin, as connected with heathen superstition; and, secondly, for 'the beastly and abominable license practised in the pantomimes, which, al- though they made no part of the regular drama,



were presented, nevertheless, in the same place, and before the same audience.'—'We avoid your shows and games,' says Tertullian, 'because we doubt the warrant of their origin. They savor of superstition and idolatry; and we dislike the entertainment, as abhorring the heathen religion on which it is founded.' Yet were these exhibitions never formally and legally abolished, even where Christianity became the religion of the state.

The Mysteries of the dark ages, like the orgies of Bacchus, first introduced a species of modern drama, mingled with superstitious rites. 'Whatever name they assumed,' says Sir Walter Scott, they 'were often so unworthy of the Christian religion, on which they were founded, that their being tolerated can be attributed only to the gross ignorance of the laity, and the cunning of the Catholic priesthood, who used them, with other idle and sometimes indecorous solemnities, as one means of amusing the people's minds, and detaining them in contented bondage to their spiritual superiors.' To these succeeded the Moralities, and the Romantic Dramas, cultivated so successfully in the sixteenth century in Spain, and upon the model of which the English drama suddenly arose to comparative perfection in the reigns of queen Elizabeth and James I.

We now, therefore, arrive at the modern distinction between the romantic and the classical drama; and, in the history of our own dramatical productions, these different kinds of composition are most strikingly exemplified.

Shakspeare stands alone and unrivalled among the poets who cultivated the former species. In his hands the art bounded as it were to a sudden and instantaneous perfection;—himself his own legislator and example;—freed from all external influence, and unfettered by any other rules, but those which great minds create for themselves;—and confessedly beyond the reach of imitation, not merely in respect of that poetic genius which carried him into the most sublime and pathless tracks of human thought, but of the form and fabric of his dramas.

The shape and modification of the other class were deduced from the canons of that French criticism which obtained a footing amongst us at the time of the Restoration, and constituted that secondary or reflected Greek tragedy, which, though frequently confounded with the ancient school, is at best but its type or shadow. Primarily, however, it took 'its form and pressure' from the unities, which, originating in a paraphrastic distortion of a passage in Aristotle, have held so despotic an influence over the dramatic writings of France. Its leading attributes are these:—a prologizing development of the story in the shape of a regular narrative recited by a subordinate agent, the immeasurably long speeches of the dialogue, and consequently the absence of rapid and vehement action. Add to this, the predominance of love over the destinies of the personages; a passion, 'according to Dryden, the great apologist of the school,' of such general concernment, that it delights to see its own image in a public entertainment.

Dr. Johnson well remarks upon this subject, 'He that, without diminution of any other excellence, shall preserve all the unities unbroken,

deserves the like applause with the architect who shall display all the orders of architecture in a citadel, without any deduction from its strength; but the principal beauty of a citadel is to exclude the enemy; and the greatest grace of a play are to copy nature, and instruct life.'

'The necessity of observing the unities of time and place,' says this great writer in his Preface to Shakspeare, 'arises from the supposed necessity of making the drama credible. The critics hold it impossible, that an action of months or years can be possibly believed to pass in three hours; or that the spectator can suppose himself to sit in the theatre, while ambassadors go and return between distant kings, while armies are levied, and towns besieged, while an exile wanders and returns, or till he whom they saw mourning his mistress, should lament the untimely fall of his son. The mind revolts from evident falsehood, and fiction loses its force when it differs from the resemblance of reality.'

'From the narrow limitation of time necessarily arises the contraction of place. The spectator, who knows that he saw the first act at Alexandria, cannot suppose that he sees the next at Rome, at a distance to which not the dragon of Medea could, in so short a time, have transported him; he knows with certainty that he has not changed his place, and he knows that place cannot change itself; that what was a house must become a plain; that what was Thebes can never be Persepolis.'

'Such is the triumphant language with which a critic exults over the miseries of an imperfect poet, and exults commonly without resistance in reply. It is time, therefore, to tell him, by the authority of Shakspeare, that he assumes as an unquestionable principle a position, which, while his breath is forming it into words, his understanding pronounces to be false. It is false, that any representation is mistaken for reality; that any dramatic fable, in its materiality, was ever credible, or, for a single moment, was ever credited. The objection arising from the impossibility of passing the first hour at Alexandria, and the next at Rome, supposes, that when the play opens, the spectator really imagines himself at Alexandria, and believes that his walk to the theatre has been a voyage to Egypt, and that he lives in the days of Antony and Cleopatra. Surely he that imagines this may imagine more. He that can take the stage at one time for the palace of the Ptolemies, may take it in half an hour for the promontory of Actium. Delusion, if delusion be admitted, has no certain limitation; if the spectator can once be persuaded that his old acquaintance are Alexander and Cæsar, that a room illuminated with candles is the plain of Pharsalia, or the bank of Granicus, he is in a state of elevation above the reach of reason, or of truth, and, from the height of empyrean poetry, may despise the coarse speculations of terrestrial nature. There is no reason why a mind thus wandering in ecstasy should count the clock: or why an hour should not be a century in that calature of the brain that can make the stage a field. The truth is, that judicious spectators are always in their senses and know, from the first act to the last, that it



is only a stage, and that the players are players. They come to hear a certain order of lines recited with just gesture and modulation. The lines relate to some place, and an action must be in some place; different actions that complete a story may be placed very remote from each other; and it is the absurdity of allowing that space to exist first Athens, and then Sicily, which was known to be neither Sicily nor Athens, in modern theatre?

By supposition, as place is introduced, time is extended; the time required by the fable is for the most part between the acts; for, much of the action as is represented, and the poetical duration are the same. If, in the first act, preparations for war against Mithridates are represented to be made in Rome, the end of the war may, without absurdity, be represented, in the catastrophe, as happening in Asia; we know that there is neither war, nor preparation for war; we know, that we are neither in Rome nor Pontus; that neither Mithridates nor Lucullus are before us. The drama and its successive imitations of successive actions, and why may not the second imitation represent an action that happened years after the first, if it be so connected with it, that nothing can be supposed to intervene? Time in all modes of existence, most obsequious to imagination; a lapse of years is as easily conceived as a passage of hours. In contemplation we easily contract the time of real actions, and we willingly permit it to be contracted when we only see their imitation. It will be

asked, how the drama moves, if it is not credited? It is credited with all credit due to a drama. It is admitted, whenever it moves, as a just picture of the real original; as representing to the audience what he would himself feel, if he were to do it; or what is there feigned to be suffered or done. The reflection that strikes the heart is that the evils before us are real evils, but they are evils to which we ourselves may be subjected. If there be any fallacy, it is not that we fancy the players, but that we fancy ourselves happy for a moment; but we rather lament the possibility, than suppose the presence of reality, as a mother weeps over her babe, when she remembers that death may take it from her. The delight of tragedy proceeds from our consciousness of fiction; if we thought murders and sorrows real, they would please no more.

Imitations produce pain or pleasure, not because they are mistaken for realities, but because they bring realities to mind. When the imagination is recreated by a painted landscape, the eye is not supposed capable to give us shade, or the fountains coolness; but we consider how we should be pleased with such fountains play beside us, and such woods waving over us. We are agitated in reading the history of Henry, if no man takes the book for the field of court. A dramatic exhibition is a book replete with concomitants that increase or diminish the effect. Familiar comedy is often more powerful in the theatre than in the page; imperial dignity is always less. The humor of Petrus may be heightened by grimace; but what

voice or what gesture can hope to add dignity or force to the soliloquy of Cato? A play read affects the mind like a play acted. It is therefore evident, that the action is not supposed to be real, and it follows, that between the acts a shorter or longer time may be allowed to pass, and that no more account of space or duration is to be taken by the auditor of a drama, than by the reader of the narrative, before whom may pass in an hour the life of a hero, or the revolutions of an empire.

We cannot pursue, in detail, the claims of modern dramatists to distinction. Theatrical performances, and consequently theatrical writings, were from religious motives suspended during the life of Cromwell; but at the accession of Charles, the drama re-appeared with a licentiousness that has scarcely been equalled in any other age or country. No species of literature was more admired, or more debased, than this. Milton had, some years before, in his *Comus* and *Sampson Agonistes*, endeavoured to introduce the Grecian model, but his efforts were in vain. The profaneness and nauseous indecency which characterised the dramatical writings of Charles's time had not even the veil of refinement to render them less disgusting. Folly, absurdity, and a dereliction of all the ancient rules of the drama, and even of common sense itself, were visible on every side. From this account little abatement can be made during the remainder of the century.

The celebrated play of the *Rehearsal* produced indeed some effect; but a more considerable time was required, entirely to change the prepossessions of the age. Even Dryden himself, though a writer of great original powers, was infected with a full proportion of the faults of his contemporaries. We must not, however, regard, as barren of dramatical genius, a century which began in the life-time of Beaumont, Fletcher, Jonson, and even Shakspeare himself, and which afterwards gave birth to Otway, Lee, Dryden, and others, whose names are still deservedly celebrated in dramatical literature. But, in the eighteenth century, the drama became more regular in its composition, and less openly impure in its language and sentiments. Collier having collected together a variety of offensive passages from the writings of our dramatic authors, the public, not wholly dead to taste and decency, started with displeasure at the disgusting recital, and having perceived the hideousness of such passages in combination, determined no longer to tolerate them in detail. From this time, not even the genius of Congreve could reconcile them to gross impurity; so that, although much, very much, still remains which modesty can by no means approve, we have never reverted to that open licentiousness which our dramatists were at one time accustomed to display. The taste of the eighteenth century was farther evidenced by the rejection of rhyming plays, and a growing admiration for the works of Shakspeare. Bombast of language was no longer confounded with loftiness of idea, nor a series of puns or quibbles mistaken for the festivity of genuine wit.

Modern dramatic poetry may be considered as comprehending tragedy, comedy, and farce.



These are sufficiently distinguished by their general spirit and strain. While pity and terror, and the other strong passions, form the province of the tragic muse, the chief instrument of comedy and farce is ridicule. These last two species of composition are indeed so perpetually running into each other, that they can hardly be distinguished: it is true that what is now known by the name of farce, is too much inclined to the extravagance of ridicule; but the most commendable specimens of this kind of entertainment differ in nothing essential from proper comedy. 'Comedy proposes for its object,' says Dr. Blair, 'neither the great sufferings, nor the great crimes of men; but their follies and slighter vices, those parts of their character which raise in beholders a sense of impropriety, which expose them to be censured and laughed at by others, or which render them troublesome in civil society.'

The subjects of tragedy are not limited to any age or country; but the scene and subject of comedy should always be laid in our own country, and in our own times. The reason is obvious; those decorums of behaviour, those lesser discriminations of character, which afford subject for comedy, change with the differences of countries and times; and can never be so well understood by foreigners as by natives. The comic poet, who aims at correcting improprieties and follies of behaviour, should catch the manners living as they rise. It is not his business to amuse us with a tale of other times; but to give us pictures taken from among ourselves; to satirize reigning and present vices; to exhibit to the age a faithful copy of itself, with its humors, its follies, and its extravagancies.

Comedy may be divided into two kinds: comedy of character, and comedy of intrigue. The former is the more valuable species; because it is the business of comedy to exhibit the prevailing manners which mark the character of the age in which the scene is laid: yet there should be always as much intrigue as to give us something to wish and something to fear. The incidents should so succeed one another, as to produce striking situations, and to fix our attention; while they afford at the same time a proper field for the exhibition of character. The action in comedy, though it demands the poet's care in order to render it animated and natural, is a less significant and important part of the performance than the action in tragedy; as in comedy it is what men say, and how they behave, that draws our attention, rather than what they perform or what they suffer. In the management of characters, one of the most common faults of comic writers is the carrying of them too far beyond life. Wherever ridicule is concerned, it is indeed extremely difficult to hit the precise point where true wit ends and buffoonery begins. When the miser in Plautus, searching the person whom he suspects of having stolen his casket, after examining first his right hand, and then his left, cries out, *Ostende etiam tertium*. Show me your third hand, there is no one but must be sensible of the extravagance. Certain degrees of exaggeration are allowed to the comedian, but there are limits set to it by nature and good taste; and supposing the miser to be ever so much engrossed by his jealousy and

his suspicions, it is impossible in comical man in his wits suspecting another of having more than two hands.' See POETRY.

DRAMMEN, a town in the government of Christiania, Norway, consisting of two distinct places; Bragernaes and Stromsøe, situated one on the north and the other on the south bank of the river Drammer, which here discharges itself into the gulph of that name. A brisk trade is here carried on in timber and iron brought from the interior. The harbour admits only small vessels. Population of the whole place about 6000. Twenty miles south-west of Christiania.

DRANCE, a river of Switzerland, which runs through the lower Valais, and falls into the Rhone. In June, 1818, a dreadful calamity occurred here, from an accumulation of the waters of this river in the narrow valley of Bagnes. The fall of an enormous avalanche, or rather glacier, had blocked up the mouth of the valley, and the waters of the Drance were thus formed into a lake, acquiring additional height daily. The most expedient was to cut a canal through the top of the ice, to stop the farther accumulation of the water. This was accordingly done; and the water, flowing through the channel, fell down some days on the opposite side into the bed of this river, forming a magnificent cascade. On the 16th, however, the accumulated mass burst in narrow bounds, and overwhelming the lower valley, as far as the bed of the Rhine, swept away trees, cottages, and cattle, with a great number of the inhabitants of Champsee and Martigny.

DRAPE, *v. n.* Fr. *drap*; low. Lat. *drapum*.  
 DRA'PER, *n. s.* *pus*. To make cloth; a draper is he who sells this useful commodity; and drapery cloth-work, and in a particular sense, *wool* cloth-work; hence the cloth itself when made, and the dress made of it. Hence also any kind of flowing dress, robes, or stuff. *Draperia* used by Spenser as synonymous with *drapery*.

Thence she them brought into a stately hall,  
Wherein were many tables fair dispread,  
And ready dight with *drapery* feastful,  
Against the *wands* should be ministered.

*Faris (Grec)*

It was rare to set prices by statute; and the law did not prescribe prices, but stinted them not to exceed a rate, that the clothier might *drap* *as much* as he might afford.

He made statutes for the maintenance of *drapery* and the keeping of wools within the realm.

*Id. Henry VI.*

If a piece of cloth in a *draper's* shop be rumpled, it will appear of differing colours.

*Boyle on Colours.*

The *draper* and mercer may measure but.

*Hand.*

Poets are allowed the same liberty in their descriptions and comparisons, as painters in their *sculptures* and ornaments.

*Pope.*

I could wish, for the sake of my country, that there was such a kind of everlasting *drapery* to be made use of by all who live at a certain distance from the town, and that they would agree upon such fashions as should never be liable to change or innovations.

The Bulls and Frogs had served the last *drapery* with *drapery* ware for many years.

*Arbuthnot's History of John Bull.*



length, and men, and maids, who

spectacle their eyes before!

series, Julia swooned,  
ing, breathless, by the door,  
drapery scattered on the ground,  
and several footsteps, but no more.

Byron.

ir William), an English general,  
l, where his father was collector of  
He received his education at Eton  
college, Cambridge, after which he  
last Indies, where he rose to the  
el. In 1763 he took Manilla, in  
ith admiral Cornish; but the fort  
from plunder, on condition of pay-  
of 4,000,000 of dollars, which was  
ged. The commander was, how-  
knight of the Bath. In 1769 he  
n a controversy with Junius, in de-  
nd the marquis of Granby. In 1769  
nted lieutenant-governor of Mi-  
hen that place surrendered to the  
ught an accusation against general  
overnor, but after his trial general  
ommanded by the court to make an  
a. General Draper died at Bath in

Κ, *adj.* *Δρακτικός*. Powerful;  
acious. It is used of a medicine  
h speed; as jalap, scammony, and  
urges.

See DRIVE.

rge navigable river of Germany,  
the former archbishopric of Saltz-  
yrol, runs south-east through Sti-  
dividing Hungary from Slavonia,  
Danube at Essek. Gold is some-  
from its washings.

See DRAFT.

f, *n. s.* } See DRAW.  
ORSE, }  
OUSE. }

in architecture, or, as it is pro-  
the figure of an intended building  
aper; wherein are laid down, by  
pass, the several divisions and  
the apartments, rooms, doors,  
veniences, &c., in their due pro-  
s exceedingly convenient, before a  
gun to be raised, to have draughts  
phy, or ground plot, of each floor:  
n and fashion of each front, with  
doors, ornaments, &c., in an or-  
upright. Sometimes the several  
e taken, and represented in the  
to show the effect of the whole  
is called a scenography, or per-

a medicine. See POTION.

a trade, called also cloff or clouch  
ance on weighable goods, made by  
importer, or by the seller to the  
weight may hold out when the  
hed again. The king allows 1 lb.  
ds weighing not less than 1 cwt.,  
s weighing between 1 and 2 cwt.,  
s weighing between 2 and 3 cwt.,

4 lbs. from 3 to 10 cwt., 7 lbs. from 10 to 18 cwt.,  
9 lbs. from 18 to 30 or upwards.

DRAUGHT is also used sometimes for a bill of  
exchange, and commonly for an order for the  
payment of any sum of money due, &c. The  
person who gives the order is said to draw upon  
the other.

DRAUGHT Hooks, large hooks of iron fixed on  
the cheeks of a cannon carriage, two on each side,  
one near the trunnion hole and the other at the  
train, distinguished by the name of fore and hind.  
Large guns have draught hooks near the middle  
transom, to which are fixed the chains that  
serve to keep the shafts of the limbers on a march.  
The fore and hind hooks are used for drawing  
a gun backwards or forwards, by men with  
strong ropes, called draught ropes, fixed to these  
hooks.

DRAUGHT HORSE, in farming, a sort of coarse  
made horse, destined for the service of a cart or  
plough.

DRAW, <i>v. a., v. n., &amp; n. s.</i>	Sax. dragan; Tent.
DRAFTMENT, <i>n. s.</i>	<i>trecken</i> , from Lat.
DRAUGHT, <i>n. s.</i>	<i>traho</i> , to pull; i. e.
DRAUGHT-HORSE,	Gr. <i>δραω</i> , to do any
DRAUGHT-HOUSE,	thing with violence.
DRAW'BACK, <i>n. s.</i>	See DRAG. To pull
DRAW BRIDGE,	in a particular di-
DRAWEE,	rection, or with
DRAW'ER,	force sufficient to
DRAW'ING,	overcome resist-
DRAW'ING-ROOM,	ance: hence to
DRAW'WELL.	lengthen, to force

generally, and to wrest or distort: hence also to  
attract, to extract, and to protract; to let fluids  
run; to inspire air; to deduce or derive; to  
trace in lines, or sketch; and, metaphorically,  
to form in writing, or compose; to collect; to  
bring off or away from combat, legal dispute, or  
friendly contest (thus we speak of a 'drawn'  
battle, suit, or game); and, literally or meta-  
phorically, to lead, seduce, entice, or persuade;  
with their consequences, to gain, win, or receive.  
Of the various prepositions often added to the  
active verb, to *draw off*, and to *draw up*, seem  
the only idioms: the one is applied to liquors  
drained through a vent, and often means to empty,  
as in the brewhouse; the other, to draw up, is to  
complete in writing, to compose in a formal  
manner. We cannot see the propriety of ex-  
plaining *draw in*, *draw over*, &c., as different  
senses of the verb, any more than draw away,  
*draw aside*, or *draw down*: they are all but dif-  
ferent applications of the same idea. As a neu-  
ter verb, to draw signifies to act as a weight or  
overcoming force, hence as a beast of burden;  
to adhere, contract, come together; advance  
towards; to practise delineation; take a lot, or  
card. As a substantive, 'a draw' is sometimes  
used for the act of drawing, and a lot, or the  
thing drawn. Dr. Johnson says, that to draw re-  
tains through all its varieties of use some shade  
of its original meaning, to pull; and expresses  
'a gradual, continuous, and leisurely action':  
rather, we presume, overcoming force, and what-  
ever time is necessary to make it effectual. Draught  
is the act or habit of drawing; a thing,  
quantity, or number drawn; hence, a quantity  
drunk, a prescribed quantity or dose of medi-



## DRA

**cine**; a drain; and the quantity of water necessary to float a vessel; a representation, a picture. A draught-horse is one that habitually draws carriages; a draught-house, a house in which offal, or what is drawn off from general use, is deposited. A draw-back is what is claimed back or against an account, whether by way of discount, abatement of legal dues, or otherwise. A draw-bridge, one that can be withdrawn at pleasure; drawee is explained in the extract; a drawing-room is one into which company withdraws; and a draw-well, one that is furnished with means for drawing up water.

Therefore thei don alle her werkis, that thei be seen of men: for thei *drawen* abroad her falateries and magnyfyen hemmes, and thei love the firste placis in soperis, &c. *Wiclif.*

And he wente and *drough* him to oon of the cyte-seynes of that cuntre, and he sente him into his toun to feede swyn. *Wiclif. Lull. xv.*

I will *draw* my sword; my hand shall destroy them. *Exodus xv.*

From the hewer of thy wood unto the *drawer* of thy water. *Deut. xxix. 11.*

The liers in wait *draw* themselves along. *Judges xx. 37.*

*Draw* ye near hither all the chief of the people. *1 Sam.*

And they brake down the image of Baal, and brake down the house of Baal, and made it a *draught*house. *2 Kings.*

Whatsoever entereth in at the mouth goeth into the belly, and is cast out into the *draught*. *Matt. xv. 17.*

Now *draweth* cutte or that ye for ther turnne; He which that bath the shortest shal beginne. *Chaucer. Prolog. to Cant. Tales.*

The Irish will better be *drawn* to the English, than the English to the Irish government. *Spenser on Ireland.*

I conceive the manner of your handling of the service, by drawing sudden *draughts* upon the enemy, when he looketh not for you. *Id.*

Whereas it is concluded, that the retaining diverse things in the church of England, which other reformed churches have cast out, must needs argue that we do not well, unless we can shew that they have done ill: What needed this wrest to *draw out* from us an accusation of foreign churches? *Hooker.*

I wish that both you and others would cease from *drawing* the scriptures to your fantasies and affections. *Whitgift.*

Go, *draw* aside the curtains, and discover The several caskets to this noble prince. *Shakespeare.*

Clerk, *draw* a deed of gift. *Id.*

Go, wash thy face, and *draw* thy action: come, thou must not be in this humour with me. *Id.*

The poet Did feign that Orpheus *drew* trees, stones, and floods; Since nought so stockish, hard, and full of rage, But musick, for the time, doth change his nature. *Id.*

For thy three thousand ducats here is six. —If every ducat in six thousand ducats Were in six parts, and every part a ducat, I would not *draw* them, I would have my bond. *Id.*

For his sake Did I expose myself, pure; for his love *Drew* to defend him, when he was beset. *Id.*

## DRA

What, art thou *drawen* amongst those hinds?

There is no more faith in thee than in a prane; no more truth in thee than in a draw.

I'll raise such artificiall sprights, As by the strength of their illusion Shall *draw* him on to his confusion. *Id.*

The wine of life is *drawen*, and the mere is left this vault to brag of.

This seems a fair deserving, and must *draw* That which my father loses. *Id. King.*

Some blood *drawn* on me would begot you Of my more fierce endeavour.

With his other hand, thus o'er his brow He falls to such perusal of my face, As he would *draw* it. *Id.*

Stand in some bye room, while I question *drawee* to what end he gave me the sugar. *Id. Henry.*

Ulysses and old Nestor yoke you like a draught and make you plough up the wair. *Id. Troilus and C.*

In process of time, and as their people in they *drew* themselves more westerly towards Sea.

Geffrey of Boullion, at one *draught* of shooting against David's tower in Jerusalem, three feettless birds called allerions. *C Camden's R.*

There was no war, no dearth, no stop of commerce; it was only the crown which had too hard, and now being full, upon the new young king, was like to *draw* less. *Bacon's Henry.*

We see that salt laid to a cut finger, healed as it seemeth salt *draweth* blood, as well as *draweth* salt. *Id.*

I have not yet found certainly, that the wax by mixture of ashes, or dust, will shrink, or draw less room. *Id. Natural H.*

When the fountain of mankind Did *draw* corruption, and God's curse, by sin.

This was a charge that all his heirs did bind And all his offspring grew corrupt thereto. *Id. Sir J. B.*

Having the art by empty promises and *draw* others to his purpose. *Id. Bay.*

Under colour of war, which either his *draws* on, or his practices procured, he leaved sidy.

The English lords did ally themselves Irish, and *drew* them in to dwell among and gave their children to be fostered by them.

She had all magnetic force alone, To *draw* and fasten sundered parts in one. Let the *drawers* be ready with wine and glasses; Let the waiters have eyes, though their work be tied. *Ben Jonson's Town.*

Half the buildings were raised on the one, and the other half on an island, continued by a *drawbridge*. *Carew's Survey of I.*

One injury *draws* on another.

The covetous man is a downright *draw* draught-horse without bells or feathers. *Id.*

*Draw* out with credulous desires, and At will the manliest, resolutelest breast, As the magnetic hardest iron *draws*.



and the archangel soon *drew* nigh,  
e celestial, but as man

*Id. Paradise Lost.*

I, and strayed I know not whither,  
first *drew* air, and first beheld  
it.

*Id.*

*ought* for Juno when she bauquets,  
te thy treasonous offer.  
ey invented tones to win  
n, and make them *draw* in  
as Indians with a female  
hant inveigle the male?

*Hudibras*

a habit different from that of the times,  
d only beheld in pictures, which *drew*  
a, and the reverence of many, towards

*Clarendon.*

a *drawn* together of near six thousand

*Id.*

ward, with the king's troops, seeing  
emy left on that side, *drew* up in a  
site to the bridge.

*Id.*

continued about nine days without  
might have continued longer, if, by  
himself one night with hard study,  
ad some inclination to take a small

*Boyle*

ed oil of vitriol, and by degrees mixed  
il oil of wormwood, *drawn* over with  
eck.

*Id. on Colours.*

tion of the subtle matter would *draw*  
ation of the nice controversies that  
phers.

*Id. on Fluids.*

I requite all the honour we can do it,  
it will *draw* down upon us.

*Tillotson.*

*ought* of a pond, not one fish was left,  
rown to an excessive bigness.  
ents and revolutions of these govern-  
men the usual instructions of princes

*Temple.*

s entered into commerce with the  
l from them *drew* the rudiments of

*Id.*

d some very desperate coughs by a  
mornng of spring water, with a handful  
a it.

*Id.*

custom of using oxen for all sorts of  
be perhaps the greatest improvement.

*Id.*

amid the flaming fuel thrown,  
med to *draw*, a dying groan.

*Dryden's Fables.*

ut a file, pick man by man,  
die, and dear will sell their death.

*Dryden.*

The rest

rs and fillets for the feast,  
and served, their hunger they appease.

*Id.*

e a blank, and smiles.

*Id.*

in *drawn* presented to our view  
sieged.

*Id. Tyrannic Love.*

Muley-Zeydan found us  
in battle, to receive the charge.

*Dryden.*

is a kind of *drawing* after the life;  
ne will acknowledge there is a double  
ess, a good one and a bad.

*Id.*

breve whate'er her soul designed,  
py *draught* surpassed the image in her

*Id.*

decks, her guns of mighty strength,  
*ought*, and warlike in her length.

*Id.*

In some similes, men *draw* their comparisons into  
minute particulars of no importance.

*Felton on the Classics.*

The first conceit tending to a watch, was a *draw-  
well*: the people of old were wont only to let down a  
pitcher with a hand-cord, for as much water as they  
could easily pull up.

*Greer.*

People do not care to give alms without some se-  
curity for their money; and a wooden leg or a wi-  
thered arm is a sort of *draughtment* upon heaven for  
those who choose to have their money placed to ac-  
count there.

*Mackenzie.*

Folly consists in the *drawing* of false conclusions from  
just principles, by which it is distinguished from mad-  
ness, which *draws* just conclusions from false princi-  
ples.

*Locke.*

When he finds the hardships of slavery outweigh  
the value of life, 'tis in his power, by resisting his  
master, to *draw* on himself death.

*Id.*

Those elucidations have given rise or increase to  
his doubts, and *drawn* obscurity upon places of scrip-  
ture.

*Id.*

There may be other and different intelligent beings  
of whose faculties he has as little knowledge, or ap-  
prehension, as a worm, shut up in one *drawer* of a  
cabinet, hath of the senses or understanding of a  
man.

*Id.*

The Maltese harden the bodies of their children,  
by making them go stark naked, without shirt or  
*drawers*, till they are ten years old.

*Id.*

I have, in a short *draught*, given a view of our ori-  
ginal ideas, from whence all the rest are derived.

*Id.*

It was the prostitute faith of faithless miscreants  
that *drew* them in, and deceived them.

*South.*

Every *draught*, to him that has quenched his  
thirst, is but a further quenching of nature; a provi-  
sion for rheum and diseases.

*Id.*

A good inclination is but the first rude *draught* of  
virtue; but the finishing strokes are from the will;  
which, if well disposed, will by degrees perfect; if  
ill disposed, will by the superinduction of ill habits  
quickly deface it.

*Id.*

Majesty in an eclipse, like the sun, *draws* eyes that  
would not have looked towards it if it had shined out.

*Suckling.*

Philoclea found her, and to *draw* out more, said  
she, I have often wondered how such excellencies  
could be.

*Sidney.*

Philoclea intreated Pamela to open her grief; who,  
*drawing* the curtain, that the candle might not com-  
plain of her blushing, was ready to speak.

*Id.*

In private *draw* your poultry, clean your tripe,  
And from your eels their slimy substance wipe.

*King.*

A man of fire is a general enemy to all waiters, and  
makes the *drawers* abroad, and his footmen at home,  
know he is not to be provoked.

*Tatler.*

From the soft assaults of love  
Poets and painters never are secure:

Can I, untouched, the fair one's passions move,  
Or thou *draw* beauty, and not feel its power?

*Prior.*

Numbered ills, that lie unseen  
In the pernicious *draught*: the word obscene,  
Or harsh, which, once elanced, must ever fly  
Irrevocable, the too prompt reply.

*Id.*

His sword ne'er fell but on the guilty head;  
Oppression, tyranny, and power usurped,  
*Draw* all the vengeance of his arm upon 'em.

*Addison*



If we make a *drawn* game of it, or procure but moderate advantages, every British heart must tremble.

*Id.*

I shall say nothing of those silent and busy multitudes that are employed within doors in the *drawing* up of writings and conveyances.

*Id.*

Such a *draught* of forces would lessen the number of those that might otherwise be employed.

*Id.*

While near the Lucrine lake, consumed to death, I *draw* the sultry air, and gasp for breath, You taste the cooling breeze.

*Id. on Italy.*

They should keep a watch upon the particular bias in their minds, that it may not *draw* too much.

*Id. Spectator.*

Authors, who have thus *drawn off* the spirits of their thoughts, should lie still for some time, till their minds have gathered fresh strength, and by reading, reflection, and conversation, laid in a new stock of elegancies, sentiments, and images of nature.

*Id. Freeholder.*

Some might be brought into his interests by money; others *drawn over* by fear.

*Id. on the War.*

When the engagement proves unlucky, the way is to *draw off* by degrees, and not to come to an open rupture.

*Collier.*

Sucking and *drawing* the breast dischargeth the milk as fast as it can be generated.

*Wise man on Tumours.*

I opened the tumour by the point of a lancet, with-out *drawing* one drop of blood.

*Id. Surgery.*

In poundage and *drawbacks* I lose half my rent; Whatever they give me, I must be content.

*Swift.*

Love is a flame, and therefore we say beauty is attractive, because physicians observe that fire is a great *drawer*.

*Id.*

The report is not unartfully *drawn*, in the spirit of a pleader, who can find the most plausible topics.

*Id.*

They slung up one of their hogsheds, and I drank it off at a *draught*; which I might well do, for it did not hold half a pint.

*Gulliver's Travels.*

Spirits, by distillation, may be *drawn out* of vegetable juices, which shall flame and fume of themselves.

*Cheyne.*

The arrow is now *drawn* to the head.

*Atterbury.*

Why *drew* Marseilles' good bishop purer breath, When nature sickened, and each gale was death?

*Pope.*

Shall Ward *draw* contracts with a statesman's skill?

*Id.*

They random *drawings* from your sheets shall take, And of one beauty many blunders make.

*Id.*

What you heard of the words spoken of you in the *drawing-room* was not true: the sayings of princes are generally as ill related as the sayings of wits.

*Id.*

Delicious wines the attending herald brought; The gold gave lustre to the purple *draught*.

*Id. Odyssey.*

Now, sporting muse, *draw* in the flowing reins; Leave the clear streams awhile for sunny plains.

*Gay.*

Batter a piece of iron out, or as workmen call it, *draw* it out, till it comes to its breadth.

*Maxon.*

With a small vessel one may keep within a mile of the shore, go amongst rocks, and pass over shoals, where a vessel of any *draught* would strike.

*Ellis's Voyage.*

The most occasion that farmers have, is for *draught* horses.

*Mortimer's Husbandry.*

The joiner puts boards into ovens after the batch is *drawn*.

*Id.*

Till rescued from the crowd beneath,  
No more with pain to move or breathe,  
I rise with head elate, to share  
Salubrious *draughts* of purer air.

*S.*

It is sweet to feel by what *fine-opens* the affections are *drawn* together.

The power of *drawing*, modelling, and hours, is very properly called the language of

*See J. H.*

There is a court jargon, a chit-chat, a *chit* which turns singly upon trifles; and which great many words, says little or nothing. I fools instead of what they cannot say, and sense instead of what they should not say. proper language of levees, *drawing-rooms*, and chambers.

*Chit*

Compliments of congratulation are always taken, and cost one nothing but pen, ink, as I consider them as *draughts* upon good where the exchange is always greatly in the *drawer*.

As the subtle enemy of mankind takes care men gradually into sin, so he usually *draws* degrees into temptation.

Just when our *drawing-rooms* begin to

With lights, by clear reflection multiplies From many a mirror, in which he of Goliath, might have seen his giant bulk. Whole without stooping, towering crest as My pleasures too begin.

Here, my friend, are the *drafts* of two *draw* I wish to have your opinion on.—By one, enjoy eight hundred a-year independence while and, by the other, the bulk of my fortune at

*Id.*

A bill of exchange is a written order for payment of a certain sum of money at an appointed time. It is a mercantile contract in which four persons are mostly concerned, viz. 1. The *drawer*, who gives the value. 2. His debtor in a distant place whom the bill is drawn, who is called the *drawee* who is to accept and pay it, &c.

*Dr. Reid's Cui*

**DRAWBACK**, in commerce, certain duties of the customs or of the excise, allowed upon exportation of some of our own manufactures or upon certain foreign merchandises, the paid duty on importation. The duties merchants importing and exporting are to obtain the drawback on foreign goods, viz. the truth of the officer's certificate of entry, and the due payment of the duties these may be made by the agent of any nation or company, or by the known agent of any merchant usually employed in making entries and paying his customs. In the case of foreign goods entered outward, if less value be fraudulently shipped out than is expressed in the exporter's certificate, or if therein mentioned, or their value, are not paid, and no drawback is allowed. Foreign goods imported by certificate in order to obtain drawback, not shipped or exported, or re-exported from Great Britain, unless in case of distress, are liable to be forfeited, lose the benefit of drawback, and are forfeited, or their value is forfeited, or by whose privity they are landed, or into whose hands they shall come, are to forfeit double the amount.



Officers of the customs conniving at any fraud relating to certificate or other penalties, are to forfeit their office six months' imprisonment with mainprize; as are also masters, or agents to the ships employed therein. For the exportation of certificate goods must not be delivered up, nor drawn for any goods, till a certificate under seal of the collector or commissioner of the customs be produced, testifying

See CUSTOMS.

BRIDGE may be made after several

different ways; but the most common are made with piers, twice the length of the gate, and a foot in diameter. The inner square is traversed with a cross, which serves for a counterpoise; and the chains which hang from the extremities of the piers, to lift up or let down the bridge, are iron or brass. In navigable rivers it is sometimes necessary to make the middle arch of bridges with two moveable platforms, to be raised occasionally, in order to let the masts and rigging of ships pass through. But this contrivance has fallen into disuse before our modern improvements in the construction of bridges.

## DRAWING.

is the art of representation by delineating the appearances of things on a surface, by means of lines, shades, and colors, formed by various coloring materials of *drawing*, or of delineating the outlines, terminations, and forms of objects, considered as the basis of painting, of greatest importance to every artist; labor lost, when the painter endeavored, by ingenious artifices of color, to give a form which are fundamentally incoherent. It is the groundwork of architecture, and is equally

so called *par excellence*, embraces all the qualities of the art, and demands a true taste, and a well-practised hand. It requires knowledge of pictorial geometry, anatomy, proportion, both relative and absolute practice. Sir Joshua Reynolds says of it, 'an armour, which upon the one hand is an ornament and a defence; and upon the other, a mis-shapen, a load.' It leads to the composing, and gives what is called the feeling of the chalk or pencil.

The polished nation the study of this art has been held in high esteem:—not only a delightful employment in itself, but from the more important consequences its influence upon the mind and the forming the eye, and directing the habitual discrimination of dimension, proportion, and order; and we may say that those who, either from their birth or circumstances, are denied a competent share of the world's wealth, it presents a powerful aspiration after excellence in the art if it deserve encouragement, rarely giving it. The great masters of all ages, in their skill in drawing, in the practice of which they were incessant; nor did they cast off the portraiture assuming the brush, but first made sketches of their intended compositions, and then finished drawing of the whole, and more correct drawings of the part;—they then painted the picture all retouched and finished the life.

The greatest artists of ancient times,

Apelles, surnamed *the prince of painters*, is mentioned by ancient writers as the most eminent for the beauty of his drawing. After the revival of the arts in Italy, Michelangiolo Buonarroti appears to have been the most learned and daring, and Raffaele the most correct and graceful. The Roman and Florentine schools, indeed, have excelled all others in this fundamental part of the art: of the former, Raffaele, Guilio Romano, Polydore, and their scholars; and of the latter, Michelangiolo, Leonardo da Vinci, and Andrea del Sarto, have been the most distinguished. In the Bolognese school, the Carraccis, particularly Annibale, whose execution is wonderful, are particularly eminent. In the French school, Poussin, Le Sueur, and Le Brun; and in the English school, omitting living artists, Mortimer, West, Barry, and Gavin Hamilton, demand commendation.

The human figure, as it is the most difficult, should be the first object of the student. To accomplish this, he must begin by acquiring a facile management of his portraiture and crayon, so as to delineate with correctness the effects of the outline, and of the light and shade of the object which he has before him. When these first rudiments of drawing are obtained, and the student can trace, with sufficient correctness, the elementary parts of the figure, as ears, eyes, hands, &c. (plates II. & IV.), he should then apply to the study of the human figure, after the antique, and after nature, in a philosophical manner.

The different styles of drawing or design may be arranged under the heads of *individual nature*, or that of common or familiar forms, with all the imperfections and peculiarities of the individual model; *select nature*, or that wherein the artist has composed or made a selection from the mass of individual models that he has had before him; and, thirdly, the *grand style*, the *gran gusto* of the Italians, the *beau ideal* of the French, the ideal beauty of the Greeks in which they are so much our masters.

The *individual style* is that in which the Dutch masters, our great Hogarth and Wilkie, and his school, are so excellent. The *select style* has been ennobled by Raffaele, and by the Carracci with their eclectic school; and, in the third style, none have surpassed the great sculptors of anti-



quity, particularly those who executed the majestic Apollo Belvedere, and the marvellous works called the Elgin marbles.

The progress of the young artist's studies in drawing or designing, ought to be founded upon a graduated scale. Individual nature, at the commencement of his studies; select, as he proceeds, and, when he attempts originality, idealized according to the precepts of Reynolds, and the practice of Phidias.

SECT. I.—OF THE PROPER MATERIALS AND INSTRUMENTS FOR DRAWING, AND THE MANNER OF USING THEM.

The first step towards attaining a proficiency in drawing, is the study of geometry and perspective. Geometry is the science of extension, quantity, or magnitude abstractedly considered, and demands the greatest attention from the scientific artist. Perspective is that branch of optics which teaches how to represent objects on a plain surface, in the manner wherein they appear under the peculiarities which arise from distance and height. A knowledge of these two branches of science may be said to form the fundamental part of drawing; and, when beginning, the learner must furnish himself with proper materials and instruments; such as black lead pencils of different degrees of hardness; crayons of black, white, and red chalk; crow or duck-quill pens; Indian ink or seppia: as also with drawing-boards, rules or straight edges, and compasses; drawing-boards for fastening the paper upon, so that it may not shift, and likewise for straining it, to prevent the colors, or the washes of tint, when laid wet upon the paper, from causing it to swell so as to dry uneven. The simplest of these latter requisites is made of a deal board glued together to its proper width and length, strengthened with a piece rabbeted on at each end, to prevent warping. The paper may be fixed down upon this board with pins, wafers, or sealing wax, or it may be strained with paste or glue in the following manner:—First wet the paper well with a sponge, omitting the edges, which should be turned up about half an inch in width on every side; apply a small quantity of good paste or glue all round on the under side, and press the paper down upon the board with a cloth, rubbing it well with your nail, or the smooth handle of a knife to secure it. In the process of drying, the paper, which had expanded and blistered up much when wet, will contract, and (the edges being fixed immovably) will strain quite flat and tight, and will be much fitter for drawing upon than when loose. But the best drawing boards are made with a frame and a moveable panel, upon which the paper is simply put wet, and then forced into the frame, where it is confined by wedges or keys at the back. This strains equally well, without the trouble of pasting, so that it may be dried at the fire; it also looks better.

The young student must accustom himself to hold the pencil or port-crayon further from the point than he does a pen in writing, which will give him a better command of it, and render his lines or delineations more free and bold.

For Indian ink or seppia drawings, the first

outlines are to be sketched in by the black pencil, so that any part which is not correct may be easily obliterated by the Indian rubber. The sketch is as correctly done with the pencil as the student's power, he is then to draw careful outline with the crow or duck-quill pen diluted ink or seppia. After this he is to charge the pencil lines, by rubbing it over the crumb of stale bread or Indian rubber pigment used for this purpose is either ink, or seppia, which is a pleasanter color, and softer in execution. By rubbing up with soft water on a plate, or palette of ware or marble, they may be made of required degree of strength, and used in the same way as steel pen like common ink.

Having got the outline clear and correct, the next step is to shade the work properly by drawing fine strokes with the pen in a direction which is called hatching, and of which the engravings were imitations, or by washing in shadows, and softening them into the light with camel-hair pencils, and tints of Indian seppia. As to the rule and compasses, they are very rarely to be used, except in architectural geometrical drawings, or in measuring the portions of figures, after they are drawn, to see whether they are correct or not; or, in the delineation of fortifications and lines of perspective. Chalks and crayons are managed in a similar manner, except that the light shades are drawn with the material dry, and hatched and softened into one another, in the same way.

SECT. II.—OF DRAWING LINES, SQUARES, CIRCLES, AND OTHER GEOMETRICAL FIGURES.

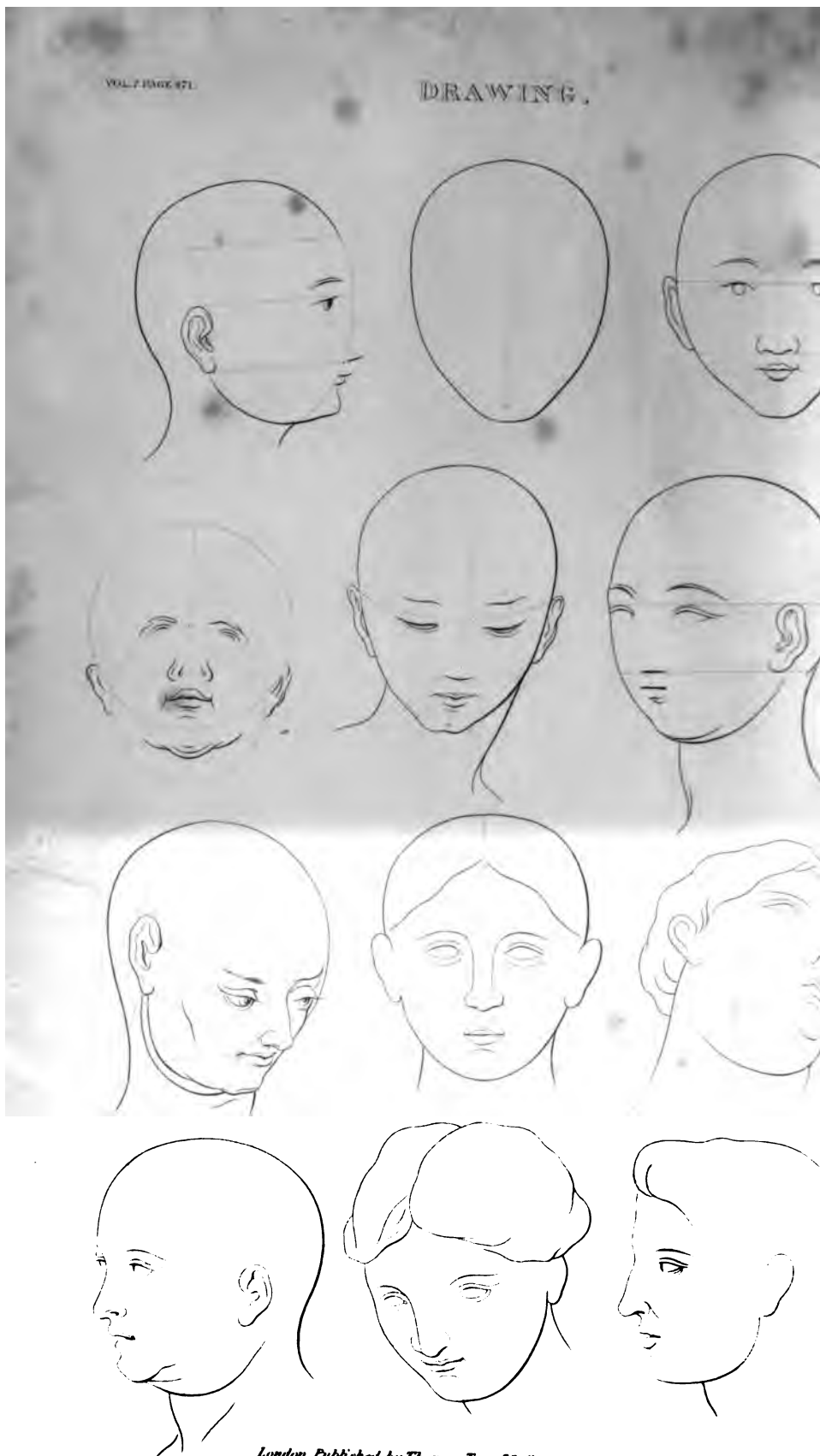
The first practice of a learner should be to draw straight and curved lines, with ease and firmness, upwards and downwards, inclined to the right and left, or in any required direction. In drawing lines inclining to the right, or quite horizontal, he must hold his elbow close to his side, and his hand close to the paper; when writing, when perpendicular, the elbow should be removed to about seven inches from the paper, and when inclined to the left, at a very considerable distance, according to the degree of the angle forms. A good practice, illustrating this precept, is for the student to draw a series of equilateral triangles, with a particular line drawn from the apex; and a variety of right angled triangles, with their hypotenuses, bases, and perpendiculars of various dimensions. He should also learn to draw squares, circles, ellipses, and other geometrical figures: for as the alphabet or a knowledge of the letters of a language is an introduction to grammar, so is geometry to drawing.

The practice of drawing these simple figures, till he becomes master of them, will enable him to imitate, with ease and accuracy, many forms both in nature and art, which are composed thereof. Four general principles may here be laid down: 1. Never attempt to draw a figure in a hurry, but always make master of one figure before he goes on to the next. 2. Always practice the necessary practice will appear to him as he proceeds. 3. He should accustom himself to draw all his









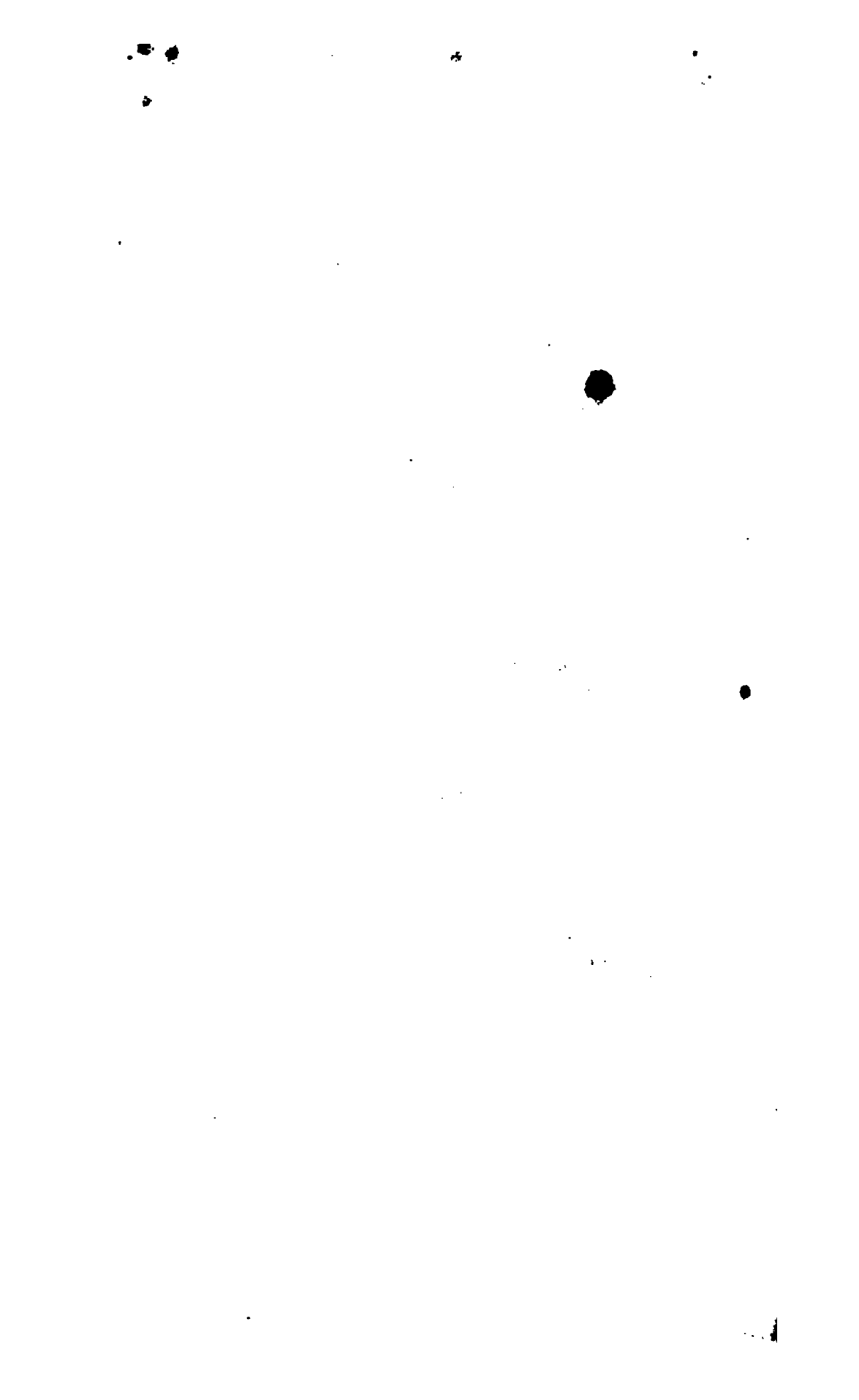








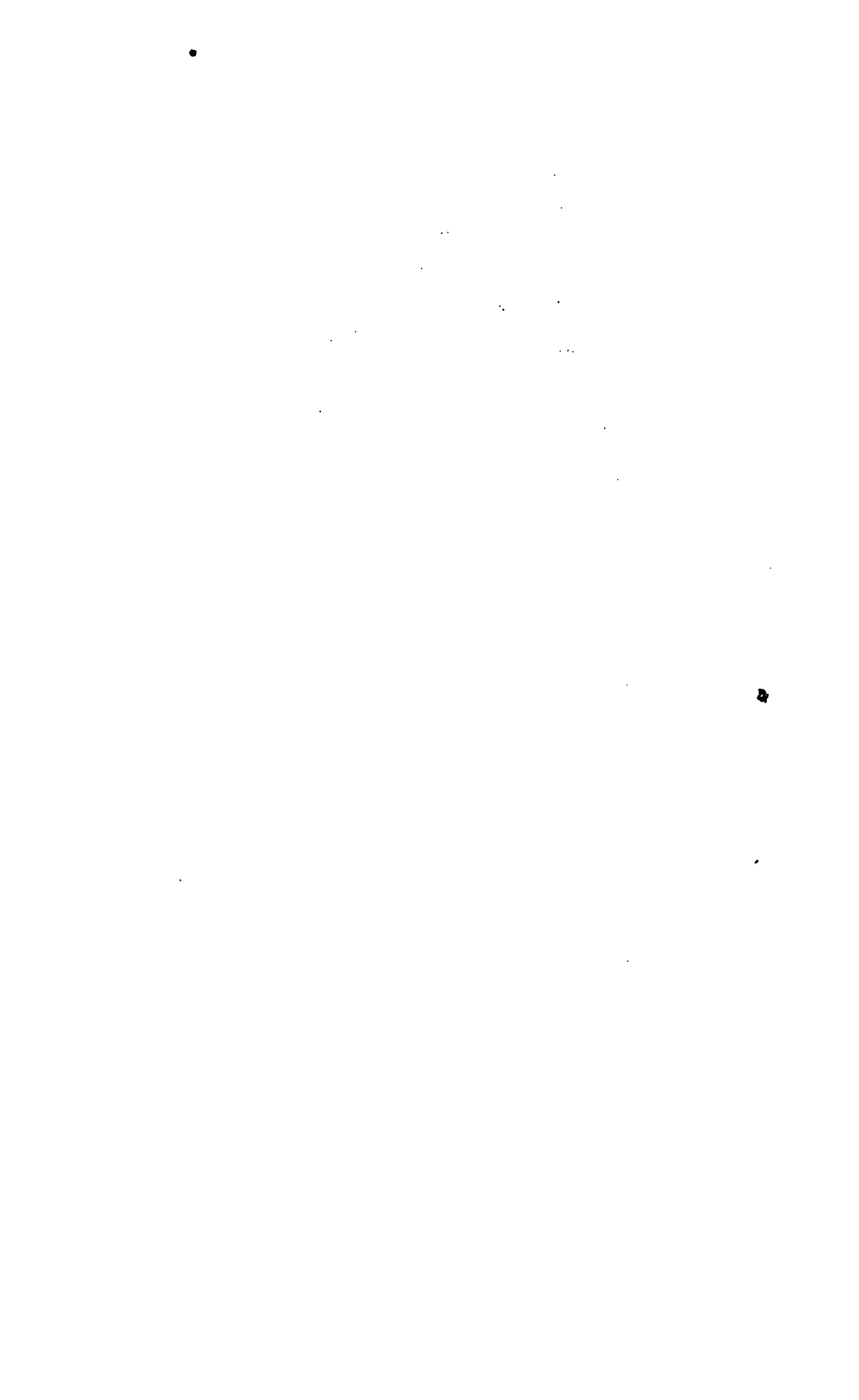






























DRAWING.

PLATE II.

WEeping



LAUGHTER



JOY



JEALOUSY



ATTENTION



SADNESS



ACUTE PAIN



VENERATION



RAPTURE



ADMIRATION



ANGER



DESIRE



considerable size, which is the only method requiring a free and bold manner. 3. He should practice drawing till he has gained a tolerable command of his pencil, before he attempts to make any figure or object of any kind what-so-ever; and, 4. He should not aim at finishing exactly any single part, before he has sketched faintly, with light strokes of the pencil, the general shape and proportion of the whole figure; correcting it afterwards wherever necessary.

#### SECT. III.—OF DRAWING EYES, EARS, FLOWERS, FRUITS, BIRDS, BEASTS, &c.

The learner should begin with drawing the outlines of eyes, ears, &c., as in plate II. with the same and parts of faces as in plate III., after the manner of the modes directed in section I. He should next proceed with flowers, fruits, birds, &c., and the like; not only as it will be a more engaging employment to those who do not aim at the severer beauties of the art, but as an easier one, particularly to young ladies, than the drawing of hands and feet, and other parts of the human body, which require not only more care, but greater exactitude and nicer judgment. Very good instructions are necessary upon this head. The best thing that a learner can do is, to furnish himself with good prints or drawings by way of copies, and copy them with great care and steadiness. If it is the figure of a beast, let him begin with the forehead, and draw the nose, the ear and under jaw, and stop at the throat. Then he should return to the top of the head, and trace the ears, the neck, and the back; continuing the line till he has given the full shape of the rump and buttock. Then proceed to the chest and breast, mark out the legs and feet, and delineate the belly. And, lastly, as before directed in section I., when the learner has acquired some proficiency in the art, let him draw the outline here instructed, and finish it with shadows, or add the proper colors after nature as directed in section XII. It would not be amiss, by way of ornament, to add a small sketch of a landscape, appropriate to the country of the animal, either by way of a vignette, or determined by a parallel-gram like a picture; of these, and other subjects, the learner will find many examples among the plates of this work.

#### SECT. IV.—OF DRAWING LEGS, ARMS, HANDS, FEET, &c.

In the drawing of legs and arms, the learner has very little more to do than to copy exactly the examples of arms given in plate IV., and of legs in plate V. But the actions and positions of the hands are so many and so various, that certain rules can be given for drawing which will universally hold good. Yet, as hands and feet are difficult to draw, it is necessary to bestow some time and pains upon them; carefully imitating their various poses and actions, so as not only to avoid all appearance of lameness and imperfection, but to give them life and spirit. To arrive at this great care, study, and practice are requisite, especially in imitating at first, that is before attempting to draw from statues or from nature, the best prints or drawings that can be obtained

of hands and feet; examples of which are given in plates IV. and V. As to mechanical rules for delineating them by lines and measures, they are not only difficult and perplexing to the student, but are also contrary to the practice of the best masters. And here the general rule above mentioned must be applied, which is, to sketch out faintly, with light strokes, the general shape and proportion of the whole hand, with its action and turn; and after considering whether this first sketch be perfect, and altering it wherever it may be amiss, to proceed to the bending of the joints, the knuckles, the veins, and other small particulars, which, when the learner has obtained the whole shape and proportions of the hand or foot, will not only be more easily, but also more perfectly drawn.

#### SECT. V.—OF DELINEATING FACES.

The head is usually divided into four equal parts, namely, 1. from the crown of the head to the top of the forehead. 2. From the top of the forehead to the eye-brows. 3. From the eye-brows to the bottom of the nose. 4. From thence to the bottom of the chin. But this proportion, as may justly be inferred, is not invariable; these features being, in different men, often very different as to length, breadth, and shape: in a handsome well-turned face, however, it is nearly correct. In delineating a perfect face, therefore, the learner's first business must be to sketch slightly an oval or egg-like figure with its broadest hemisphere upwards; then to bisect it with a perpendicular line from the top to the bottom. Through the middle of this line he will draw a diametral one, directly across from one side to the other of the oval. On these two lines all the features of the face are to be delineated as follows: first divide the perpendicular line into four equal parts, the first of which is to be allotted to the hair of the head; the second is from the top of the forehead to the top of the nose between the eye-brows; the third is from thence to the bottom of the nose; and the fourth includes the lips and chin. The diametral line, or the breadth of the face, is always supposed to be the length of five eyes; it must therefore be divided into five equal parts, and the eyes placed upon it so as to leave exactly the length of one eye between them. This is to be understood only of a full front face as in plate I., for if it turn to either side, the distances are to be lessened on that side which turns from you, more or less in proportion. The top of the ear is to rise parallel to the eye-brows, at the end of the diametral line. The nostrils ought not to come further out than the corner of the eye in any face; and the middle of the mouth must always be placed on the perpendicular line. See plate I., DRAWING.

#### SECT. VI.—OF DRAWING HUMAN FIGURES.

When the student is tolerably perfect in drawing faces, heads, hands and feet, he may next attempt to draw the human figure at full length. He should begin by sketching the head; then draw a perpendicular line from the bottom of the head seven times its length, or as many heads as the figure is high from which he is drawing; for in general the length of the head is about one-eighth



part of the length of the figure. The best-proportioned figures of the ancients are seven heads and three quarters in height, but they vary as required by the different characteristics of the figure. If, therefore, the figure stands upright, as fig. A, plate VI., draw a perpendicular line from the top of the head to the heel, which must be divided into two equal parts. The bottom of the belly is exactly the centre of the figure. Then divide the lower part into two equal parts again; the middle of which is to be the middle of the knee.

The method of delineating the upper part of the figure is as follows:—Take off with the compasses the length of the face, which is about three-fourths of the length of the head; then set off the length of another face from the pit of the throat to the pit of the stomach; thence to the navel is another face in length, and thence to the lower rim of the belly is a third.

The entire line must then be divided into seven equal parts: against the end of the first division is the situation of the breasts; the second is the place of the navel; at the third mark out the privities; the fourth comes in the middle of the thigh; the fifth to the lower part of the knee; the sixth to the lower part of the calf; and the seventh to the bottom of the heel; the heel of the leg which supports the body being always under the pit of the throat.

As the essence of all good drawing consists in making a correct sketch at first, the student must be very accurate and careful in this stage of his business, rubbing out and sketching again till he is right in all the bearings and proportions; and finishing no one part perfectly till he finds the general sketch and character of the figure complete and good; and when it is all in, correctly to his mind, he may then proceed to the finishing of one part after another, with all the fidelity in his power.

Some artists, when they have a statue to copy, begin with the head, which they finish, and then proceed in the same manner to the other parts of the figure, perfecting as they go on: but this manner is generally unsuccessful; for, if they make the head in the least too large or too small, the consequence is a manifest disproportion between all the parts, occasioned by their not having sketched the whole proportionably at first. Let the more advanced student therefore remember that, in whatever he intends to draw, he should first sketch its several parts, measuring the distances and proportions between each with his finger or his pencil, without using the compasses, observing the precept of Du Piles 'to bear the compass in his eye,' and then to judge of its general effect by the eye which by degrees will be able to estimate truth and proportion, and will become his principal and best guide. Let him also observe, as a general rule, invariably to begin with the right hand side of the piece he is copying; for thus he will always have what he has done before his eyes, and the rest will follow more naturally and with greater ease. Whereas if he begin with the left side of the figure, his hand and arm will cover what he does first, and deprive him of the sight of it; by which means he will not be able to proceed with so much ease, pleasure, or certainty.

When these more mechanical parts are acquired, and their real measurements sufficiently familiar, the student may proceed in respect to the order and manner of drawing the human figure, as follows:—First he should sketch the head; then the shoulders in their exact length, in relation to the head; then draw the trunk of the body, beginning with the arm-pit (leaving the arms for an after consideration), and so trace all the beautiful undulations which form the outline of the human body, down the hips on both sides; observing carefully the exact bend of the waist. Then he should draw that by upon which the body stands, and afterwards the other which is in repose: then the arms, and last of all the hands. He must carefully notice all the bowings and bendings that are in the figure, making the part which is opposite to that bending inwards correspond to its antagonist by swelling outwards.

For instance: if one side of the body bend in, the other must naturally swell out to be agreeable to it: if the back bend in, the belly must swell out; if the knee bend out, the leg must bend in, and so on of every other joint in the body. In a word, he must endeavour to form all the parts of the figure with truth, and in just proportion; not one arm or one leg bigger or less than the other; nor broad Herculean shoulders with a weak and slender waist; nor raw and bony arms with thick and puffy legs; but preserving an harmonious agreement and keeping amongst all the members, and consequently a beautiful symmetry throughout the whole figure. When these rudiments of drawing the human figure are thus acquired, and the student can draw with sufficient correctness, he must now apply himself to its study after the antique and nature in a philosophical manner; studying *Iconology* and *Anatomy* as his surest directors. See those articles.

In copying after the antique, which should precede and always accompany that of drawing after nature, the following statues and sculptures are among the master-pieces of ancient art to which the student's attention is particularly directed as subjects for his studies in chalk drawing or design: namely, first of all the remains of ancient art, those incomparable works known by the name of the Elgin marbles. Of these the figures called Theseus or Hercules, the Iliissus, the Cupid, and the wonderful fragment of the chest and shoulders of Neptune, stand pre-eminent among the naked ones: the colossal statue of Bacchus, the Fates, the Victory, the Canopus, and the Panathenæic procession among the dressed and every one of them—from the Minotopes to the fragment of a toe—for various degrees and kinds of perfection in art. They were for more than 700 years the admiration of the ancient world, and, in the time of Pliney, were regarded as inimitable for their grace and beauty.

The torso of the Belvedere, commonly called the torso of Michel Angelo, as being a considerable favorite with that great master, is another beautiful study for the young artist; as is also the Farnese Hercules, which is a wonderful master-piece of art. The Apollo Belvedere



of ancient statues, and presents  
ect for the pencil. The Laocöon  
lid beauties of another character;  
de Medicis is a perfect model of  
y, grace, elegance, and sweetness,  
he perfection of the female form.  
of the Belvedere is a magnificent  
male youthful beauty, and the  
diators are remarkable for their  
omical correctness.

ident has mastered these, and im-  
with their beauties and propor-  
ommence drawing after nature, or  
model; undertaking a course of  
natomical drawing, and an occa-  
o the beauties of the antique, to  
reat mannerism and individuality

#### OF THE PROPORTIONS AND MEASURES OF THE HUMAN BODY.

r middle part, between the extre-  
nd and feet of a well-proportioned  
is in the navel, but that of an  
s pubis; and the practice of di-

viding the measures of children into four, five,  
and six parts, of which one is given to the head,  
is made use of in the way of proportion both by  
painters and sculptors.

A child of two years of age is in general about  
five heads high, but, of four or five years old,  
nearly six; about the fifteenth or sixteenth year,  
seven heads are the proportion or measure, and  
the centre declines to the upper part of the pu-  
bis. Hence it appears that, as the growth of  
the body advances, there is a gradual approach  
to the proportion of an adult of nearly eight heads  
in the whole height; of which, as before men-  
tioned, the head itself makes one.

Upon these principles the following table is  
constructed, exhibiting the proportions of a strong,  
and of a graceful man, and of a fine woman, as  
given by the ancients, measured from the origi-  
nals at Rome, and published by J. J. Volpato  
and Raffaele Morghen. It is found in Elmes's  
Dictionary of the Fine Arts. The models are,  
the Farnese Hercules, the Belvedere Apollo, and  
the Medicean Venus, which may be classed as  
the Doric, the Ionic, and the Corinthian orders  
of human beauty.

PROPORTIONS OF THE	HERCULES		APOLLO.		VENUS.	
	P. M.		P. M.		P. M.	
anning of the head to the root of the hairs . . . . .	3	0	3	0	3	0
t of the hairs to the eye-brows, or beginning of the . . . . .	3	0	3	0	3	0
brows to the end of the nose . . . . .	3	0	3	0	3	0
of the nose to the bottom of the chin . . . . .	3	0	3	0	3	0
to the articulation of the clavicle with the sternum . . . . .	6	0	5	1	4	3½
cle to the end of the breast . . . . .	9	4	9	3½	10	5
of the breast to the middle of the umbilicus . . . . .	10	4	10	5½	8	2
licus to the symphysis pubis . . . . .	8	2	7	4½	11	4½
physis pubis to the middle of the patella . . . . .	23	3	24	0	18	2
lle of the patella to the beginning of the flank . . . . .	30	1½	28	2	27	3
t to the swell of the foot . . . . .			23	3½		
ill of the foot to the bottom of the figure, or to the . . . . .			4	4		
lla to the ground . . . . .					25	3
lla to the end of the heel of the right leg . . . . .	29	2½	14	1½		
the sole of the foot . . . . .	6	1½			3	5½
art of the foot from the ground . . . . .	10	1½			9	0½
p to the end of the toes . . . . .			9	0	6	3
cle or collar-bone to the beginning of the deltoid muscle . . . . .	14	1				
the whole clavicle on the right side . . . . .	10	4	10	4½	6	0½
icle to the nipple . . . . .	15	1½	15	0	11	2
of the breast to the other . . . . .						
readth of the trunk, taken a little below the beginning of . . . . .	22	4	18	3		
f the trunk from the end of the breast . . . . .					15	4½
t part of the same, taken at the beginning of the . . . . .	19	3½	15	3	15	1
readth of the ossa ilei, where the flanks project most . . . . .	21	1½	16	4	17	5
est part of the deltoid muscle to the end of the biceps . . . . .			17	0½		
anning of the os humeri to the cubit . . . . .	22	1½			20	2
of the biceps to the beginning of the hand . . . . .	15	1½	16	0	14	0
readth of the fore arm in front . . . . .	8	2	4	5	5	0
readth of the arm in front . . . . .	6	1	5	3	4	5
e pulse of the arm in front . . . . .	5	1				
readth from one trochanter to the other . . . . .	22	0	17	5	19	3
readth of the thigh in front . . . . .			9	2½	9	5
readth of the left thigh . . . . .	11	0½				
readth of the knee, opposite to the middle of the patella . . . . .	6	4	5	3½	5	0
readth of the calf of the leg . . . . .	7	5½	6	3½	6	3½
readth between the inner and the outer angle . . . . .	4	3	4	0½	4	0



PROPORTIONS OF THE	HERCULES.		APOLLO.		VENUS.	
	P.	M.	P.	M.	P.	M.
The narrowest part of the foot . . . . .	3	5	3	3	3	1
The broadest part of the same . . . . .	6	4	5	0	3	1
From the last vertebra of the neck to the lower part of the os sacrum . . . . .	38	4				
From the end of the os sacrum to the end of the glutæus . . . . .	6	4				
From the end of the glutæus to the beginning of the gastrocnemius muscle . . . . .	15	4				
From the beginning of the gastrocnemius muscle to the end of the figure . . . . .	30	1				

The entire proportions of these celebrated statues are, in round numbers; the Hercules seven heads, three parts, seven minutes (four parts being equal to one head, and twelve minutes equal to one part). The Apollo seven heads, three parts, six minutes; and the Venus seven heads, three parts. The other most admired statues differ a little from these proportions—the Laocöon measuring (if erect) seven heads, two parts, three minutes; the Pyramus seven heads, two parts; the Antinous seven heads, two parts; the Grecian shepherdess seven heads, three parts, six minutes; and the Mirmillo eight heads; but all their various proportions are harmonious and agreeable, and in keeping with the characters of the figures they represent.

It is a leading principle, in which every person who is conversant in the arts of design agrees, that, without a perfect knowledge of the proportions of the human figure, nothing can be produced but absurdity and extravagance; and it is also universally admitted, that the ancient Greek and Roman sculptors attained the highest success in producing unexceptionable models.

The greatest modern artists, who have examined these antique statues with attention, admit, that several of the ancient sculptors have, in some degree, surpassed nature, no living man having been found so perfect in every part as some of their figures are. The opportunities for acquiring excellence, which they possessed, were indeed great: Greece abounded with models of beauty, strength, and elegance; and Rome being mistress of the world, every thing beautiful, rich, or curious was brought to it, from all parts. The motives which inspired them and their patrons were also powerful. Religion, glory, and interest, all united in their aid. They considered it a kind of religious duty to give to the figures of their gods so much beauty and grandeur, as to attract at once the love and veneration of the people. Their own glory was also concerned, particular honors being conferred on those who succeeded; and for their fortune they had no farther care to take of that, after arriving at a certain degree of celebrity.

#### SECT. VIII.—OF THE ATTITUDES OF THE HUMAN FIGURE.

If an artist be required to represent a powerful athletic figure, such as a Hercules or a Sampson, in a state of vigorous action, he must pay particular attention to the parts or limbs which are principally exerted in such action. If the figure be standing, the foot must be placed in a right line or perpendicular to the trunk or bulk of the body, so that the centre of

gravity may be placed in equilibrio. This point or centre is determined by the heel; or, if the figure be on tiptoe, then the ball of the great toe in the centre. The muscles of the leg which supports the body must be swelled, and the tendons drawn more to an extension than those of the other leg, which is only so placed as to receive the weight of the body like a buttress or a prop, towards that way to which the action inclines it.

For example, suppose Hercules is to be represented, aiming a blow with his club, at something before him, towards his left side. Then must his right leg be placed so as to receive the whole weight of his body, and the left merely touching the ground with the toes. In this case the external muscles of the right leg must be strongly marked; while those of the left leg must be represented more flaccid, and in repose; but, as the foot is extended, the muscles that compose the calf of the leg are extended also, as those of the right are compressed and twisted. For if the leg or tibia is extended, then the extending muscles are most swelled; but if it be bent, then the bending muscles and their tendons appear most plainly.

The like may be observed of the muscles of the whole figure in general, if it be represented in vigorous action. The Laocöon furnishes an example of this muscular appearance being varied through the whole figure; while in the Antinous, the Apollo, the youthful Bacchus, and other figures where no energetic action is represented, the muscles are expressed but faintly, as they appear through the skin in nature.

The clavicles, or collar bones, and the muscles in general, do not show themselves so strongly in the female as in the other sex, nor in youth as in adults. Nor will any action in which a female uses her utmost strength occasion such risings or indications of the muscles as they do in the stronger sex. The great quantity of fat under the skin of females so clothes their more delicate muscles as to prevent such a marked appearance.

#### SECT. IX.—OF THE EFFECTS OF THE EXERCISE OF THE MUSCLES.

The most obvious effects of the exertion of those muscles which chiefly demand the attention of the artist are the following: viz.

If either of the mastoid muscles (see the plate of muscles in Anatomy) act, the head is turned to the contrarieside, and the muscle which performs that action appears very plainly through the skin.

If the arms be raised, the deltoid muscles placed on the shoulders, which perform that



tion, swell, and make the extremities of the blades of the shoulder blades, called the tops of the shoulders, appear indented or hollow. The shoulder blades following the elevation of the arms, their bases incline at that time obliquely inwards. If the arms be drawn down, put forward, or pulled backwards, the shoulder-blades rarely vary their positions accordingly. These particulars can only be learned by an attentive study of anatomy and of the living model; which means the student becoming acquainted with the circumstances which attend every action he will be able to form an idea how they ought to be expressed.

When the cubit or fore-arm is bent, the biceps has its belly very much raised, as shown in the left arm. The like may be observed of the triceps when the arm is extended, as shown in the right arm.

The straight muscles of the abdomen appear very strong when arising from a recumbent posture.

Those parts of the great serratus muscle which are received in the beginnings of the oblique descending muscle immediately below, are very much swelled when the shoulder on the side is brought forwards; the serratus muscle then being in action in drawing the scapula forwards.

The long extending muscles of the trunk act alternately in walking. If the right leg bears the weight of the body, and the left is advancing on tiptoe, the last-mentioned muscles of the right, on the left side, will be tumefied on the other side about the region of the loins, and so on the other side.

The trochanters, or outward and uppermost ends of the thigh bones, (see the skeleton in the *Atlas of Anatomy*,) vary in their positions in such a manner as that no precise observations can explain their several appearances; but a careful study of the living model, placed in action, must be carefully attended to. If either thigh be extended, as when the whole weight of the body rests on that side, the glutæus or buttock-muscle presents a very different appearance from what it offers at another time, or when in repose; but if the thigh be drawn backwards, that muscle becomes still more tumefied.

When the whole leg is drawn upwards and forwards, and at the same time the foot is inclined inwards, the upper part of the sartorius muscle appears, rising very strong. In other positions of the thigh that muscle makes a furrowing appearance in its whole progress.

If a man be on tiptoe, the extending muscles of the leg, which are situated on the fore-part of the thigh and those of the foot, which compose the calf of the leg, appears very strongly, and the long peroneus makes a considerable indentation or furrowing at that time in its progress on the outside of the leg. Many other remarks might be made on this subject; but an attentive study of nature will render them unnecessary. Indeed we beg leave to refer the reader for further illustration, to the plates and article *ANATOMY*.

#### SECT. X.—OF THE EFFECTS OF THE PASSIONS IN GENERAL.

When the student has thus made himself master of the various attitudes and muscular

exertions of the human body, it will be necessary for him next to study the effect of the passions upon the limbs and features. The passions, says Le Brun, are motions of the soul, either upon her pursuing what she judges to be for her good, or shunning what she thinks hurtful; and commonly, whatever causes emotions of passion in the soul, creates also some action in the body. It is therefore necessary for a painter to know which are the different passions of the soul, and how to delineate them.

Le Brun has been extremely happy in delineating many of the passions, and the young artist cannot study any thing better than the examples which he has left us of them; and of which we have given a copy in plate VI. However, as De Piles justly observes, it is absurd, as well as impossible, to pretend to give such particular demonstrations of them, as to fix their expression to certain strokes, which the painter should be obliged to use as essential and invariable rules. This, he very properly says, would be depriving the art of that excellent variety of expression which has no other principle than diversity of imagination, the extent of which is infinite. The same passion may be finely expressed several ways, each yielding more or less pleasure in proportion to the painter's understanding and the spectators' discernment.

Although every part of the face contributes towards expressing the sentiments of the heart, yet the eye-brow is the principal seat of expression, and that wherein the passions principally indicate themselves. It is certain, says Le Brun, that the pupil of the eye, by its fire and motion, very well shows the agitation of the soul, but then it does not express the kind or nature of such an agitation; whereas the motion of the eye-brow differs according as the passions change their nature. To express a simple passion, the motion is simple; to express a mixed passion, the motion is compound: if the passion be gentle, the motion is gentle; and if it be violent, the motion is so too.

We may observe farther, says he, that there are two kinds of elevation in the eye-brows: one, in which the eye-brows rise up in the middle—this elevation expresses agreeable sensations, and it is to be observed that then the mouth rises at the corners: the other, in which the eye-brows rise up at the ends, and fall in the middle; this motion indicates bodily pain, and then the mouth falls at the corners. In laughter, all the parts agree; for the eye-brows, which fall towards the middle of the fore-head, make the nose, the mouth, and the eyes follow the same motion. In weeping, the motions are compound and contrary; for the eye-brows fall towards the nose and over the eyes, and the mouth rises that way. It is to be observed also, that the mouth is the part of the face which more particularly expresses the emotions of the heart: for when the heart complains, the mouth falls at the corners; when it is at ease, the corners of the mouth are elevated, and when it has an aversion, the mouth is protruded and rises in the middle.

'The head,' says De Piles, 'contributes more to the expression of the passions, than all the



other parts of the body put together. Those separately can only show some few passions, but the head expresses them all. Some, however, are more peculiarly expressed by it than others: humility, by hanging it down; arrogance, by lifting it up; languor, by inclining it on one side; and obstinacy, when, with a still and resolute air, it stands upright, fixed, and stiff between the two shoulders. The head also best shows our supplications, threats, mildness, pride, love, hatred, joy, and grief. The whole face and every feature contribute something; especially the eyes, which, as Cicero says, are the windows of the soul. The passions which they more particularly discover are pleasure, languishing, scorn, severity, mildness, admiration, and anger; to which we may add joy and grief, if they did not proceed more particularly from the eye-brows and mouth: but when these two passions fall in also with the language of the eyes, the harmony will be wonderful.

But though the passions of the soul are most visible in the lines and features of the face, they often require the assistance also of the other parts of the body. Without the hands, for instance, all action is weak and imperfect; motions, which are almost infinite, create numberless expressions: it is by them that we desire, hope, promise, call, send back; they are the expressive instruments of threatening, prayer, horror, and praise; by them we approve, condemn, refuse, admit, fear, ask; express our joy and grief, our doubts, regrets, pains, and admiration. In a word, it may be said, as they are the language of the dumb, that they contribute not a little to speak a language common to all nations, which is the language of painting. But to say how these parts must be disposed for expressing the various passions is impossible, nor can any exact rules be given for it, both because the task would be infinite, and because every one must be guided in this by his own genius and the particular turn of his own studies.

#### SECT. XI.—OF THE PARTICULAR EFFECTS OF THE DIFFERENT PASSIONS ON THE FEATURES.

Notwithstanding the justice of the preceding observations of De Piles, yet Le Brun has given such an accurate description of the particular effects of the passions on the human features, as must be of essential service to all who wish to attain proficiency in any of the arts of design. We therefore subjoin it, not only as an illustration of his drawings, copied in plate VI. but as containing a set of general rules to the student for depicting the various passions of human nature.

1. *Attention*.—The effects of attention are to make the eye-brows sink, and approach the sides of the nose; to turn the eye-balls towards the object that causes it; to open the mouth, and especially the upper part; to decline the head a little, and to fix it without any other remarkable alteration. See plate VI. 1.

2. *Admiration*.—Admiration causes but little agitation in the mind, and therefore alters but very little the muscles of the face. Nevertheless the eye-brows rise, the eyes open a little more than ordinary; the eye-balls, placed equally be-

tween the eye-lids, appear fixed upon the object; the mouth half opens, but occasions no sensible alteration in the cheeks. Ibid. 2.

3. *Admiration combined with Astonishment*.—The motions that accompany this mixed emotion are scarcely different from those of simple admiration; except, that they are more lively and more strongly marked. The eye-brows are more elevated, the eyes more open, the eye-balls removed farther from the lower eye-lid, and more steadily fixed: the mouth more open, and all the muscles in stronger action.

4. *Veneration*.—Admiration begets esteem, and esteem, in a high degree, produces veneration, which, when it has for its object something divine or beyond our comprehension, occasions the head to decline, and the eye-brows to bend downward. The eyes become almost closed and fixed, and the mouth is shut. These motions are gentle, and produce but little alteration in the other parts of the face. Ibid. 3.

5. *Rapture*.—Although rapture has occasionally the same object as veneration, only viewed in a different manner, yet its motions and characteristics are different. The head becomes inclined to the left side, the eye-balls and eye-brows rise directly up; the mouth half opens, and the corners are also a little turned up; while the other parts remain in the natural state. Ibid. 4.

6. *Desire*.—This passion brings the eye-brows together, and protruded towards the eyes, which are more open than ordinary. The eye-balls are inflamed, and place themselves in the middle of the eyes. The nostrils rise up, and contract themselves towards the eyes; the mouth opens, and the spirits, being in motion, give a lively glowing color to the whole countenance. Ibid. 5.

7. *Joy*.—Very little alteration is perceived in the faces of those who feel within themselves the sweetness of this passion, or of joy mixed with tranquillity. The forehead is smooth and serene; the eye-brows without motion, elevated in the middle; the eye pretty open, and with a laughing air; the eye-balls lively and shining; the corners of the mouth turned up a little; the complexion lively, and the cheeks and lips red. Ibid. 6.

8. *Laughter*.—That kind of laughter which is produced by joy mixed with surprise, makes the eye-brows rise towards the middle, and bend towards the nose; the eyes become almost closed, and are sometimes wet with tears, which make no alteration in the face. The mouth, half open, shows the teeth; the corners of the mouth draw back, cause a wrinkle in the cheeks, which contract so as to partially close the eyes; the nostrils expand, and all the face is of a red color. Ibid. 7.

9. *Acute Pain*.—Acute pain occasions the eye-brows to approach one another, and to rise towards the middle; the eye-balls are convulsed under the eye-brows, the nostrils rise and wrinkle the cheeks; the mouth half opens and is drawn back, and all the muscles of the face are agitated in proportion to the violence of the pain. Ibid. 8.

10. *Simple Bodily Pain*.—This degree of suffering produces proportionably the same motions the last, but in a less violent degree. The eye-brows do not approach so close, nor rise so much; the



to be fixed upon some object; but the wrinkles in the cheeks are more marked; the lips are farther apart, the nostrils are more open, and the mouth is half

The dejection which is projection of the mind, makes the face towards the middle of the forehead towards the cheeks. The eye-turbid, the white of the eye is drawn down. All about the eyes becomes open, its corners being drawn carelessly droops on one of the eyes becomes of a heavy color, and bid. 9.

The alterations occasioned in the face by weeping are very eye-brows sink down towards the forehead; the eyes are all wet and drawn downwards. The nostrils swell, the sides of the forehead appear, the sides thereof are drawn wrinkles on the cheeks: the under presses the upper one; all the lips are contracted, and especially about the eye-brows, the and the cheeks. Ibid. 10.

That lively attention to the object, which is called compassion, causes the face to sink towards the middle of the forehead; the eye-balls to be fixed upon the object; the sides of the nostrils to be a little elevated, forming the mouth to be open; the lips to be raised and thrust forwards; all the parts of the face to be directed towards the object which attracts. Ibid. 11.

The motions of this feeling are lively: the forehead becomes wrinkled, the sides of the nose next the eyes sink, the nostrils much risen. The eyes are fixed, the eye-balls in the middle: the lips are drawn towards the eyes, and in the cheeks. The mouth is drawn down, and the under beyond the upper. Ibid. 12.

A despised object sometimes excites the eye-brows become knit, more than in the last instance. The lips are placed at the bottom of the eyes, by the lower eye-lids; the mouth is drawn closer in the middle than in the last instance; the muscles, make the face becomes pale, whilst the muscles and veins are red. Ibid. 13.

*Fright*.—The violence of these passions are not synonymous, although classed them, as the former may be certain and durable, while the latter is often evanescent, alter all the face. The eye-brows rise in the muscles are strongly developed, against each other, and depressed the mouth, which is drawn up as well as

the nostrils. The eyes are very open, the upper eye-lid hidden by the eye-brow, the white of the eye encompassed with red, the eye-balls fixed toward the lower part of the eye; the lower part of the eye-lids swell and become livid, the muscles of the nose and cheeks enlarge, and the latter terminate in a point towards the sides of the nostrils. The mouth is very open, and its corners become very apparent; the muscles and veins of the neck stretch; the hair stands on end; the color of the face, that is, of the end of the nose, the lips, the ears, and round the eyes, becomes pale and livid; and all the muscles appear strongly marked. Ibid. 14.

17. *Anger*.—The effects of this passion show its nature. The eyes become red and inflamed; the eye-balls staring and sparkling; the eye-brows sometimes elevated, and at others depressed equally; the forehead much wrinkled, as also the space between the eyes. The nostrils open and enlarged; the lips compress, the under one rising over the upper, slightly opens the corners of the mouth, and gives the appearance of a cruel and disdainful grin. Ibid. 15.

18. *Hatred, or Jealousy*.—The expression of the two passions is so very similar that Le Brun classes them together. They wrinkle the forehead, and the eye-brows become depressed and knit; the eye-balls are half hidden under the eye-brows, and turn towards the object of hatred, appearing fiery and animated; the nostrils are pale, open, more marked than ordinary, and drawn backward so as to cause wrinkles upon the cheeks; the lips are so compressed as to show that the teeth are firmly closed; the corners of the mouth are drawn back, and much sunk; the color of the face becomes partly inflamed and partly yellowish, and the lips pale or livid. Ibid. 16.

19. *Despair*.—As despair is extreme, so are its expressions. The forehead becomes wrinkled from the top to the bottom; the eye-brows bend down over the eyes, and press each other on the sides of the nose; the eyes become fiery in their expression and full of blood; the eye-balls are disturbed, and concealed beneath the eye-brows, sparkling and wandering. The eye-lids are swollen and livid, the nostrils large, open and raised. The end of the nose turns down, the muscles, tendons, and veins, become swollen and stretched. The upper part of the cheeks becomes large; the muscles protrude; the mouth drawn backwards is more open at the sides than in the middle; the lower lip swells and turns outwards. The sufferers gnash their teeth, foam and bite their lips, which are pale, as is the rest of the face; the hair becomes straight and stands on end. Ibid. 17.

To these rules the student will do well to add Charles Bell's Anatomy of Expression, published expressly for artists upon the same subject; and, as has been so often insisted on, to pursue an attentive study of nature.

#### SECT. XII.—OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF LIGHT AND SHADE.

After the student has made himself master, in a tolerable degree, of drawing figures correctly in outline, his next endeavour should



be to shade them properly. It is this portion of the art which gives the desired effect of substance, form, distance, and distinction, to whatever bodies he endeavours to represent, whether animate, or inanimate.

The best rule for performing this is, to consider from what point, and in what direction, the light falls upon the objects which he proposes to delineate; and to make all his lights and shades fall according to that direction throughout the whole work. That part of the object must be lightest which has the light most directly opposed to it. If the light falls obliquely upon the picture, he must make that side which is opposite to the cause the lightest, and that side which is farthest from it the darkest. If he be drawing the figure of a man, and the light is placed above the head, then the top of the head will of course be the lightest, the shoulders will have the next degree of light, and the lower parts be less illumined as they are removed from the cause. That portion of the object, whether the figure be naked or dressed, or whether it be a building which stands farthest out or nearest to the eye, must be made lightest, because it is nearest to the light; which loses so much of its brightness by how much any part of the object recedes; because those parts which project, hinder the lustre and full brightness of the light from striking on the receding parts.

Titian used to say, that he knew no better rule for the distribution of light and shadow, or, as the Italian critics call this department of the art, *chiaro-scuro*, than the observations that may be drawn from the lights, shadows, and reflexes of a bunch of grapes. Satins and silks, and all other shining stuffs, have certain glancing reflections, exceedingly bright where the light falls strongest. The like is seen in armour, brass pots, or any other glittering metal, where a sudden brightness appears in the centre of the light, which discovers the shining nature of the body depicted. The principal light should be thrown on the principal figure, and an equal balance must be kept between the lights and shades throughout the whole.

The outlines must be faint and almost imperceptible in such parts as receive the light; but where the shades fall the outline may be stronger, but must never be too evident, as there is no such thing as outline in nature. Another effect of nature to be observed is, that as vision becomes weaker by distance, so must the objects appear more or less defined according to the places which they occupy in the picture; those which are very distant, faint and undefined; those which are nearer, and in the foreground, clear, strong, and accurately defined.

However, so much of this important portion of the art depends upon the artist's own feelings and perceptions, that better directions for its acquirement cannot be given, than to study with attention the works of those masters who are reckoned the most successful in its uses, and to follow them and their mistress—nature, as guides.

#### SECT. XIII.—OF DRAPERY.

Drapery is the art of clothing figures, and disposing the drapery or clothing properly

and elegantly upon them. In this department of the art many things are necessary to be observed. 1. The eye must never be led in doubt as to the object before it; but the shape and proportion of the limb, or portion of the figure, which is covered by the drapery, must appear to be beneath it; or at least so far as appearance and probability will permit. This is so material a consideration, that the best artists draw the naked figure first, and throw the drapery properly about it afterwards. 2. The drapery must not be too loose about the figure, but should so flow round and adhere to it, that the latter may seem unencumbered and have a free motion. 3. The draperies which cover those parts which are exposed to great light, must not be so deeply shaded as to seem to pierce them, lest by the great darkness of their shades, the limbs should look as if they were broken. 4. The great folds must be drawn first, and then divided into lesser ones; and great care must be taken that they do not cross one another improperly. 5. Folds in general should be large and few; this must be guided, however, by the quality and quantity of the stuffs of which the drapery is composed. The quality of the persons depicted must also be considered in their drapery; if ancient legislators, orators, or philosophers, their robes should be large and ample; if clowns, countrymen, or slaves, short and of coarse materials; if ladies, or nymphs, light and soft. 6. The garments should be adapted to the body, whose motions they should follow, and the closer the garments sit to the body the narrower and smaller must be the folds. 7. Well-imagined folds give spirit to any kind of action, because their motion implies a motion in the principal limb, which seems to act forcibly upon them, and makes them more or less stirring as the action is more or less violent. 8. An artful complication of folds in a circular manner greatly assists the effects of *foreshortening*. 9. All folds consist of two shades and no more, which may be turned with the garment at pleasure, shadowing the nearer side deeply and the other more faintly. 10. The shades in silk and fine laces are very thick and small, requiring little folds, and a light shadow. 11. Observe the motion of the air or wind, in order to draw the loose apparel all flying one way; and draw that part of the garment which adheres closest to the body, before you draw the looser part which flies off from it: lest by drawing the looser part first you should mistake the position of the figure, and thereby place it wrong. 12. Rich ornaments, when judiciously and sparingly used, will sometimes contribute to the beauty of draperies; but such ornaments are below the dignity of heavenly figures, whose grandeur should be derived from their characteristic forms and expressions, whether of countenance, attitude, or action, rather than from the earthly vanity of rich and glittering ornaments. 13. Light and fluid draperies are proper only to figures in rapid motion, or blown upon by the wind; but in a calm place, and free from violent action, these draperies should be large and flowing; that by strong contrast, and the fall of their folds, they may bear the appearance of grace and dignity. See further under *PAINTING*.



## CIV.—OF DRAWING LANDSCAPES, BUILDINGS, &amp;c.

all the branches of art, this is the most useful and necessary; because it is every man may have occasion for at one or another. To be able, on the spot, to take the sketch of a fine building, a relic of antiquity, or a beautiful prospect, any curious production of art, or uncomeliness in nature, is not only a desirable talent, but an agreeable and useful one. Rocks, mountains, fields, woods, cataracts, cities, towns, castles, houses, ruins, or whatsoever else may present itself to view on our journeys or travels, in our own or foreign countries, may be thus brought home and preserved for future use either in conversation. On this part, therefore, more than ordinary pains should be bestowed.

Drawing consists in measuring visible objects accurately with the eye. In order to facilitate this operation, the student should fancy, in his mind, that the subject he is delineating is divided into squares of imaginary lines. We may call these imaginary lines, because though engravers and painters, who copy with great exactness, both their copy and the original into an number of squares, yet this is a method not to be recommended; since it imposes shackles on the learner, from which he will find it difficult to emancipate himself, particularly when he comes to draw from nature, where such artificial aids will not avail him.

When colors are used in drawing, they should be managed with caution and judgment; it being

disgusting to see colored or tinted drawings, wherein the reds, greens, and blues are laid on without regard to truth or harmony. It may be urged, by those who execute them, that nothing is greener than grass, nor bluer than the sky; but it should be considered, that nature employs such a multitude of little shadows, and such an endless variety of different tints, intermixed with her broadest colors, that the harshness of the original hue, or local tint, is thereby corrected, and the effect of the whole very different from a raw and unbroken color laid upon white paper.

Though the artist should have recourse to the study of nature, in preference to that of a master, for a knowledge of coloring, yet it requires some judgment to know what part of nature is to be studied, and what to be avoided; in short, selection is necessary. The student, in coloring, should examine with attention, that of old walls, broken and stained by time and weather; old thatch, old tiles, rotten wood;—in short, all objects which are covered with moss, stains, and tints of various kinds; wherein he will find all the principles of the picturesque and agreeable in coloring. Such things as these should be copied with every possible care, and all objects of a decided uniform color should be as carefully avoided. This has ever been the practice of all the great masters who have excelled in this delightful part of the art; and examples of drawing landscapes from nature according to the foregoing precepts have been often given.

To conclude, in order to attain any considerable proficiency in this sort of drawing, a knowledge of PERSPECTIVE is absolutely necessary. See that article.

**DRAWING SLATE**, in mineralogy, black chalk, or is grayish black. Massive. Lustre of the surface fracture, glimmering; of the cross fracture, dull. Fracture of the former slaty, of the latter earthy. Opaque. Streak same color as the mineral. Very soft. Sectile. Easily fractured. It adheres slightly to the tongue. Specific gravity 2.11. It is infusible. Its constituents are silica 64.66, alumina 11, carbon 11, water 12.75. It occurs in beds, in primitive transition clay-slate, also in secondary formations. It is found in the coal formation of England, and in most countries. It is used in painting.

**DRAW, v. n.** From draw. To utter any sound in a slow, driveling way.

To mount the clerks, and in one lazy tone to draw the long heavy page drawl on. *Pope.*  
To see him launched into the world at large; to see him, supinely droning o'er his charge, to see him, with his pillow, and his weekly drawl, to see him, short, too long, the price he pays for all.

*Cooper.*  
DAN. Then, I suppose, it must have been some single's drawling manner of reading it to me.

*Sheridan.*  
LAY, n. s. Sax. *dragan*, of the same origin as DRAW, which see.

**DRAW-CART**, **DRAW-HORSE**, **DRAW-MAN**, **DRAW-PLUGH**. The car on which beer is conveyed; the horse attached, and the driver.

A brace of draymen bid God speed him well,

And had the tribute of his supple knee. *Shakespeare.*

Have not coblers, draymen, and mechanicks governed as well as preached? Nay, have not they by preaching come to govern? *South.*

This truth is illustrated by a discourse on the nature of the elephant and the drayhorse. *Tatler.*

Let him be brought into the field of election upon his draycart, and I will meet him there in a triumphant chariot. *Addison.*

When drays bound high, then never cross behind Where bubbling yest is blown by gusts of wind.

*Gay.*  
The drayplough is the best plough in winter for miry clays. *Mortimer's Husbandry.*

I know too that, if stopped upon my route, Where the green alleys windingly aliae, Reeling with grapes red waggons choke the way,— In England 't would be dung, dust, or a dray. *Byron.*

**DRAYTON** (Michael), an eminent English poet, born of an ancient family in Warwickshire in 1563. His propensity to poetry was extremely strong from his infancy; and we find most of his principal poems published by the time he was about thirty years of age.—It appears, from his poem of Moses's Birth and Miracles, that he saw at Dover the famous Spanish armada, and it is not improbable that he was engaged in some military employment there. He was patronised by several persons of consequence: particularly by Sir Henry Goodere, Sir Walter Aston,



and the countess of Bedford; to the first of whom he owns himself indebted for a great part of his education, and by the second he was for many years supported. His poems are very numerous and elegant; the most celebrated one is the *Poly-Albion*, a chorographical description of England, with its commodities, antiquities, and curiosities, in metre of twelve syllables; which he dedicated to prince Henry, by whose encouragement it was written; and, whatever may be thought of the poetry, his descriptions are allowed to be exact. He died in 1631; and was interred in Westminster Abbey among the poets, where his bust is to be seen with an epitaph by Ben Jonson.

DRAYTON (William Henry), a statesman of the American revolution, and an able political writer, was born in South Carolina, in September 1742. In 1753 he went to England, and was placed in Westminster school; thence he removed, in 1761, to Oxford, where he continued nearly three years, when he returned to South Carolina. In 1771 he was appointed, by the British government, privy counsellor for the province, and became conspicuous by his defence of the rights of his country against the encroachments and irregularities of the crown officers and judges. In 1774 he accepted the office of an assistant judge of the province. When the continental congress was about to sit at Philadelphia, he wrote and published a pamphlet under the signature of Freeman—a production, of which Ramsay, in his *History of South Carolina*, observes, that ‘it substantially chalked out the line of conduct adopted by the congress.’ The lieutenant-governor suspended him from his place in the king’s council, in consequence of his representation of American grievances, and the ‘bill of American rights,’ which he submitted to the congress in his pamphlet. As soon as the revolution began he became an efficient leader, and, in 1775, was chosen president of the provincial congress. In March of the following year he was elected chief justice of the colony, in which character he delivered to the grand jury political charges of the most energetic character. He published, besides, a pamphlet, refuting the suggestions in favor of lord Howe’s plan of a reconciliation with the mother country. Independence—unqualified independence—was his constant advice. In the year 1777 Mr. Drayton was invested with full powers, as president of South Carolina, and, early in the following year, was elected a delegate to the continental congress. In this body he took a prominent part. His speeches and writings against the propositions of the three British commissioners were particularly celebrated. The congress employed him on various important missions. The censure which he pronounced upon major-general Charles Lee’s conduct at the battle of Monmouth, caused that officer to challenge him. The reasons which he assigned for declining the duel are such as became a true patriot and honorable man. Mr. Drayton continued in congress until September, 1779, when he died suddenly at Philadelphia, in the thirty-sixth year of his age. His political resolution and sagacity, his literary attainments, his domestic virtues, and his polished manners, rendered him

valuable to his country, and dear to his associates. He left behind a considerable number of historical materials, which his only son, Drayton, revised and digested, and published at Charleston, in 1821, in two octavo volumes under the title of *Memoirs of the American revolution*, from its commencement to the year 1776, inclusive, as relating to the state of Carolina, and occasionally referring to that of North Carolina and Georgia.

DRA’ZEL, *n. s.* Perhaps corrupted from *drossel*, the scum or dross of human nature from Fr. *drosselle*, a whore. A low, mean, less wretch.

As the devil uses witches,  
To be their cully for a space,  
That, when the time’s expired, the devil  
For ever may become his vassal. B

DREAD, <i>n. s., v. a. &amp; v. n.</i>	Sav. des
DREAD’ER, <i>n. s.</i>	Goth. ror;
DREAD’FUL, <i>adj.</i>	ror; ut.
DREAD’FULLY, <i>adv.</i>	Todd
DREAD’FULNESS, <i>n. s.</i>	from Te
DREAD’LESS, <i>adj.</i>	Goth. ab
DREAD’LESSNESS, <i>n. s.</i>	ness.

fear, terror, awe; the cause of fear. It seems to be derived from the noun, and fear in a great degree; to be in fear: it is one who lives in habitual dread: dreadful: dreadless, without fear or dread. The derivatives correspond in meaning.

And Zacarye seyng he was afraide: and upon him.

And the aungel sayde to him, Zacarye do not: for thy preier is herd.

Not seruyng at ighes as plesynge to me symplenesse of herte dredynge the Lord. M.

The fear of you, and the dread of you, upon every beast of the earth. Gen.

How dreadful is this place!

Let him be your dread.

Quod he, to Athenes right now wol I  
Ne for no drede of deth shall I not spare  
To see my lady, that I love and serve;  
In hire presence I rekke not to surre.

Chaucer. Con.

Right, faithful, true he was in deed and  
But of his cheere did seeme too solemn  
Yet nothing did he dread, but ever was yere

Spenser. Faerie

Think’st thou that duty shall have dread  
When power to flattery bows? To plainness  
Is bound, when majesty to folly falls.

Shakespeare. An

It cannot be, but thou hast murdered  
So should a murderer look, so dread, so

Sh

The wicked heart never fears God, but it  
or shaking the earth, or raining fire from  
the good can dread him in his very aw-  
loving deliverances and blessings affect  
awfulness.

Bp. Hall. Con

Terrour seized the rebel host,  
When, coming towards them, so dread the  
The bottom of the mountains upward tum

From this descent  
Celestial virtues rising will appear  
More glorious and more dread than from



attraction! while behind thee gapes  
 imable gulf where Ashur lies  
 forgotten!

*Id. on Luxury.*

l, v. n., v. a. & n. s. } Sax. drom;  
 r, n. s. } Goth. *drauma*;  
 ESS, adj. } Belg. *droom*;

a. from Lat. *dormio*; Heb. *דָּרַם*, to  
 have a representation or imagin-  
 gs in sleep: hence, to imagine gene-  
 nk vaguely or idly: as an active verb,  
 dream. Dreamer has formerly meant  
 ter or master of dreams: dreamless is  
 without dreams. Dr. Johnson ob-  
 s word is derived by Meric Casaubon,  
 ingenuity than truth, from *δραμα* τε  
 nedy of life; dreams being, as plays  
 representation of something which does  
 happen. This conceit Junius has en-  
 quoting an epigram:

ς ὁ βίος καὶ παίγνιον ἢ μαθεῖ παύειν,  
 ἢ μεταδίδωκε. ἢ φέρε τὰς ὁδύνας.

his dreamer (Marg. *master of dreams*)  
 Gen. xxxvii. 19.

ese things be no *dremes* ne japes, to  
 ogges, it is lyfelych mete for children of  
 as they me betiden whan I pilgramed out  
 n wintere. *Chaucer.*

eat our meat in fear, and sleep  
 affliction of those terrible *dreams*  
 ake us nightly. *Shakespeare. Macbeth.*

long dreamed of such a kind of man,  
 g awake, I do despise my dream.  
*Shakespeare.*

ys know little they are sons to the king,  
 line *dreams* that they are alive. *Id.*

Sometimes he angers me  
 ling of the moldwarp and the ant,  
 er Merlin, and his prophecies. *Id.*

ges of Mount Atlas, in Barbary, were re-  
 c both nameless and *dreamless*.

*Camden's Remains.*

rest heart! and, dearer image! stay;  
 joys at best are *dreams* enough;  
 stay here you pass too fast away,  
 t first life's taper is a snuff. *Donne.*

s but once, and *dreames* of burglarye,  
*Bp. Hall's Satires*, iv. 6.

The Macedon, by Jove's decree,  
 ght to *dream* an herb for Ptolemy.

*Dryden.*

sams they fearful precipices tread;  
 ecked, labour to some distant shore. *Id.*

does Anthony *dream* out his hours,  
 opts not fortune for a noble day? *Id.*

reamer pleases to try whether the glowing  
 lass furnace be barely a wandering imagi-  
 s drowsy man's fancy, by putting his head  
 may perhaps be awakened into a certainty.  
*Locke.*

ay is the having of ideas, whilst the out-  
 s are stopped, not suggested by any external  
 known occasion, nor under the rule or con-  
 s understanding. *Id.*

sam on in a constant course of reading, but  
 ag. *Id.*

ed that I was conveyed into a wide and  
 plain. *Tatler.*

OL VII

The man of sense his meat devours,  
 But only smells the peel and flowers;  
 And he must be an idle *dreamer*,  
 Who leaves the pie and gnaws the streamer.

*Prior.*

He never dreamed of the deluge, nor thought that  
 first orb more than a transient crust.

*Burnet's Theory.*

Her midnights once at cards and hazard fled,  
 Which now, alas! she *dreams* away in bed,  
 And round her wait shocks, monkeys, and mockaws  
 To fill the place of fops and perjured beaus. *Gay.*

Life, like their bibles, coolly men turn o'er,  
 Hence unexperienced children of threescore,  
 True all men think of course, as all men *dream*;  
 And if they slightly think, 'tis much the same.

*Young.*

If we can sleep without *dreaming*, it is well that  
 painful *dreams* are avoided. If, while we sleep, we  
 can have any pleasing *dreams*, it is, as the French  
 say, tant gague, so much added to the pleasure of  
 life. *Franklin.*

With woe I nightly vigils keep,  
 Beneath thy wan unwarming beam;  
 And mourn, in lamentation deep,  
 How life and love are all a *dream*. *Burns.*

It may therefore, perhaps be fairly said, that, in  
 respect of any supposed tendency to scepticism, the  
 evidence of history is full as strong against natural  
 philosophy as against metaphysics; yet who ever  
 dreamed of proscribing the natural sciences?

*Bowdler.*

He came—oh Hope! he hastened to my seat;  
 I saw, and almost dreamed him at my feet,  
 Close by my side a gay attendant slave;  
 The glance, which thousands sought, to none he gave.

*Dr. T. Brown.*

Tell me no more of fancy's gleam,  
 No, father, no, 'twas not a *dream*;  
 Alas! the *dreamer* first must sleep,  
 I only watched, and wished to weep;  
 But could not, for my burning brow  
 Throbbed to the very brain as now.

*Byron. The Giaour.*

DREAMS have been defined as those thoughts  
 of which we are conscious, and those imaginary  
 transactions in which we fancy ourselves engaged,  
 when in the state of sleep. Scarcely any part of  
 nature is less open to our observation than the  
 human mind in this state. The dreamer himself  
 cannot observe the manner in which dreams arise  
 or disappear. When he awakes he has in general  
 but a confused recollection of the circumstances  
 of his dreams. Were we to watch over him with  
 the most vigilant attention, we could not perceive  
 what emotions are excited in his mind, or what  
 thoughts pass through it, during his sleep. But  
 though we could ascertain these phenomena, many  
 other difficulties would still remain. What parts  
 of a human being are active, what dormant, when  
 he dreams? Why does he not always dream while  
 asleep? Or why dreams he at all? Do any cir-  
 cumstances in our constitution, situation, and  
 peculiar character, determine the nature of our  
 dreams?

Without pretending to solve the above ques-  
 tions, we shall here give a brief view of those facts  
 which have been ascertained concerning dreams.  
 1. In dreaming we are not conscious of being  
 asleep. This is well known from a thousand cir-  
 cumstances. When awake, we often recollect our  
 dreams; and we remember on such occasions,

2 I



that, while those dreams were passing through our minds, it never occurred to us that we were separated by sleep from the active world; except in those cases where we have a kind of double dream; i. e. when, after dreaming for some time, we dream that we have awaked from sleep, and told our dream. But during this second dream, and rehearsal of our former one, we are fully persuaded that we are awake, till, by awaking in reality, we are convinced that we were asleep all the time. We are also often observed to act and talk in dreaming, as if we were busily engaged in the intercourse of social life.

2. In dreaming we do not consider ourselves as witnessing or bearing a part in a fictitious scene; we seem not to be in a similar situation with the actors in a dramatic performance, or the spectators before whom they exhibit, but engaged in the business of real life. All the varieties of thought, that pass through our minds when awake, may also occur in dreams; all the images which imagination presents, in the former state, she is also able to call up in the latter; all the same emotions may be excited, and we are often actuated by equal violence of passion; none of the transactions, in which we are capable of engaging while awake, is impossible in dreams; in short, our range of action and observation is equally wide in the one state as in the other; nay often more so; for we may dream of flying, walking upon waters, and performing actions which we cannot perform when awake. 3. It is said that all men are not liable to dream. Dr. Beattie, in a very pleasing essay on this subject, relates, that he knew a gentleman who never dreamed except when his health was in a disordered state; and Locke mentions, that a person of his acquaintance was a stranger to dreaming till the twenty-sixth year of his age; when he began to dream in consequence of having a fever. These instances, however, are too few; and, besides, it does not appear that those persons had always attended, with the care of a philosopher making an experiment, to the circumstances of their sleep. They might dream, but not recollect their dreams on awaking; and they might both dream, and recollect their dreams immediately upon awaking, yet afterwards suffer them to slip out of their memory. But though it is by no means certain that any of the human race are, through the whole of life, absolute strangers to dreaming, yet it is well known that all men are not equally liable to dream. The same person dreams more or less at different times; and, as one person may be more exposed than another to those circumstances which promote this exercise of fancy, one person may therefore dream much oftener than another. The same diversity will naturally take place in this as in other accidents to which mankind are in general liable. 4. Though in dreams imagination appears to be free from all restraint, and indulges in the most wanton freaks, yet it is agreed that the imaginary transactions of the dreamer, if in health, generally bear some relation to his particular character in the world, his habits of action, and the circumstances of his life. The lover dreams of his mistress; the miser of his money; the philosopher renews his scientific researches in sleep with the same assiduity as when awake; and the merchant returns to balance his books, and compute the profits of an adventure, when slumbering on his pillow. And not only do the general circumstances of a person's life influence his dreams, but his passions and habits are nearly the same when asleep as when awake. A person whose habits of life are virtuous does not in his dreams plunge into a series of crimes; nor are the vicious reformed when they pass into this imaginary world. The choleric man finds himself offended by slight provocations in his dreams, as well as in his ordinary intercourse with the world, and a pious temper continues pacific in sleep. 5. The character of a person's dreams is influenced by his circumstances when awake in a still more unaccountable manner. Certain dreams usually arise in the mind after a person has been in certain situations. Dr. Beattie relates, that he once, after riding thirty miles in a high wind, passed a part of the succeeding night in dreams beyond description terrible. The state of a person's health, and the manner in which the vital functions are carried on, have a considerable influence in determining the character of dreams. After too full a meal, or after eating of an unusual sort of food, a person has dreams of a certain nature. 6. In dreaming, the mind for the most part carries on no intercourse through the senses with surrounding objects. Touch a person gently who is asleep, he feels not the impression. You may awake him by a smart blow; but, when the stroke is not sufficiently violent, he remains insensible of it. We speak softly beside a person asleep without fearing that he will overhear us. His eyelids are shut; and even though light should fall upon the eye-ball, yet still his powers of vision are not awakened to active exertion, unless the light be so strong as to rouse him from sleep. He is insensible both to sweet and to disagreeable smells. It is not easy to try whether his organs of taste retain their activity, without awaking him; yet from analogy, it may be presumed that those he are inactive. With respect to the circumstances here enumerated, it is indifferent whether a person be dreaming or buried in deep sleep. There is one remarkable fact concerning dreaming which may seem to contradict what has been here asserted. In dreams we are liable not only to speak aloud in consequence of the suggestions of imagination, but some persons even get up and walk about and engage in little enterprises, without awaking. Now, as we are in this instance so active, it seems that we cannot be then insensible of the presence of surrounding objects. The sleep-walker is really sensible, in a certain degree, of the presence of the objects around him; but he does not attend to them with all their circumstances, nor do they excite in him the same emotions as if he were awake. He feels no terror on the brink of a precipice; and, in consequence of being free from fear, he is also without danger in such a situation unless suddenly waked. This is one of the most inexplicable phenomena of dreaming. There is another fact not quite consonant with what has been above stated. It is said that, in sleep, a person will consent to hear the noise of a cataract in the neighbourhood, or regular strokes with a hammer, or any sound

that, while those dreams were passing through our minds, it never occurred to us that we were separated by sleep from the active world; except in those cases where we have a kind of double dream; i. e. when, after dreaming for some time, we dream that we have awaked from sleep, and told our dream. But during this second dream, and rehearsal of our former one, we are fully persuaded that we are awake, till, by awaking in reality, we are convinced that we were asleep all the time. We are also often observed to act and talk in dreaming, as if we were busily engaged in the intercourse of social life.



sufficiently loud, and continued uninterrupted from before the time of his falling asleep. It is affirmed that he awakes on the sudden on account of the noise. This fact is asserted on the best evidence: it is curious. Even when a man is deeply intent on study, or closely occupied in business, the sound of a clock striking in his neighbourhood, or the beating of a drum, escape us unnoticed; and it is therefore not surprising that we should thus continue to be awakened by sounds when asleep.

7. Not only do a man's general character, habits of life, and state of health, influence his dreams; but those particular impressions in which he has been most deeply interested during the preceding day, and the views which have arisen most frequently to his imagination, very often afford the subjects of his dreams.

When one looks forward with anxious expectation towards any future event, he is likely to dream either of the disappointment or the gratification of his wishes. If engaged through the pressure of business or amusements which he finds exceedingly agreeable, or in a way in which he is extremely unhappy, either his hope or his misery is likely to be renewed in his dreams. 8. Though dreams have been recorded in almost all nations, at least in some parts of their history, as prophetic of future events, yet it does not appear that this popular notion has been established on good grounds. History, indeed, teaches us to believe that the Supreme Being may operate through this medium, and actually has operated on the human mind, and influenced at time the determinations of kings; as he did to Abimelech, Gen. xx. 17, and to Joseph, Matt. i. 20, and ii. 19, 22. Dreams of Joseph and Pharaoh; of his chief butler and baker; of Nebuchadnezzar and the Babylonians; of Daniel, &c., are also decisive on this point.

Yet it is perfect folly to confound such occasional dreams with those which the priests among heathen nations, or the vulgar among Christians, have considered as prophetic. We know how easily ignorance imposes on itself, and how its imposture adopts to impose upon the credulous.

We cannot trace any certain connexion between our dreams and those events to which the simplicity of the vulgar pretends that they are connected. And we cannot, therefore, join with the vulgar and the superstitious in believing them infallible or referrible to futurity.

9. It appears that all animals are also capable of dreaming. The dog is observed to start suddenly up in his sleep in a manner which cannot be accounted for in any way than by supposing that he is roused by an impulse received in a dream. The same is observable of other brutes. That they dream, is not an idea inconsistent with what we know of their economy and manners. We may, therefore, consider it as a certain truth that many, if not all, of the animals are liable to dream, as well as man. It appears, then, that in dreams we are not conscious of being asleep; that to a man dreaming, his dreams seem realities: though it be uncertain whether mankind are liable to dreams, yet it is well known that all are not equally liable to dream: that the nature of a person's dreams depends in

some measure on his habits of action, and on the circumstances of his life: that the state of the health too, and the manner in which the vital functions are carried on, have a powerful influence in determining the character of a person's dreams: that in sleep, and in dreaming, the senses are either absolutely inactive or nearly so: that such concerns as we have been very deeply interested in during the preceding day, are very likely to return upon our minds in dreams in the hours of rest: that dreams may be rendered prophetic of future events; and therefore, wherever we have such evidence of their having been prophetic as we would accept on any other occasion, we cannot reasonably reject the fact as absurd; but that they do not appear to have been actually such, in those numerous instances in which the superstition of nations, ignorant of true religion, has represented them as referring to futurity, nor in those instances in which they are viewed in the same light by many among ourselves. and, lastly, that dreaming is not a phenomenon peculiar to human nature, but common to mankind with the brutes.

We know of no other facts, that have been ascertained concerning dreaming, besides the above. But we are by no means sufficiently acquainted with this important phenomenon in the history of mind. We cannot tell by what laws of our constitution we are thus liable to be so frequently engaged in imaginary transactions, nor what are the particular means by which the delusion is accomplished. The delusion is indeed remarkably strong. One will sometimes fancy that he reads a book, and actually enter into the nature of the imaginary composition before him, and even remember, after he awakes, what he then knows, that he only fancied himself reading. Another will sometimes dream that he is at church, and hears a sermon delivered, which he would be incapable of composing when awake. Can this be delusion? If delusion, how, or for what purpose, is it produced? The mind, it would appear, does not, in sleep, become inactive like the body; or at least is not always inactive while we are asleep. When we do not dream, the mind must either be inactive, or the connexion between the mind and the body must be considered as in some manner suspended: and when we dream, the mind, though it probably acts in concert with the body, yet does not act in the same manner as when we are awake. It seems to be clouded or bewildered, in consequence of being deprived for a time of the service of the senses. Imagination becomes more active and more capricious; and all the other powers, especially judgment and memory, become disordered and irregular in their operations.

Various theories have been proposed to explain what appears most inexplicable in dreaming. The ingenious Mr. Baxter, in his treatise on the Immateriality of the Human Soul, endeavours to prove that dreams are produced by the agency of some spiritual beings, who either amuse or employ themselves seriously in engaging mankind in all those imaginary transactions with which they are employed in dreaming. This theory, however, is far from being plausible. It leads us entirely beyond the limits of our know-



ledge. It requires us to believe without evidence. It is unsupported by any analogy. It creates difficulties still more inexplicable than those which it has been proposed to remove. Till it appear that our dreams cannot possibly be produced without the interference of other spiritual agents, possessing such influence over our minds as to deceive us with fancied joys, and involve us in imaginary afflictions, we cannot reasonably refer them to such a cause. Besides, from the facts which have been stated as well known concerning dreams, it appears that their nature depends both on the state of the human body and on that of the mind. But were they owing to the agency of other spiritual beings, how could they be influenced by the state of the body? Wolfius, and after him M. Formey, have supposed, that dreams never arise in the mind, except in consequence of some of the organs of sensation having been previously excited. Either the ear or the eye, or the organs of touching, tasting, or smelling, communicate information somehow, in a tacit, secret manner; and thus partly rouse its faculties from the lethargy in which they are buried in sleep, and engage them in a series of confused and imperfect exertions. But what passes in dreams is often so very different from all that we do when awake, that it is impossible for the dreamer himself to distinguish whether his powers of sensation perform any part on the occasion. It is not necessary that imagination be always excited by sensation. Fancy, even when we are awake, often wanders from the present scene. Absence of mind is incident to the studious: the poet and the mathematician often forget where they are. We cannot discover from any thing that a person in dreaming displays to the observation of others, that his organs of sensation take a part in the imaginary transactions in which he is employed. In those instances, indeed, in which persons asleep are said to hear sounds, the sounds which they hear are also said to influence, in some manner, the nature of their dreams. But such instances are singular. Since it then appears, that the person who dreams is himself incapable of distinguishing, either during his dreams or by recollection when awake, whether any new impressions are communicated to him in that state by his organs of sensation; that even by watching over him, and comparing our observations of his circumstances and emotions, in his dreams, with what he recollects of them after awaking, we cannot, except in one or two singular instances, ascertain this fact; and that the mind is not incapable of acting while the organs of sensation are at rest, and on many occasions refuses to listen to the information which they convey; we may conclude, that the theory is groundless. Other physiologists tell us, that the mind, when we dream, is in a state of delirium. Sleep, they say, is attended with what is called a collapse of the brain; during which either the whole or a part of the nerves of which it consists, are in a state in which they cannot carry on the usual intercourse between the mind and the organs of sensation. When the whole of the brain is in this state, we become entirely unconscious of existence and the mind sinks into inactivity; when

only a part of the brain is collapsed, we are then neither asleep nor awake, but in a sort of delirium between the two. This theory, like the last, supposes the mind incapable of acting without the help of sensation: it supposes that we know the nature of a state, of which we cannot ascertain the phenomena; it also contradicts a known fact, in representing dreams as confused images of things around us, not fanciful combinations of things not existing together in nature or in human life. We must treat it likewise, therefore, as a baseless fabric. In the second edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, a theory different from any of the foregoing was advanced. It was observed, that the nervous fluid, which is supposed to be secreted from the blood by the lungs, appears to be likewise absorbed from the blood by the extremities of the nerves. It was argued, that, as this fluid was considered as the principle of sensibility, therefore, in all cases in which a sufficient supply of it was not absorbed into the blood by the extremities of the nerves, the parts of the body to which those nerves belonged must be, in some degree, deprived of sensation. From these positions it was inferred, that, as long as impressions of external objects continue to communicate a certain motion from the several extremities of the nerves to the brain, so long we continue awake; and that, when there is a deficiency of this vital fluid in the extremities of the nerves, or when from any other cause it ceases to communicate to the brain the peculiar motion alluded to, we must naturally fall asleep, and become insensible of our existence. It followed, that, in sleep, the nervous fluid between the extreme parts of the nerves and the brain must either be at rest, or be deficient, or be prevented by some means from passing into the brain; and it was concluded, that whenever irregular motions of this fluid were occasioned by any internal cause, dreaming was produced. Thus we might be deceived with regard to the operation of any of the senses; so as to fancy that we see objects not actually before us: that we hear sounds, that we taste, feel, smell, &c. The instances of visions which will sometimes arise, and as it were swim before us when awake, though our eyes be shut; the tinnitus aurium, which is also a symptom in nervous diseases; and the strange feelings in the case of the amputated limb, were produced in proof of this theory, and applied to confirm it.

Plausible as the above theory at first view may appear, it is not satisfactory. It is too much founded on supposition. The nature of the nervous fluid is but imperfectly known, and even its existence is not fully ascertained. All theories founded upon it must, therefore, be at best uncertain. Besides the suppositions made in this theory, of a partial privation of sensation, and efficiency of the vital fluid, so necessary to produce sleep, seem to infer that sleep is not consistent with a state of perfect health, which every body knows is contrary to fact. The Brunonian system of medicine appears to give rather a more satisfactory solution of the phenomena and causes of sleep, by ascribing them to the exhaustion of the excitability by the exerting powers. But, without trusting entirely to the



theses of either system, we are persuaded, a y of dreaming, if not perfectly satisfactory, at less exceptionable than any of the above, be drawn from merely attending to a simple that frequently takes place when we are te. Every person must have observed, that alone, and while his attention is not called by particular subject, either by study, conation, manual labor, sudden noise, or the cts around him, a kind of involuntary motion, so to speak, will take place in his ideas; that, if he makes no voluntary exertion of l to fix his attention upon one idea more another, a rapid succession of very different t, some old and some recent, will occur in course of a few minutes. Every person, attends church regularly, or who has ated the lectures of an unentertaining public ker, must be sensible, that such involuntary ons of his ideas have often taken place, n, either through the fault of the speaker, or of the hearer, his attention has not been ciently fixed upon what was spoken. A on much addicted to study, and to the habit xing his ideas constantly upon one subject other, may, perhaps, be less sensible of the luntary motion we here allude to, than s; but let such a studious person be placed company where a trifling conversation is g on, and he will soon find himself in the ion here described. A current of ideas will dly intrude upon his mind, and carry off tention from the trifles in which those around are engaged; and thus subject him to what ommonly called absence of mind. And it also be admitted that the most studious, as as t.: most thoughtless, will sometimes find ea of a long forgotten fact, sentiment, or amstance, suddenly recurring to their minds, out any seeming cause. The inference we d draw from all these facts, to our present ect, is, that during sleep, a similar involun- motion, or current of ideas, takes place; that, in consequence of the fatigue occasioned the labors of the day (no matter whether these ate by exhausting the excitability, or by oc- ccurring a deficiency of the nervous fluid), the chief powers of the mind—the will, the ment, and the memory, are rendered in a siderable degree inactive; at least, in so far, the will has no power over these faculties, the imagination, rendered more active, as ould seem, by being freed from the control oth the will and the judgment, gives every idea that occurs a visionary form; and thus es a fresh and rapid succession of various ges, according to the unlimited current of ontrolled ideas that succeed each other. How happens, perhaps, the human faculties will be able to comprehend or explain; at least, they shall be capable of explaining the con- tion by which the soul and body are united, indeed, mankind shall ever attain to such a ree of perfection in physiology. But that sams take their rise chiefly, if not solely, from mere succession of ideas, dressed into form the imagination, uncontrolled by the will or judgment, appears to us to be an undoubted t, though hitherto it would seem little, if at

all, attended to. And it appears to be a suffi- cient confirmation of this theory, that persons in good health, and engaged in active employments, most commonly dream of those matters wherein they are daily occupied; the uniform current of their ideas when awake, seldom taking any other direction during sleep; whereas, persons in a bad habit of body, or weak state of mind, and those who take little exercise, or who are not engaged in active business, have generally wild and extravagant dreams, and sometimes very disagreeable ones, of monsters, mad dogs, devils, deep pits, houses on fire, stormy oceans, and the like. In a word, when we consider the opera- tions of our minds when awake, particularly of that active faculty, the imagination, how readily upon hearing, reading, or speaking of any person, place, action, or circumstance, it forms an idea in the mind of such person, place, &c., though, perhaps, many years have elapsed since we saw them, or even though we have never seen them, we need not be surprised, that the same active faculty should be able, when uncontrolled by the will and judgment, and but partially assisted by the memory, to raise up a series of images in succession, and thus to create an ideal world, and various ideal transactions in the mind.

The late Mr. Rennell, of Kensington, consi- ders dreams to afford satisfactory proof that the mind can act without the intervention of the brain: upon this it has been well remarked, that we have not as yet sufficient data from which to estimate the degree of dependence of the former upon the latter, still we have no facts founded upon our present state of being, which can estab- lish the total independence which he supposes. The proximate cause of sleep is undoubtedly corporeal, and, perhaps, consists in a certain inaptitude of the brain to receive the usual im- pulses of its immaterial tenant. When this ineptitude amounts to complete quiescence, the soul cannot display itself, because the instrument of its operations is in a state of repose. In such circumstances the sleep is profound, and no dreams take place. This repose or quiescence of the brain may be increased to absolute torpor for a season, as is seen in the hibernation of ani- mals, and in those rare cases in the human spe- cies, where persons have remained for several hours, or even days, in a trance. When this torpor of the cerebral system abates, the immat- erial principal is again enabled to resume its operations, owing to the renewed capabilities of the instrument. Thus, as the cause of sleep is corporeal, there are strong grounds for presu- ming that the cause of dreams is corporeal also. They occur oftenest when there is any irritation of the system in general, or of the brain in par- ticular, hindering the complete repose of that part. When this irritation is great, as in general fever, accompanied with increased action of the blood-vessels within the head, sleep is often en- tirely prevented; or if it does take place, it is disturbed with frightful illusions. What is the precise state of the soul at such times, is a dis- puted point amongst metaphysicians. Perhaps, on so dark a subject, it may be allowable to ha- zard a conjecture, that the operations of the immaterial being are modified by the simi-



quiescence of the material organ, and that this want of correspondence between the agent and the instrument is the cause of the wild imaginations and false judgments that distinguish our dreams from our waking thoughts. Dreams, therefore, instead of proving the contrary, rather tend to show that the dependence of the immaterial upon the material part is perpetual and without exception, during the continuance of man's existence upon earth.

In whatever way we attempt to account for the manner, in which our powers of mind and body perform their functions in dreaming, we can, at least, apply to useful purposes the imperfect knowledge which we have been able to acquire concerning this series of phenomena. Our dreams are affected by the state of our health, by the manner in which we have passed the preceding day, by our general habits of life, by the hopes which we most fondly indulge, and the fears which prevail most over our fortitude when awake. From recollecting our dreams, therefore, we may learn to correct many improprieties in our conduct; to refrain from bodily exercises, or from meats and drinks that have unfavorable effects on our constitution; to resist, in due time, evil habits that are stealing upon us; and to guard against hopes and fears which detach us from our proper concerns, and unfit us for the duties of life. Instead of thinking what our dreams may forebode, we may, with much better reason, reflect by what they have been occasioned, and look back to those circumstances in our past life, to which they are owing. The sleep of innocence and health is sound and refreshing; their dreams delightful and pleasing. A distempered body, and a polluted or perturbed mind, are haunted in sleep with frightful, impure, and unpleasing dreams. The reader who is disposed to speculate farther on this subject, may consult Dr. Beattie's Essays, Hartley on Man, and the principal writers on physiology. We may add, some very beautiful fables have been written both by ancients and moderns in the form of dreams. The *Somnium Scipionis* is one of the finest of Cicero's compositions. In the periodical publications, which have diffused so much elegant and useful knowledge through Great Britain, the *Tatlers*, *Spectators*, *Guardians*, &c., we find a number of excellent dreams. Addison excelled in this way of writing. The public are now less partial to this species of composition than formerly. Dr. Beattie, in his valuable Essay on Dreaming, quotes a very fine one from the *Tatler*, and gives it due praise.

DREAR, *adj.* & *n. s.* } Sax. dreorig; Belg. *treuer*; from Goth. verb  
DREAR'Y, *adj.* } *rygga*, to lament. All  
DREAR'HEAD, *n. s.* } the substantives signify  
DREAR'IMENT, } sorrow, united with  
DREAR'INESS, }  
fear: drear and dreary are, dismal; mournful; fearful.

The ill-faced owl, death's dreadful messenger;  
The hoarse night raven, trumpet of doleful drear.

Spenser.

The messenger of death, the ghastly owl,  
With dreary shrieks did also ye,  
And hungry wolves continually did howl  
At her abhorred face, so horrid and so foul.

Id. *Faerie Queene*.

But the good knight

Full of sad feare and ghastly dreemint,  
When all this speech the living tree had spo  
The bleeding bough did thrust into the green  
Spenser. *Faerie Q*

In urns and altars round,  
A drear and dying sound  
Affrights the flames at their service quaint,  
Obscure they went through dreary shades,  
Along the vast dominions of the dead.  
Towns, forests, herds, and men per  
drowned,  
With one great death deform the dreary green

So with his dread Caduceus Hermes led  
From the dark regions of the imprisoned dead  
Or drove in silent shoals the lingering train  
To night's dull shore, and Pluto's dreary realm

It struck even the besiegers' ear  
With something ominous and drear,  
An undefined and sudden thrill,  
Which makes the heart a moment still

O luxury!

Bane of elated life, of affluent state,  
What dreary change, what ruin, is not thine

DREDGE, *v. a.* & *n. s.* } Sax. drag  
DREDGER, *n. s.* } drag, of which

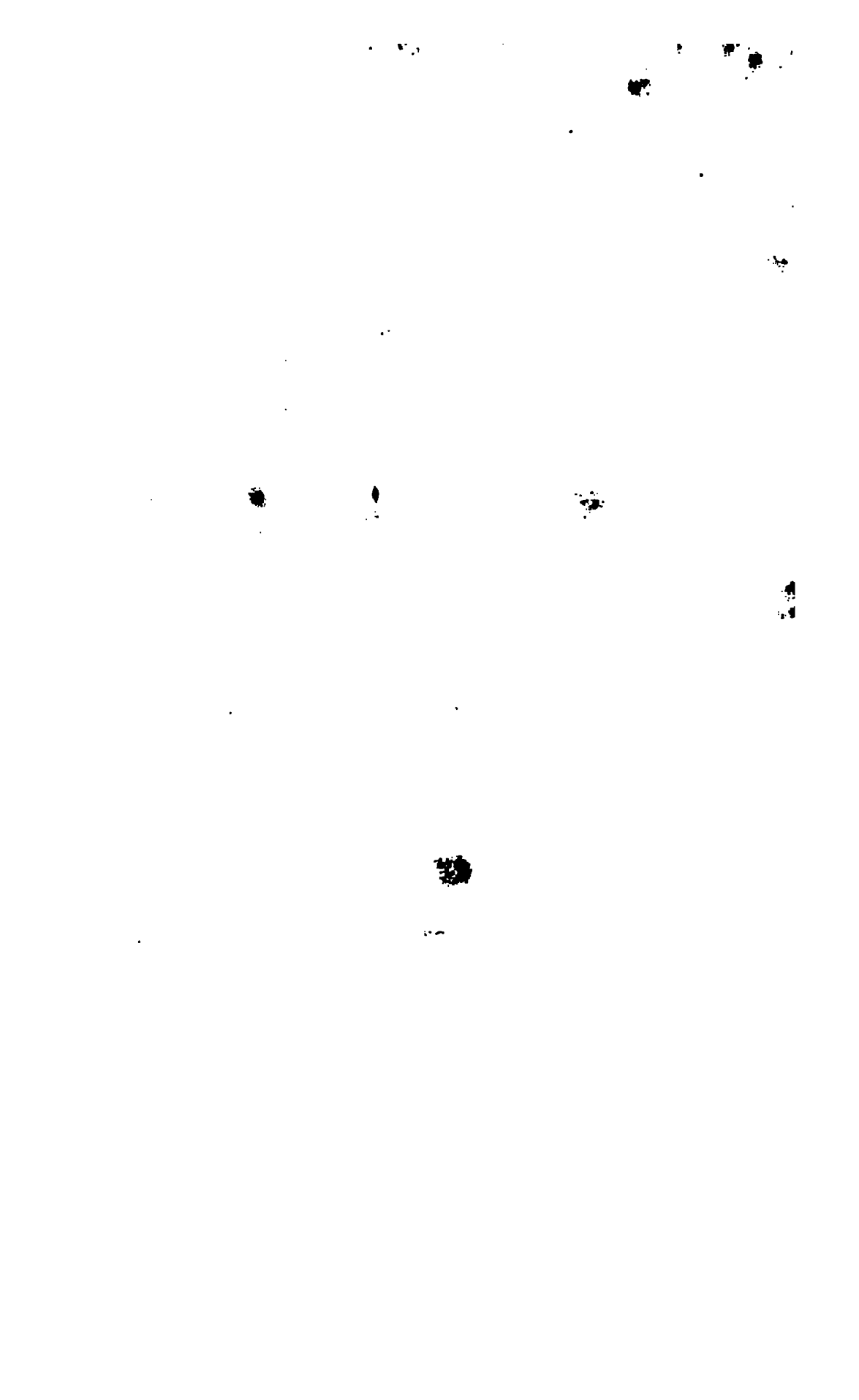
(or of dregs?) this word is a corruption. It  
ther into a particular kind of net: the net  
a dredger is one who uses such a net; an  
haps from its net-like top, a box for sea  
flour on meat, or amongst pastry; called  
dredging-box.

For oysters they have a peculiar dredge; a  
strong net, fastened to three spalls of iron, and  
at the boat's stern, gathering whatsoever is  
lying in the bottom.

The oysters dredged in the Lyne find a  
acceptance.

DREDGING, in civil engineering, is  
of removing mud, silt, or other deposition  
the bed of rivers, canals, harbours, &c.  
and is accomplished by various tools and  
descriptions of machinery.

The common dredging-boat or barge is  
by two or more men, by whom the great  
ballast, is taken up in a leather bag, the  
of which is extended by an iron hoop, and  
to a pole, of sufficient length to reach the  
tom: in the small way, two men are em  
to work each pole. The barge being moor  
of the men takes his station at the stern, a  
pole and bag in his hand, the other stands  
head, having hold of a rope, tied fast to the  
of the leather bag. The man at the stern  
puts the pole and bag down, over the  
side, to the bottom, in an inclined position  
hoop being farthest from the man in the  
the barge, and having a rope, one end of  
is fast to the gunwale of the barge, he  
twice or thrice round the pole, and the  
it tight: the man in the head now pulls it  
fastened to the hoop, and draws the hoop  
along the ground, the other allowing it  
to slip through the rope as it approaches  
vertical position, at the same time causing  
friction, that the hoop digs into the ground  
leather bag receiving whatever passes there





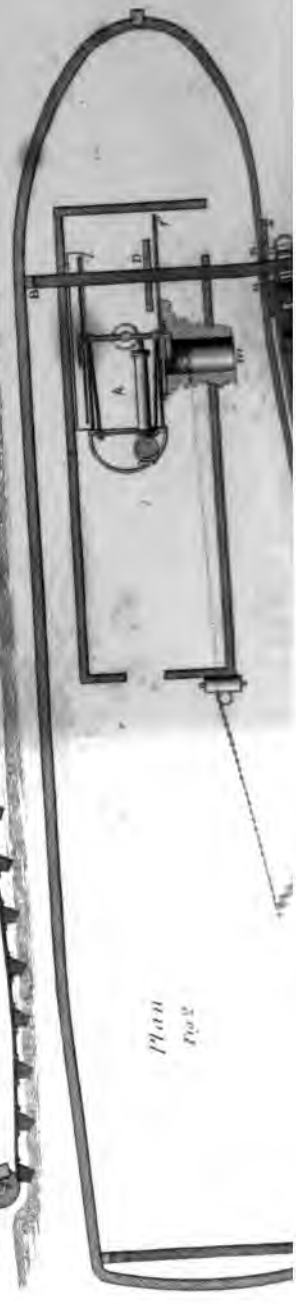
Elevation

Fig. 1.



Plan

Fig. 2.



now assist in getting a bag into the water, and in recovering its contents. When the men are employed; and, to a windlass, with wheel-work,

A chain or rope is brought through the spoon, through a block, and a small crane for bearing the contents to the side of the boat, over the gunwale to be emptied. The rope is led upon deck by the proper direction for the work. From two to four men, with a small crane, lift from twenty fathoms, from a depth of from two to three fathoms, when the ground is favourable, the convicts at Woolwich have been long employed to dredging, or dredging.

The dredging-machine, whether worked by the steam-engine, is a great improvement on the above. The frame-work consists of beams of timber, supported on the shores of wood; on these the rollers are upon iron rollers fixed to the empty buckets, attached to an endless chain, form a curve in the bottom; as they respectively descend to excavate or scoop up from the ground. The operation of raising the frame once the work is done, distinct from the steam-engine, is now also accomplished by taking from it.

THE MACHINES, AA, fig. 1, is bolted to the starboard gunwale, a large horizontal beam BB, a similar frame is fixed up in the port at D, fig. 2, and the end of the beam is supported by an upright post bolted to the gunwale; the starboard end of the beam is over the vessel's side, and has a frame fastened to it, to support one end of the long frame EE, composed of two plates bolted together: the other end of the frame is supported by pulleys *a, a*; from the stern, the upper ends of the frame EE have beams of the frame EE have beams bolted to them, which are perforated with large holes to receive two short tubes fastened to the iron bracket of the beam B, and the other to a frame A; these tubes act as guides for the frame E, upon which it can be raised by the pulleys *a, a*: they also form an axis, on which a trundle *O* is fixed, containing four similar trundles *P* is placed at the end of the frame EE, and two endless chains, as is seen in the plan, run round both, as is seen in the plan, the buckets bring up the material from the bottom, and the beams of the frame to the buckets as they roll up. The buckets are also placed on each of the chains to keep the chains in their places, so that they may not get off to one side, and is conveyed to the chains by

means of a cast iron wheel at *G* in the plan, wedged on the end of the axis of the upper trundle *O*. The wheel is cast hollow, like a very short cylinder, and has several screws tapped through its rim, pointing to the centre, and pressing upon the circumference of another wheel enclosed within the hollow of the first, that it may slip round in the other, where any power greater than the friction of the screw is applied; the internal wheel is wedged on the same shaft with a large cog-wheel *f*, turned by the small cog-wheel *g*, on the axis of the steam-engine. The steam-engine is one of that kind called high pressure, working by the expansive force of the steam only, without condensation; *h* is the boiler containing the fire-place and cylinder within it; *i* is one of the connecting rods, and *l* the fly wheel on the other end of the same shaft as the wheel *g*. The pulleys *a*, which suspend the chain frame, are reeved with an iron chain, the tackle fall of which passes down through the ship's deck, and is coiled on a roller *m* in the plan, and represented by a circle in the elevation: on the end of the roller is a cog-wheel *p*, turned by the engine wheel *g*: the bearing of this wheel is fixed upon a lever, one end of which comes near that part of the steam-engine, where the cock, which regulates the velocity of the engine, is placed; so that one man can command both lever and cock, and, by depressing that end of the lever, cause the wheel *p* to gear with *g*, and consequently be turned thereby, and wind up the chain of the pulleys; *g* is a strong curved iron bar bolted to the vessel's side and gunwale, passing through an eye bolted to the frame *E*, to keep the frame to the vessel's side, that the tide or other accident may not carry it away.

A hopper or trough is suspended beneath the wheel *o*, by ropes from the beam *B*, into which the buckets *b, b, b*, empty the ballast they bring from the bottom; the hopper conveys it into a barge brought beneath it; this hopper is not shown in the plate, as it would tend to confuse parts already not very distinct. The motion of the whole machine is regulated by one man. The vessel being moored fast, the engine is started, and turns the chain of buckets: the engine tender now puts his foot upon a lever, disengages the wheel *p* from *g*, and by another takes off a gripe which embraced the roller *m*. This allows the end *E* of the frame to descend, until the buckets on the lower half of the chain drag on the ground, as shown in fig. 1, when he stops the further descent by the gripe, the buckets are filled in succession at the lower end of the frame, and brought up to the top, where they deliver their contents into the hopper before-mentioned: as they take away the ballast from the bottom, the engine tender lets the frame *E* down lower by means of the gripe lever, and keeps it at such a height that the buckets come up nearly full; if at any time the buckets get such deep hold as to endanger the breaking of the chain or stopping the engine, the coupling-box at *G* before-described, suffers the steam-engine to turn without moving the chain of buckets, and the engine tender, pressing his foot upon the lever which brings the wheel *p* to gear with *g*, causes the roller *n* to be turned by the engine, and raise up the frame *E*, until



the buckets take into the ground the proper depth, that the friction of the coupling-box at G will turn the chain without slipping in any considerable degree. The steam-engine here described is of six-horse power, and will load a small barge with ballast in an hour and a half. Generally the excavated matters are required as ballast for shipping. Those of the Thames are sold to the colliers of Shield and Newcastle, at the rate of about a shilling per ton, and the ballast hills of those places are said to consist of these matters principally. They are also used for embanking and filling up behind piers, and those taken from the London docks are carried to the Osier Forelands on the banks of the river Lea, where they have already formed a valuable frontage for building. When dry they have also been used as brick-earth. When these matters are required to be transported by water to a distance, the receiving boat is made with two holds sloping towards the keel or bottom, for the purpose of lessening the width of the discharging apertures, which are shut with hatches, or hinged doors. These opening outwards, the pressure of the water prevents them from being opened until the time of arrival at the proper place; when chains attached to ring-bolts force them apart, and the whole contents of the boat escape.

The *Scouring or Dredging Basin* is a watertight compartment of a harbour, furnished with sluices, and designed to contain a quantity of tidal or river water, to be run off at pleasure. Where the command of head-water is sufficient, this is found the most effectual of all modes of disposing of loosened stuff. Most modern engineers have therefore included a scouring basin in their designs for tide harbours. The late Mr. Rennie reported that 400,000 tons of mud were annually discharged by the sewers of London into the river Thames. See *HARBOUR*.

**DREGS**, *n. s.* } Goth. *dregg*; Teut. *trus-*  
**DREG'ISH**, *adj.* } *cen*; Lat. *feces*; Gr. *ρροζ*,  
**DREG'GY**, *adj.* } *ρρογος*, refuse. (Used by  
 Shakespeare in the singular, see below.) The  
 sediments or lees of liquors; offal; refuse of any  
 kind: dreggy is, containing dregs.

**TROI.** — What makes this pretty abrupt? What too curious dreg espies my sweet lady in the fountain of our love?

**CRES.** More dregs than water, if my fears have eyes. *Shakespeare. Troilus and Cressida.*

The king by this journey purged a little the dregs and leaven of the northern people, that were before in no good affections towards him. *Bacon.*

Fain would we make him author of the wine,  
 If for the dregs we would some other blame. *Davies.*

Ripe grapes being moderately pressed, their juice may, without much dreggy matter, be squeezed out. *Boyle.*

To give a strong taste to this dreggy liquor, they fling in an incredible deal of broom or hops, whereby small beer is rendered equal in mischief to strong. *Harvey on Consumptions.*

Heaven's favourite thou, for better fates designed  
 Than we, the dregs and rubbish of mankind. *Dryden.*

What diffidence we must be under whether God will regard our sacrifice, when we have nothing to offer him but the dregs and refuse of life, the days of

loathing and satiety, and the years in which we live no pleasure. *Boyle.*

Such run on poets, in a raging vein,  
 Even to the dregs and squeezings of the brain. *Boyle.*

This the chalice of the fornications of rapine, war, and oppression, which was held out by the popes eastern harlot; which so many of the people, weary of the nobles of the land, had drained to the very dregs. *Boyle.*

The body of your work is a composition of dog and sediments, like a bad tavern's worst wine. *Boyle.*

His had been quaffed too quickly, and he found  
 The dregs were wormwood; but he filled again,  
 And from a purer fount, on holier ground,  
 And deemed its spring perpetual; but in vain!  
 Still round him clung invisibly a chain  
 Which galled for ever. *Boyle.*

**DREIN**, *v. n.* See **DRAIN**. To empty. The same with drain; spelt differently perhaps by chance.

She is the sluice of her lady's secrets: tis her  
 turning her mill a-going, and I can drein her of them  
 all. *Compton.*

'Tis dreined and emptied of its poison now;  
 A cordial draught. *Boyle.*

**DRELINCOURT** (Charles), a minister of the reformed church at Paris, was born at Sedan in 1595. He is best known in England by his Consolations against the Fears of Death, which was translated, and has been often printed. His third son, professor of physic at Leyden, was physician to the prince and princess of Orange before their accession to the crown of England. He died in 1660.

**DRENCH**, *v. a. & n. s.* } Saxo. *drenca*;  
**DRENCH'ER**. } Goth. *drenca*, to  
 immerse, moisten. To soak; steep; saturate with  
 moisture; physic abundantly or violently; do  
 substantives corresponding. A drench has been  
 defined, 'physic for a brute.'

And he seide, come thou and Peter gladd thou  
 fro the boot and wakide on the water to come to  
 Jhesus, But he sigh the wynd strong, and was wylde,  
 and whanne he biganne to drenchen, he cryed and wylde,  
 lord make me saaf. *Wiclif. Mat. xiv.*

Our garments being as they were drenched in the sea, hold notwithstanding their freshness and gloss. *Shakespeare.*

In swinish sleep

Their drenched natures lie, as in a death. *Id. Hamlet.*

Harry, says she, how many hast thou killed today? Give my roan horse a drench, says he; and answer fourteen, an hour after. *Id. Henry IV.*

Their counsels are more like a drench that must be poured down, than a draught which must be sweetly drank if I liked it. *King Charles.*

Let such bethink them, if the sleepy drench  
 Of that forgetful lake benumb not still,  
 That in our proper motion we ascend.  
 To-day deep thoughts learn with me to drench  
 In mirth, that after no repenting draws. *Id.*

Now dam the ditches, and the floods remain;  
 Their moisture has already drenched the plain. *Boyle.*

A drench of wine has with success been used,  
 And through a horn the generous juice distilled. *Id.*



as! has mutual hatred *drenched*  
in native blood. *Philips.*

or cattle are infected, speedily let both  
be drenched. *Mortimer's Husbandry.*

fleece, which, *drenched* with dew he

none refreshed the herbs around,  
resent the Church, endowed  
gifts, to Heathens not allowed.

*Cowper.*  
me cast up upon that great book  
The Family Receipt Book;  
th the rules in all her courses,  
ewing figs to *drenching* horses.

*Sheridan.*  
neglected on the lonesome plain,  
or Edwin never knew your lore,  
against the winter's *drenching* rain,  
og snow, the cottage shut the door.

*Beattie.*  
Then she wrung  
curls long *drenched* by every storm.

*Byron.*  
part. Probably corrupted from  
make a proverbial rhyme to brent

, quoth he, when I the present see  
er to be drent than brent?

*Faerie Queene.*  
N, a handsome city of Germany,  
Saxony, is situated on both sides  
at the influx of the Weisseritz.  
a third division, lying on the Weis-  
Frederickstadt. It is approached  
ry direction by delightful avenues,  
gh a rich and fertile country, and  
gentle acclivities. On entering the  
ble bridge across the Elbe first  
e of the spectator. It is built en-  
stone, and is about 550 paces in  
ting of nineteen arches. A delight-  
preads on every side. The streets  
are clean, broad, and well paved.  
Its public buildings are eleven  
arches, two Catholic, and one Cal-  
ore recent of the Catholic churches,  
middle of the eighteenth century, is  
best ecclesiastical edifices in Ger-  
s a flat roof cased with copper, and  
feet in height. But the late elec-  
e royal palace, is both an extensive  
the fine arts, which the traveller  
mit to explore, and a magnificent,  
lar structure. It has a tower 355  
and a number of remarkable apart-  
ularly the well known green vault,  
eight rooms, paved with marble,  
ng numerous statues, ivory work,  
vases, and precious stones. Before  
756 this collection was almost un-  
gustus II. and his preceding elec-  
le the fine arts an object of their  
onage; and to him this city is in-  
post of its modern improvements.  
lace is the chancery, and a large  
staining a valuable collection of  
the house of assembly for the diet  
s an elegant building, as well as

the palaces called after the princes Anthony and Maximilian. In the suburbs are the Zwinger gardens, a promenade containing a valuable cabinet of natural history. The arsenal has a curious collection of early fire-arms. The castle, formerly belonging to the counts of Bruhl, is the great dépôt of the porcelain manufactures. Another remarkable edifice is the Dutch and Japanese palace, a square building, rising amidst groves and thickets, and containing the royal library, said to consist of 150,000 volumes, some valuable statues, and a beautiful collection of porcelain.

Here is a military school, and an academy for cadets of noble family. The charitable institutions, particularly the house of industry, are said to be well regulated. It finds employment for more than 3000 individuals. The manufactures are those of lace, jewellery, porcelain, earthenware, mirrors, tapestry, and plaited straw. There are several public gardens outside of the city, of which the largest, the royal garden, is occasionally enlivened with concerts. There is also in this neighbourhood a romantic spot, called the Planische Grund, a valley formed by steep rocks of granite, and watered by the Weisseritz. Vineyards extend along a hill in the direction of the castle of Pilsnitz, the summer residence of the royal family, and remarkable for the coalition of 1792. In 1755 the population of Dresden was 63,000; in 1788, 53,000; in 1801, 48,000; in 1811, 45,000. This decrease is ascribed to the alarms and actual calamities to which Dresden has been exposed in the late wars of the continent; and, indeed, ever since Prussia ventured to cope with Austria. It was taken by the Prussians in 1745, and again in 1756; when it became the scene of war and of extreme distress. August 26th and 27th, 1813, the combined Austrian and Russian army advanced in great force from the Bohemian frontier, and attacked this city, but were obliged to retire. Dresden remained in the possession of the French until the scene of war was transferred to the neighbourhood of Leipsic; and the decisive battles in that situation obliged Buonaparte to evacuate Germany. Marshal St. Cyr was blockaded in it, and obliged to capitulate on the 6th of November, 1813.

Dresden was stripped of its walls in 1810 to repair the fortifications of Torgau. Since the peace it has been rapidly improving, and the population is now taken at 60,000. It is situated 100 miles south-west of Berlin.

DRESS, <i>v. a., v. n. &amp; n. s.</i>	Fr. <i>dresser</i> ;
DRESS'ER, <i>n. s.</i>	Ital. <i>drizzare</i> ;
DRESS'ING,	Teuton. <i>diriser</i> ;
DRESS'ING-ROOM,	from Lat. <i>dirigo</i> ;
DREST, <i>part.</i>	Gr. <i>ὑπάσαι</i> , to

make ready. To clothe; robe; adorn. Hence to cover a wound with medicaments; to rectify; adjust and prepare, generally: used also in a particular sense for the trimming, currying, and rubbing horses, as well as breaking them in; and for preparing food for the table. As a neuter verb, it means to pay particular attention to dress; and among soldiers, to keep in line. As a substantive, it is synonymous with clothes, attire; and sometimes means skill; exactness in putting on dress. Dressing is synonymous with dress;



a dresser is one employed in dressing; and a useful kitchen-board on which food is dressed.

To give light to them that sit in darkness, and in shadow of death, to *dresse* our feet into the way of peace. *Wicklif.*

When he *dresseth* the lamps, he shall burn incense. *Erodus xxx.*

Said he unto the *dresser* of his vineyard, Behold, these three years I come seeking fruit on this fig-tree, and find none. *Luke.*

Enforced to slepe, and for to take some rest  
And to lye downe as soone as I my *dresta*  
At Harwyche porte slumbryng as I laye  
In myne hostes house called *powres* keye. *Shelton.*

'Tis burnt, and so is all the meat.  
What dogs are these! Where is the rascal cook?  
How durst you, villains! bring it from the *dreaer*,  
And serve it thus to me that love it not? *Shakespeare.*

Adam! well may we labour still to *dress*  
This garden; still to tend plant, herb, and flower. *Milton.*

Where was a fine room in the middle of the house,  
handsomely *dressed up*, for the commissioners to sit in. *Clarendon.*

Our infirmities are so many, that we are forced to  
*dress* and tend horses and asses, that they may help  
our needs. *Taylor.*

The first request  
He made was, like his brothers to be *dressed*;  
And, as his birth required, above the rest. *Dryden.*

A steed  
Well mouthed, well managed, which himself did  
*dress*;  
His aid in war, his ornament in peace. *Id.*

Few admired the native red and white,  
Till poets *dressed* them up to charm the sight. *Id.*

Thus the voluptuous youth, bred up to *dress*  
For his fat grandsire some delicious mess,  
In feeding high his tutor will surpass,  
An heir apparent of the gourmand race. *Id.*

She hurries all her hand-maids to the task;  
Her head alone will twenty *dressers* ask. *Id. Juvenal.*

A maple *dresser* in her hall she had,  
On which full many a slender meal she made. *Id.*

The mind loses its natural relish of real truth, and  
is reconciled insensibly to any thing that can be  
*dressed up* into any faint appearance of it. *Locke.*

When you take down dishes, tip a dozen upon the  
*dresser*. *Swift's Directions to the Cook.*

Latin books might be found every day in his  
*dressing-room*, if it were carefully searched. *Swift.*

Lollia Paulina wore, in jewels, when *dressed out*,  
the value of three hundred twenty-two thousand nine  
hundred and sixteen pounds thirteen shillings and  
four-pence. *Arbuthnot.*

In time of my sickness another chirurgeon *dressed*  
her. *Wiseman.*

The second day after we took off the *dressings*, and  
found an eschar made by the cathartic. *Id. on Tumours.*

Full *dress* creates dignity, augments consciousness,  
and keeps at distance an encroacher. *Clarissa.*

A robe obscene was o'er his shoulders thrown,  
A *dress* by fates and furies worn alone. *Pope's Stat.*

The men of pleasure, *dress*, and gallantry. *Pope.*  
When you *dress* your young hops, cut away roots or  
sprigs. *Mortimer's Husbandry.*

A lady of genius will give a genteel air to her  
whole *dress* by a well-fancied suit of knots, as a judi-

cious writer gives a spirit to a whole sentence by a  
single expression. *Go.*

*Dress* drains our cellar dry,  
And keeps our larder lean; puts out our fires;  
And introduces hunger, frost, and woe,  
Where peace and hospitality might reign. *Compe.*

And dear to love, to memory *draw*,  
It brightens through the starting tear;  
Like the glad bow, by fancy *drawn*,  
That beams on evening's watery west. *Bonnie*  
oldiers *draw* by one another in ranks, the help  
collectively *dresses* by some given object. *James's Military Dictionary.*

*DRESSING*, in surgery. See SURGERY.

*DRESSING OF MEAT*, by means of cooking  
fire, is intended to loosen the compages or texture  
of the flesh, and dispose it for dissolution  
and digestion in the stomach. The usual operations  
are roasting, boiling, and stewing. In  
roasting, it is observed, meat will bear a much  
greater and longer heat than either in boiling or  
stewing; and in boiling, greater and longer heat  
in stewing. Roasting being performed in the open  
air, as the parts begin externally to warm, they  
extend and dilate, and so gradually let out part  
of the rarefied included air, by which means the  
internal succussions, on which the dissolution  
depends, are much weakened and abated. Being  
being performed in water, the pressure is  
greater, and consequently the succussions to lift  
up the weight are proportionably strong, by  
which means the coction is hastened; and even  
in this way there are great differences; for the  
greater the weight of water the sooner is the busi-  
ness done. In stewing, though the heat is  
much less than what is employed in the other  
methods, the operation is much more quick,  
because performed in a close vessel, and fully by  
which means the succussions are often re-  
peated, and more strongly reverberated. Hence  
the force of Papin's digester. Boiling, Dr.  
Cheyne observes, draws more of the rank strong  
juices from the meat, and leaves it less nutritious,  
but lighter, and easier of digestion; roasting, on  
the other hand, leaves it fuller of the strong nutri-  
tive juices, but harder to digest, and needing  
more dilution. Dr. Brown insists, that roasted  
meat is more easily digested, and every way better  
for a weak stomach than boiled. Strong and full-  
grown animal food should be boiled, and the  
young and tender roasted.

*DREVET* (Peter), the elder and younger, two  
eminent French engravers. The father instructed,  
but was surpassed by his son, who was a member  
of the Royal Academy of painting and sculpture.  
His portraits are neat and elegant, he  
labored to the last degree. He particularly excels  
in representing lace, silk, fur, velvet, and  
other ornamental parts of dress. His historical  
prints, in point of neatness and exquisite work-  
manship, are scarcely to be equalled. His repre-  
sentation of Christ in the Temple, is reckoned  
the best of these. The following are also much  
valued: the Meeting of Abraham's Servant with  
Rebecca at the Well; and Abraham, with Isaac  
on the Altar, dated 1707; both large copper-  
plates from A. Coypel. Among his portraits,  
the following are held in the highest estimation:  
M. Bossuet, bishop of Meaux, a whole-length



and Samuel Bernard, a whole-  
a chair.

town of France, in the depart-  
re and Loire, and ci-devant pro-  
e. It is remarkable for its anti-  
taken by Henry II. of England  
by Henry V. in 1421. It is  
e for a battle fought in the  
December, 1562, between the  
testants. Some derive its name  
s. It has two churches, St. Ste-  
re Dame, or the great church,  
uilt. It has a cloth manufacture,  
the river Blaise, at the foot of a  
five miles west by south of Paris.  
0.

Contracted perhaps from drib-  
to cut off; to defalcate.

as come short of half the mart;  
as their bargains *dribs* a part.

*Dryden.*

v. n. & v. a. } Or drip, a di-  
                          } minutive of DRIP,  
fall in drops; to throw down in  
et is a small sum of money

at the *dribbling* dart of love  
plete bosom.

*Shakespeare.*

long years of exile borne,  
numbered since his blest return;  
you just to pay,

let of a day.

*Dryden.*

flow with a ladle full of soup, and  
ray up stairs.

*Swift's Rules to Servants.*  
cesses on the surface owe their form  
water that passed over it.

*Woodward on Fossils.*

iculty, and a momentary suppression  
caused by the stone's shutting up  
bladder. *Arbuthnot on Aliments.*

heap o' leaves an' stibble,  
noony a weary nibble!

turned out, for a' thy trouble,

But house or hald,  
winter's sleety *dribble*,

An' cranreuch cauld! *Burns.*

v. a. & v. n. From drive. Impulse;  
ence or tendency; violent course;  
rift or violent shower, and a heap  
ay matter thrown together, or at  
verb is derived from the substan-  
to draw; impel along; or throw

ak, half rent with rugged rift,  
he rocks, and fall with fearful *drift*.

*Faerie Queene.*

nder from the south  
vift of bullets on this town.

*Shakespeare.*

aps, upon the waters awam,  
which rudely cut within,  
first a floating trough became,  
iv'let passage did begin. *Dryden.*  
nder the *drift* of any passion, will  
npulse of it till something interpose,  
r impulse, turn him another way.

*South.*

ft of his book being to prove, that  
possible to be false, he opposes no-  
*Tiltsdon.*

The *drift* of the pamphlet is to stir up our compas-  
sion towards the rebels. *Addison.*

This, by the stile, the manner, and the *drift*,  
'Twas thought could be the work of none but Swift.  
*Swift.*

The ready racers stand;  
Swift as on wings of wind upborne they fly,  
And *drifts* of rising dust involve the sky.

*Pope's Odyssey.*

Snow, no larger than so many grains of sand,  
*drifted* with the wind in clouds from every plain.

*Ellis's Voyage.*

He wanders on  
From hill to dale, still more and more astray,  
Impatient flouncing through the *drifted* heaps.

*Thomson.*

'Prince, to these walls give access free  
At all times for my friends and me.'  
Phrygius full well perceived her *drift*  
Yet nobly ratified his gift.

*Sheridan.*

DRIFT, in navigation, the angle which the  
line of a ship's motion makes with the nearest  
meridian, when she drives with her side to the  
wind and waves, and is not governed by the  
power of the helm; it also implies the distance  
which the ship drives on that line. A ship's  
way is only called drift in a storm; and then  
when it blows so vehemently as to prevent her  
from carrying any sail, or at least restrains her to  
such a portion of sail as may be necessary to  
keep her sufficiently inclined to one side, that  
she may not be dismasted by her violent labor-  
ing, produced by the turbulence of the sea.

DRIFT-SAIL, a sail used under water, veered  
out right a-head by sheets, as other sails are. It  
serves to keep the ship's head right upon the sea  
in a storm, and to hinder her driving too fast in  
a current.

DRILL, v. a., v. n., & n. s. Germ. and Dutch  
*drillen*; Sax. *dirhan*, of the verb *thregian*, to turn;  
from *durgh* or *turgh*, through. To pierce or bore;  
hence to drain: as a neuter verb, it means to  
flow gently, trickle; and hence, probably, to  
cause so to flow; to conduct; to train. Drill is  
used substantively for a boring instrument; a  
dribbling brook; military exercise; and a kind of  
monkey.

Springs through the pleasant meadows pour their  
*drills*,

Which snake-like glide between the bordering hills.

*Sandys.*

My body through and through he *drilled*,  
And Whacum by my side lay killed. *Hudibras.*

The foe appeared drawn up and *drilled*,  
Ready to charge them in the field. *Id.*

The way of tempering steel to make gravers, *drills*,  
and mechanical instruments, we have taught artificers.  
*Boyle.*

Shall the difference of hair be a mark of a different  
internal speciack constitution between a changeling  
and a *drill*, when they agree in shape and want of  
reason? *Locke.*

When by such insinuations they have once got  
within him, and are able to *drill* him on from one  
lewdness to another, by the same arts they corrupt  
and squeeze him. *South.*

She has bubbled him out of his youth: she *drilled*  
him on to five-and-fifty, and she will drop him in his  
old age. *Addison.*



*Drills* are used for the making such holes as punches will not serve for; as a piece of work that hath already its shape, and must have an hole made in it.

*Moxon.*

When a hole is *drilled* in a piece of metal, they hold the drill-bow in their right hand; but, when they turn small work, they hold the drill-bow in their left hand.

*Id.*

Tell, what could *drill* and perforate the poles,  
And to the' attractive rays adapt their holes?

*Blackmore.*

*Drilled* through the sandy stratum every way,  
The waters with the sandy stratum rise.

*Thomson.*

Some *drill* and bore

The solid earth, and from the strata there  
Extract a register, by which we learn,  
That he who made it, and revealed its date  
To Moses, was mistaken in its age.

*Cowper.*

**DRILL-SOWING**, a method of sowing grain or seed of any kind, so that it may all be at a proper depth in the earth, which is necessary to its producing healthful and vigorous plants. For this purpose a variety of drill ploughs have been invented and recommended; but from the expense attending the purchase, and the extreme complication of their structure, there is no instrument of this kind, as yet discovered, that has been brought into general use. This method, however, is greatly recommended in the Geographical Essays. See **HUSBANDRY**.

**DRINK**, *v. a., v. n., & n. s.*

**DRINK'ABLE**, *adj.*

**DRINK'ER**, *n. s.*

**DRINK'MONEY**,

**DRUNK**, *adj.*

**DRUNK'ARD**, *n. s.*

**DRUNK'EX**, *adj.*

**DRUNK'ENLY**, *adv.*

**DRUNK'ENNESS**, *n. s.*

**DRINK**, *v. a., v. n., & n. s.* Gothic *dreca*; Sax. *drencan*; Teut. and Belg. *trincken*, perhaps from the sound of drinking from a cup.—*Minshew*. To swallow liquid; quench thirst: hence to feast; guzzle habitually; salute in drinking. As an active verb, it means to swallow; suck up; absorb; to act upon by drinking; and is used with the intensive particles *off*, *up*, and *in*: drink is liquid of any kind. Drinkable is proper or agreeable to drink: drinker is applied both to him who moderately as well as him who excessively drinks: drink-money, is money given to procure, or instead of, drink: drunk, and drunken, are the regular participial adjectives of drink: drunkard is one who habitually drinks to excess; and drunkenly, drunkenness, the corresponding adverb and substantive.

For Jon cam neither etynge ne *drynkynge*, and thei seyen he hath a devil. The son of man cam etynge and *drynkynge*; and thei seyen lo a man a gloutoun and a *drynkere* of wyn, and a frend of pappicanes and of synful men.

*Wiclif. Mat. xi.*

And nyle ghe be *drunken* of wyn in which is lecherie, but be ghe fillid with the hooli goost.

*Wiclif. Effesia v.*

She said, *drink*, and I will give thy camels *drink* also; so I *drank*, and she made the camels *drink* also.

*Gen. xxvi 46.*

Benhadad was *drinking* himself *drunk* in the pavilions.

*1 Kings.*

Withouten bake mete never was his hous  
Of fish and flesh, and that so plenteous  
It snewed in his hous of mete and *drinke*  
Of alle deintees that men coude thinke.

*Chaucer. Prol. to Cant. Tales.*

Thou livest in bliss  
That earthly passion never stains;  
Where, from the purest spring,  
The sacred nectar sweet  
Is thy continual drink.

*Spenser. The Mourn.*

Passion is the *drunkenness* of the mind, before in its present workings not conveivable

Come, we have a hot venison pasty to *drum*  
gentlemen, I hope we shall *drink* down all

I take your princely word for those reb  
—I gave it you, and will maintain my w  
And thereupon I *drink* unto your grace.

My ears have yet not *drunk* a hundred  
Of that tongue's uttering, yet I know the

Then let the earth be *drunken* with

We will give you rare and sleepy *drin*  
*Id. Wm*

We came to fight you.—For my part,  
it is turned to a *drinking*. *Id. Antony and*  
Done in a state of inebriation.

When your carters, or your waiting va  
Have done a *drunken* slaughter, and delat  
The precious image of our dear Redemer  
You straight are on your knees for pardon

My blood already, like the pelican,  
Hast thou tapt out, and *drunkenly* cut

Some blood drawn on me would bep  
Of my more fierce endeavour. I've see  
Do more than this in sport. *Id.*

It were good for those that have moat  
are great *drinkers*, to take fume of lig  
rosemary, and frankincense, about the  
moon.

*Drunken* men imagine every thing tan  
they imagine that things come upon that  
not well things afar off; those things th  
near hand, they see out of their place, an  
they see things double.

When God made choice to  
His mighty champion, strong above  
Whose *drink* was only from the liquid

O madness, to think use of strongest  
And strongest *drinks*, our chief support

*Drunkenness* is the way to all bestial ad  
sins. *Ep. Hall's Com*

Cannot he that wisely declines walk  
ice for fear of falling, though possibly it  
him sooner to his journey's end, as we  
*drinking* more wine than is necessary, for  
*drunk*, and the ill consequences thereof.

*Lord*

Every going off from our natural and te  
per, and our usual severity of behavior,  
of *drunkenness*. *Taylor's Rule of H*

The body being reduced nearer unto the  
emptied, he cometh more porous, and ge  
eth in water. *Brounne's Vain*

This was the morn when issuing on the  
Drawn up in rank and file, they stood sm  
Of seeming arms to make a short assay;  
Then hasten to be *drunk*, the business of

On the other side, let a *drunkard* see th  
decays, his estate wastes; discredit and  
the want of all things, even of his belon  
tends him in the course he follows.



and debauched person is the object of  
 mpt. *South.*

ers another a cup of poison, a thing as  
 h; but at the same time he tells him  
 ial, and so he *drinks* it off, and dies.

*Id.*  
 n his health and his strength in his  
 er all his *drunken* trophies, at length  
 self too. *Id.*

conclude that man *drunk*, who takes  
 ight sober. *Spectator.*

should for honour take  
*drunken* quarrels of a rake. *Swift.*

let acts of gods, and heroes old,  
 t bards in hall and bower have told,  
 to the lyre, your voice employ;  
 ased ear will *drink* with silent joy.

*Pope.*  
 delicious poison from thy eye. *Id.*

thy sweeping skirt too near the wall;  
 sleeve will *drink* the coloured oil.

*Gay.*  
 shs, austere wines are apt to occasion

*Arbuthnot on Aliments.*  
 ts were always asking for *drink-money*.

*Arbuthnot.*  
 nonians trained up their children to  
 u, by bringing a drunken man into  
*Watts on the Mind.*

essary to be *drunk* one's self, to relish  
 nkenness. Do we not judge of the  
 the dialogue between Iago and Cassio  
 llent in its kind), when we are quite  
 wit, by whatever means it is produced;  
 will appear so at all times. I admit  
 are raised by *drinking*, as by the com-  
 ion of any pleasure: cock-fighting or  
 ll raise the spirits of a company, as  
 hough surely they will not improve con-  
 lao admit, that there are some sluggish  
 proved by *drinking*, as there are fruits  
 ood till they are rotten: there are such  
 are medlars. *Johnson.*

No eyes  
 now *drink* this sight of loveliness;  
 e sole in this sweet solitude,  
 the Spirit of the place divide  
 ge of these waters. *Byron.*

Would that I had died  
 t monster's victim I had been!  
 its midnight violence betide,  
 fit of *drunkenness* or spleen? *Id.*

an essential part of our ordinary  
 id form. See *Food*. The general  
 is, to supply fluid; facilitate solu-  
 se to assist the evacuation of the  
 l promote the progress of the ali-  
 the intestines; for, by the con-  
 longitudinal fibres of the stomach,  
 drawn up, and nothing but fluid  
 ich, by its bulk, makes a hurried  
 nigh the intestines, and so deter-  
 er excretion by stool, as less than  
 sed by the lacteals. Hence, a large  
 mmon water has been found pur-  
 ceteris paribus, that aliment which  
 ed with the largest proportion of  
 the largest evacuation by stool.  
 on has arisen, about where the fe-  
 of the aliment is first remarkably

collected. It is commonly thought to be in the  
 great gut; but, undoubtedly, it often begins in  
 the ilium, especially when the drink is in a  
 small proportion, and when the progress of the  
 aliment is slow; for when the contents of the  
 guts are very fluid, they are quickly pushed on,  
 and reach the great guts before they deposit  
 their feculency. Another effect of drink is, to  
 facilitate the mixture of the lymph, refluxant from  
 every part of the system, with the chyle. In the  
 blood-vessels, where all must be kept fluid in  
 order to proper mixture, drink increases the  
 fluidity, and gives tension, by its bulk. Hence,  
 drink contributes to sanguification, as sometimes  
 food gives too dense a nutriment to be acted  
 upon by the solids; and hence, also, drink pro-  
 motes the secretions. These are the effects of  
 drink in general; but the more liquid the food  
 is, it is the sooner evacuated, and less nourish-  
 ment is extracted. Hence, drink is, in some  
 degree, opposed to nourishment; and so, *ceteris*  
*paribus*, those who use least drink are most nour-  
 ished. All these effects may be produced by  
 simple water; and it is said, that other liquors  
 are fit for drink in proportion to the water they  
 contain. Water, however, when used as drink,  
 is most commonly impregnated with vegetable  
 and farinaceous substances, which thus both  
 operate as drink and contribute to nourishment.  
 Sometimes we impregnate water with the subacid  
 fruits; and thus it acquires other qualities, of  
 considerable use in the animal economy. All  
 drinks may be reduced to two heads: first, pure  
 water, or where the additional substance gives  
 no additional virtue; second, fermented liquors.  
 The latter have not only the qualities of the  
 first, but also qualities peculiar to themselves.  
 Fermented liquors are more or less poignant  
 to the taste, and better calculated to quench  
 thirst. They are peculiarly adapted for stim-  
 ulating the mouth, fauces, and stomach, to  
 throw out the saliva and gastric liquor. By  
 their acescency they are fitted for some  
 beneficial purposes in certain states of the  
 system; by their fluidity they dilate viscid food;  
 though in this respect they answer no better than  
 common water. Carried into the blood-vessels,  
 in so far as they retain any saline property, they  
 stimulate the excretories, and promote urine and  
 sweat. Many physicians, in treating of fermented  
 liquors, have rejected their nutritious virtues,  
 which certainly ought to be taken into the ac-  
 count, though, by expediting the evacuation by  
 stool, they cause less of the nutritious parts of the  
 aliment to be taken up, and, by stimulating the  
 excretories, make these nutritious parts to rest for  
 a shorter time in the system. All these and many  
 other effects arise from fermented liquors. Their  
 acescency sometimes promotes the disease of  
 acescency, by increasing that of vegetables, acting  
 as a ferment, and so producing flatulency, pur-  
 ging, cholera, &c. So that, with vegetable ali-  
 ment, as little drink is necessary, the most inno-  
 cent is pure water; and it is only with animal  
 food that fermented liquors are necessary. In  
 warmer climates, fermented liquors would seem  
 requisite to obviate alkalescency and heat. But  
 it should be considered, that, though fermented  
 liquors contain an acid, yet they also contain al-



cohol; which, though it adds stimulus to the stomach, yet is extremely hurtful in the warmer climates, and wherever alkalescency prevails in the system. Nature in these climates has given men an inclination for water impregnated with acid fruits, e. g. sherbet: but this needs to be cautiously used, as in these countries they are apt to shun animal food, using too much of the vegetable, and often thus causing dangerous refrigerations, choleras, diarrhæas, &c. It may be proper here to mention the chief heads on which the varieties of fermented liquors depend. 1st. They are owing to the quality of the subject, as more or less viscid; and to its capacity also of undergoing an active fermentation, although perhaps the more viscid are more nutritious. Hence the difference between ales and wines; by the first, meaning fermented liquors from farinacea, by the second, from the fruits of plants. It depends, 2dly, On the acerbity, acidity, nature, and maturation, of the fruit. 3dly. The variety depends on the conduct of the fermentation. In general, fermentation is progressive, being at first active and rapid, detaching the fixed air or gas sylvestre, at the same time acquiring more acid than before. These qualities of flatulency and acidity remain for some time: but, as the fermentation goes on, the liquor becomes more perfect, no air is detached, and alcohol is produced; so that fermented liquors differ according to the progress of the fermentation, and have different effects on the system. When fermentation is stopped before it comes to maturity, though naturally it proceeds in this way, yet, by addition of new ferment, it may again be renewed with a turbid intestine motion. In the inordinate quantities in which fermented liquors are occasionally drunk with a view of conviviality, they have a tendency to undermine the health, while they appear to fatten the body; occasioning dropsy and other fatal diseases. The strong ale so much drunk in the country certainly has had many victims, as well as fermented liquors of other kinds; but those beverages generally drunk at our meals under the name of beer and porter are certainly most wholesome, when free of acidity, and answer every salutary purpose in the animal economy. See DIGESTION.

DRINO, a river of European Turkey, in Albania, formed of the White Drino, which falls from Mount Boras, on the frontiers of Dalmatia and Servia, and the Black Drino, a much larger stream, which takes its rise on the northern declivity of the mountains of Sagori, and after passing through the lake of Ochrida, flows in a northerly direction till it meets the former. The united stream now runs due west, separating Albania from Dalmatia, and finally empties itself by seven mouths into the Adriatic, below Alessio, forming several islands, and the Gulf of Drino. It is navigable for large rafts for nearly 100 miles. On the banks are noble forests.

DRINO is also the name of another large river of European Turkey, which separates Bosnia from Servia, and falls into the Save below Drinovar.

DRIP, *v. n.*, *v. a.* & *n. s.* } Dutch, *drippen*;  
DRIPP'ING, *n. s.* } Teuton. *dripelen*;  
DRIPP'INGPAN, *n. s.* } Dan. *dryppe*. See

Drop. To fall in drops, or let drops fall; in a particular sense, to let fat drop in roasting; that which falls in drops or small quantities. In the last sense drip is synonymous with dripping.

Let what was put into his belly, and what he ate, be his sauce.

His offered entrails shall his crime reproach.  
And drip their fatness from the luscious branch.

The soil, with fattening moisture filled,  
Is clothed with grass, and fruitful to be tilled;  
Such as in fruitful vales we view from high,  
Which dripping rocks, not rolling streams, supply.

The finest sparks, and cleanest beams,  
Drip from the shoulders to the loins.

Her Boob of tears  
Seem like the lofty barn of some rich swain,  
Which from the thatch drips fast a shower of rain.

Shews all her secrets of house-keeping;  
For candles how she trucks her dripping.

When the cook turns her back, throw smoking  
coals into the drippingpan.

Water may be procured for necessary uses  
from the heavens, by preserving the drops of the  
houses.

Though thy time  
Be fickle, and thy year most part deformed  
With dripping rains, or withered by a frost,  
I would not yet exchange thy sullen skies,  
And fields without a flower, for warmer France,  
With all her vines.

There breathes a living fragrance from the stem,  
Of flowers yet fresh with childhood; on the ear  
Drops the light drip of the suspended oar,  
Or chirps the grasshopper one good-night canticle.

And thou, ghastly Belshazzar!  
Dripping with dusky gore, and trampling on  
The carcasses of fide—away! away!

DRISSA, a town of the government of Wlaspok, European Russia, situated on the right bank of the Dwina, at the influx of the Dnestr. Here was situated the entrenched camp constructed by the Russians in 1812, to oppose the progress of the French, but abandoned on the approach of the latter. It is twenty miles W. N. W. of Polotzk, and 272 south of St. Petersburg.

DRIVE, *v. a.* & *n. s.* } Sax. *driven*; Ger-  
DRIVER, } do-Goth. *drifon*; Teu-  
DRIV'ING, *n. s.* } *treiben*; from *trieb*.  
DROVE, *n. s.* } *rupu*. To chase;  
DROV'EN, *part.* } to push or impel with  
DROV'ER, *n. s.* } overcoming force.

opposed to draw or drag, in which that which draws or drags goes before; that which drives goes behind or follows the thing driven; hence to force or compel, generally; to aim at; to urge to greater speed; to regulate a carriage, or ride the horses, perhaps; to hurry on; to drive. A drove, from the preterite of drive, is a collective number of things or animals driven; hence a crowd or tumult of persons. Driven, the old past participle of drive. A drover, one who habitually drives animals, or feeds them to be driven to market. Spenser uses it for a bull driven 'along the stream.'

For the charity of Christ dryness us, *groping* the thing, that if one died for all, *thanne* all were dead.

Wiclif. 2 Cor. x.



lons ben of the word, and of names of  
ise ghousilff, I will not be domesman  
is, and he *drov* hem from the doom place.

*Id. Dedis. 18.*

stchman told, saying, the *driving* is like  
Jehu, the sou of Nimshi, for he *droveth*  
Bible, 2 Kings ix. 20.  
e *driven* forth from among men.

*Job xxx. 5.*

d measured the earth: he beheld, and  
the nations.

*Hab. iii. 6.*

he benches he *drove* away the cat,  
oun his potent and his hat,  
scrip, and set himself adoun.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

re sake, some words in him sometime  
y, which require straighter placing in  
*Ascham.*

speech is in the manner of desperate  
*Spenser's State of Ireland.*

he deer with hound and horn

took his way. *Cherry Chase.*

us did not think that tyranny was  
inguished, till they had *driven* one of  
o depart the city, against whom they  
he world what to object, saving only that  
Tarquin.

*Hooker.*

the many-peopled city flies;  
heir labours, and the *driver's* cries.

*Sandys.*

ith *drove* out their governour, and re-  
ks into the town. *Knolles's History.*

ies in buckram let *drive* at me.

*Shakespeare. Henry IV.*

ices the flocks from field to fold,  
ers rage and rocks grow cold.

*Shakespeare.*

suitor from his mad humour of love  
mour of madness.

*Id. As You Like It.*

*droven* bed of down. *Shakespeare.*

This is fought indeed;  
ne at first, we had *droven* them home  
out their heads. *Id.*

se prince hath got your Hero.

him joy of her.

's spoken like an honest *drover*; so they

*Id. Much Ado About Nothing.*

cannot husband his ground so well, if  
at rent; so the merchant cannot *drive*  
ell, if he sit at great usury. *Bacon.*

ient of wood that shineth in the dark,  
ntly *driven* and pursued; the rather for  
ags that give light here below, it is the  
and hath least apparent motion.

*Id. Natural History.*

it to their stations many *droves* of cat-  
n a few days were brought out of the  
assand muttons. *Hayward.*

ents *drove* men into slidings.

*King Charles.*

us the proper notions of the four ele-  
h them and their qualities *driven* up  
ato their most simple principles.

*Digby on Bodies.*

se them beyond Amen's flood,  
bounds marked deep in their own blood.

*Cowley.*

able if such unskilfulness make them  
ime by the periods of sin and death.

*Taylor.*

ton, being master of temper, and of the  
dissimulation, knew too well how to

lead him into a mistake, and then *drive* him into cha-  
ler. *Clarendon.*

Thy flaming chariot-wheels, that shook

Heaven's everlasting frame, while o'er the necks

Thou *drov'st* of warring angels disarrayed. *Milton.*

The sounds and seas, with all their finny *drove*,

Now to the moon in wavering morrice move. *Id.*

A Spaniard is unacquainted with our northern  
*droves*. *Broune.*

Authors *drive* at these, as the highest elegancies,  
which are but the frigidities of wit.

*Id. Vulgar Errors.*

He taught the gospel rather than the law,  
And forced himself to *drive*, but loved to draw.

*Dryden*

Love, fixt to one, still safe at anchor rides,

And dares the fury of the winds and tides;

But losing once that hold, to the wide ocean born,

It *drives* away at will, to every wave a scorn. *Id.*

Fierce Boreas *drove* against his flying sails,

And rent the sheets. *Id. Æneid.*

Perithous' dart *drove* on, and nailed him to the  
wood. *Dryden.*

Your Pasimond a lawless bargain *drove*,

The parent could not sell the daughter's love. *Id.*

Fate has *driven* 'em all

Into the net.

*Id. Don Sebastian.*

Not the fierce *drover* with more fury lends

The sounding lash, and, ere the stroke descends,

Low to the wheels his pliant body bends.

*Id. Virgil.*

But if to fame alone thou dost pretend,

The miser will his empty palace lend,

Set wide with doors, adorned with plated brass,

Where *droves*, as at a city-gate, may pass.

*Id. Juvenal.*

The *drover*, who his fellow *drover* meets

In narrow passages of winding streets. *Id.*

The wolves scampered away, however, as hard as  
they could *drive*. *L'Estrange.*

The one 's in the plot, let him be never so inno-  
cent; and the other is as white as the *driven* snow, let  
him be never so criminal. *Id.*

He, *driven* to dismount, threatened, if I did not the  
like, to do as much for my horse as fortune had done  
for his. *Sidney.*

It is better to marry than to burn, says St. Paul;  
where we may see what *drives* men into a conjugal  
life: a little burning pushes us more powerfully than  
greater pleasures in prospect. *Loche.*

The multitude or common rout, like a drove of  
sheep, or an herd of oxen, may be managed by any  
noise or cry which their *drover* shall accustom them to.  
*South.*

There find a herd of heifers, wandering o'er  
The neighbouring hill, and *drive* 'em to the shore.

*Addison.*

We have done our work, and are come within view  
of the end that we have been *driving* at.

*Id. on the War.*

To *drive* the argument farther, let us inquire into  
the obvious designs of this divine architect.

*Cheyne's Philos. Principles.*

The trade of life cannot be *driven* without partners.  
*Collier.*

The design of these orators was to *drive* some par-  
ticular point, either the condemnation or acquittal.

*Suett.*

He builds a bridge, who never *drove* a pile. *Pope.*

Thick as autumnal leaves, or *driving* sand,

The moving squadrons blacken all the strand.

*Id. Inad.*



The foe rushed furious as he pants for breath,  
And through his navel *drave* the pointed death. *Id.*  
Or when the country floats with sudden rains,  
Or *driving* mists deface the moistened plains,  
In vain his toils the unskillful fowler tries,  
While in thick woods the feeding partridge lies.

*Gay.*

First joyless rains obscure  
*Drive* thro' the mingling skies with vapour foul,  
Dash on the mountain's brow, and shake the woods  
That grumbling wave below. *Thomson.*  
Of plain sound sense life's current coin is made;  
With that we *drive* the most substantial trade.

*Young.*

He that by the plough would thrive,  
Himself must either hold or *drive*. *Franklin.*  
May He who gives the rain to pour,  
And wings the blast to blow,  
Protect thee frae the *driving* shower,  
The bitter frost and snaw! *Burns.*

**DRIVING**, among sportsmen, a method of taking pheasant pouts. The sportsman having found out the haunts of these birds, and fixed his nets there, he calls upon them together by a pheasant call, imitating the voice of the dam; after this he makes a noise with his driver, which will make them run a little way forward in a cluster; and this he repeats till he has made sure of them, by driving them into his nets.

**DRIVING**, in metallurgy, is said of silver, when, in the operation of refining, the lead being burnt away, the remaining copper rises upon its surface in red fiery bubbles.

**DRIVING**, in the sea language, is said of a ship, when an anchor being let fall will not hold her fast, nor prevent her falling away with the wind or tide. The best help in this case is to let fall more anchors, or to veer out more cable; for the more cable she has out, the safer she rides. When a ship is a-hull or a-try, they say she drives to leeward.

**DRIV'EL**, *v. n. & n. s.* } *Goth. drafla*; *Icel.*

**DRIV'ELLER**, *n. s.* } *drafla*, to talk wildly;  
whence *Teut. ravelen*, to dote. To be weak; foolish: hence to slaver like a child or idiot. The substantive, *drivel*, saliva, is derived from the verb. A *driveller* is a dastard; fool; idiot.

This *driveling* love is like a great natural, that runs lolling up and down to hide his bauble.

*Shakespeare. Romeo and Juliet.*

No man could spit from him, but would be forced to *drivel* like some paralytic, or a fool. *Grew.*

Besides the' eternal *drivel*, that supplies  
The dropping beard, from nostrils, mouth, and eyes. *Dryden.*

I hate to see a brave bold fellow sotted,  
Made sour and senseless, turned to whey, by love  
A *driveling* hero, fit for a romance. *Id.*

What fool am I, to mingle that *drivel's* speeches  
among my noble thoughts. *Sidney.*

I met with this Chremes, a *driveling* old fellow,  
lean, shaking both of head and hands, already half  
earth, and yet then most greedy of earth. *Id.*

I have heard the arrantest *drivellers* commended for  
their shrewdness, even by men of tolerable judgment. *Swift.*

All pay themselves the compliment to think  
They, one day, shall not *drivel*: and their pride  
On this reversion takes up ready praise. *Thomson.*

In life's last scene what prodigies surprise,  
Fears of the brave, and follies of the wise!

From Marlborough's eyes the streams of dew  
And Swift expires a *driveller* and a shew. *Johnson. Vanity of Human*

Ye writers of what none with safety  
Footing it in the dance that fancy leads  
Ye novelists, who mar what ye would  
Sniveling and *driveling* folly without end.

**DRIVERS**, among sportsmen, a tool for driving pheasant pouts, consisting of strong ozier wands, such as the huck use, set in a handle, and twisted or bowed small oziars in two or three places. The instrument the sportsman drives the pout into his nets.

**DRIZZLE**, *v. a. & v. n.* } *Goth.*

**DRIZZLY**, *adj.* } *Germ. drisel*  
*Lat. ros*; *Gr. ῥοσος*, dew. To shed or  
small drops: *drizzly* is shedding small

And *drizzling* drops, that often do  
The firmest flint doth in continuance wear

Her heart did melt in great compassion,  
And *drizzling* tears did shed for pure affection. *Florio*

When the sun sets, the air doth *drizzle*. *Sh.*

This day will pour down,  
If I conjecture aught, no *drizzling* shower.  
But rattling storm of arrows harbed with!

This during winter's *drizzly* reign be done  
Till the new ram receives the exalted sun. *Dryden*

The neighbouring mountains, by reason  
height, are more exposed to the dews and  
rains than any of the adjacent parts. *Addison*

But if perchance on some dull *driveling*  
A thought intrude, that says, or seems to say  
If thus the' important cause is to be tried,  
Suppose the beam should dip on the wrong  
I soon recover from these needless frights,  
And God is merciful—sets all to rights.

**DROGDEN CHANNEL**, a channel between the islands of Amak and Saltholm, and a safe passage for ships of the line into the Baltic. It is about five miles in length, commencing opposite the road of Copenhagen, and the river Boyné, the natural boundary counties of Meath and Louth, and a county of the town of Drogheda; it is governed by a recorder, a mayor, two sheriffs, two aldermen, the sheriffs' peers, and four representatives from the guilds. Drogheda was formerly a town of much consideration, and the privilege of coinage was once granted to it in the reign of Edward IV. an act passed in the Irish parliament, for the foundation of a university here, with like privileges as which act remains still unrepealed.

**DROGHEDA**, anciently called Traill, a post, market, and fair town in Ireland, twenty-nine miles from Dublin. It is situated on the river Boyne, the natural boundary counties of Meath and Louth, and a county of the town of Drogheda; it is governed by a recorder, a mayor, two sheriffs, two aldermen, the sheriffs' peers, and four representatives from the guilds. Drogheda was formerly a town of much consideration, and the privilege of coinage was once granted to it in the reign of Edward IV. an act passed in the Irish parliament, for the foundation of a university here, with like privileges as which act remains still unrepealed.



place was besieged by the rebels, but after being considerably, was at length gallantly relieved by Sir Henry Tichbourne. Cromwell's forces stormed and captured it, and left an lasting remembrance of his sanguinary character.

here, in the massacre of its unarmed inhabitants: St. Lawrence's gate and tower are chief remains of the ancient fortifications. It is four miles from Drogheda, on the river Boyne, is the passage of Oldbridge, celebrated for the scene of the memorable engagement between William III. and James II. in 1690, by which the battle of the Boyne. A hand-dobelisk is erected on the spot.

Drogheda returns one member to the imperial parliament. The principal public buildings are a school, a very elegant structure: the churches of St. Peter's and St. Mary's; five Roman Catholic chapels, and two meeting-houses. There are also large assembly-rooms, and a reading-room. The gaol is a fine building erected at an expense of £12,000.

There is an infantry barracks in the town, and a fine one on a hill called Millmount, on the south side of the river. The principal trade of Drogheda consists in the sale of dowlas, from six to thirty inches wide: sheeting of a superior quality was once the staple, but it has the reputation of manufacturing the best sheeting of that article. Much corn is exported, and coal imported, which latter is conveyed by means of the Boyne navigation to Drogheda, whence the interior of Meath is conveyed supplied. The harbour of Drogheda is in need of much improvement: the great objection to the navigation is a bank called the Devil's Bed; by cutting through this, which can be done for a small sum, four feet water can be gained over the bar and up to the town.

There is but one bridge in Drogheda, which is dangerously narrow. Amongst the public institutions are the classical school (one of high character), founded by Sir Erasmus Smith; the blue school, supported by the corporation; an alms-house, affording shelter and support to twenty-four widows; an asylum for thirty-six clergymen's widows, to each of whom £26 annually are allowed: this is supplied by bequests of primates Marsh and Bolter. There are many other valuable charities and institutions in this town. The export trade is greatly flourishing, and to the establishment of the linen-packets, which has already taken place, harbour improvement above-mentioned only need to be added, to make it the medium of communication to the midland counties.

**DROIL**, *n. s. & v. n.* A contraction of drivelone; a sluggard: hence to work sluggishly away; to plod.

Let such vile vassals, born to base vocation, edge in the world, and for their living droil, which have no wit to live withouten toyle.

Spenser.

metade does contract and narrow our faculties, that we can apprehend only those things in which we conversant; the droiling peasant scarce thinks of any world beyond the neighbouring markets.

Government of the Tongue.

VOL. VII.

**DROITWICH**, a town of England, in the county of Worcester, containing three churches, and about 400 houses. It is noted for excellent white salt, made from the salt-springs in its neighbourhood; amounting to about 700,000 bushels a year. This town, anciently called Diertwich, from its wet dirty appearance, is seated on the navigable river Salwarp. It appears to have been a populous place in the reign of William the Conqueror, and has always been particularly celebrated for its immense salt-springs, whereof mention is made in Domesday-Book. A canal has been made from this town to the Severn, about three miles from Worcester, for the purpose of conveying the salt. It has a weekly market on Friday, and sends one member to parliament. The right of election is in two bailiffs, the recorder, and eleven burgesses, who are styled the corporation of the salt-springs of Droitwich. The bailiffs are the returning officers, and justices of the quorum: the recorder is also a justice of the peace. It is seven miles E. N. E. of Worcester, and 118 W. N. W. of London.

**DROLL**, *n. s., v. n., v. a. & adj.* Fr. *drôle*;

**DROL'LER**, *n. s.* Arn. *drew*.

**DROL'LERY**,

**DROL'LING**,

**DROLL'HOUSE**.

A jester; buffoon: hence to play the buffoon, or jester; to cheat; trick: and, as an adjective, ridiculous; odd.

There is nothing so disagreeable in works of humour, as an insipid, unsupported vivacity, the very husks of drollery, bottled small beer, a man out-riding his horse, lewdness and impotence, a fiery actor in a phlegmatic scene, an illiterate and stupid preacher discoursing upon Urim and Thummim, and beating the pulpit cushion in such a manner, as though he would make the dust and the truth fly out of it at once.

Shenstone.

He is making an experiment by another sort of emics, and sets the apes and drollers upon it.

Glancville.

Such august designs as inspire your inquiries, used to be decided by drolling fantasticks, that have only wit enough to make others and themselves ridiculous.

Id.

As he was running home in all haste, a droll takes him up by the way.

L'Estrange.

Men that will not be reasoned into their senses, may yet be laughed or drolled into them.

Id.

Let virtuosos insult and despise on, yet they never shall be able to droll away nature.

South.

The vulgar may swallow any sordid jest; any mere drollery or buffoonery; but it must be a finer and truer wit which takes with men of sense and good breeding.

Shaftesbury.

Italy may have the preference of all other nations for history painting; Holland for drolls and a neat finished manner of working; France for gay, jaunty, fluttering pictures; and England for portraits.

Spectator.

Democritus, dear droll! revisit earth,  
And with our follies glut thy heightened mirth.

Prior.

Some as justly fame extols,

For lofty lines in Smithfield drolls.

Swaft.

They hang between heaven and hell, borrow the christian's faith, and the atheist's drollery upon it.

Government of the Tongue.

2 K.



Should the senate-house, where all our lawgivers assemble, be used for a theatre or *droll-house*, or for idle puppet shows? *Watts.*

**DROME**, a river of France, in Dauphiny, which rises near the entrance of the Val de Drome, on the borders of the department of the Upper Alps, and which, rapidly traversing the department of its own name from east to west, falls into the Rhone between Montelimart and Valence. It is partially navigable.

**DROME**, a department of France, so named from the foregoing river, comprehends the south-west part of Lower Dauphiny, and is bounded by the departments of the Isere, Upper Alps, Lower Alps, and Vaucluse: the Rhone bounds it on the west. It contains a population of 253,500, among whom there are 34,000 Protestants. The country is high, full of mountains and valleys, and is watered by the Rhone, the Isere, the Drome, and several inferior rivers. In the valley of the Rhone, the mulberry, the almond, the chestnut, walnut, and in some places the olive, are found to thrive; and though the climate is cold, wine is a staple production, particularly the kinds called *Hermitage* and *Vin de Nyons*. Corn is imported yearly to a considerable amount. The stock of cattle is not considerable, the pasturages being for the most part appropriated to the herds of Provence. Wood is in abundance. The manufactures are in the larger towns are linen, woollen, and cotton works. The exports consist of wine, silk, olive and nut oil, and almonds.

**DROMEDARY**, *n.* Fr. *dromadaire*; Ital. Span. and Port. *dromedario*; Lat. *dromedarius*; Gr. *δρομας*, from *δρομος*, a course, on account of the swiftness of its course. An animal of the *CAMELUS* species, which see.

Straw for the horses and *dromedaries* brought they into the place. *1 Kings.*

Mules, after these camels and *dromedaries*,  
And waggons fraught with utensils of war.

*Milton.*

A sort of camel so called from its swiftness, because it is said to travel a hundred miles a-day. *Dromedaries* are smaller than common camels, slenderer, and more nimble. *Culnet.*

Or let me have the long  
And patient swiftness of the desert-ship:  
The helmless *dromedary*;—and I'll bear  
Thy fiendish sarcasm with a saintly patience.

*Byron.*

**DROMORE**, a town of Ireland, in the county of Down. It is a very ancient town, and the seat of a bishopric. The see was founded by St. Colman in the sixth century. It was refounded by king James I., who, by his charters (preserved in the rolls office), granted it very great privileges. Among other marks of royal favor, he distinguished the bishops of this see by the style of 'A. B., by Divine Providence bishop of Dromore;' whereas all other bishops in Ireland, except those of Meath and Kildare, are styled 'by Divine Permission.' Dromore lies seventeen miles east of Armagh, and fifteen south-west of Belfast.

**DRONE**, *n. s. & v. n.* } Belgic *droomigh*,  
**DRON'ISH**, *adj.* } (sleepy).—Minsheu.  
**DRONEPIPE**. } Sax. *drane* of drygan,  
to expel.—H. Tooke. Serenius says, of Sax.

*droen*, to murmur. The bee which makes no honey and only murmurs: hence also a murmuring noise; an idler; a sluggard. To *drone* is to live idly; to make a low humming noise: *drone*, idle, lazy, sluggish.

There is a great number of noblemen among you, that are themselves as idle as *drones*; that submit to other men's labour, on the labour of their tenants whom, to raise their revenues, they pay to the gods.

*Sir T. More.*

The sad-eyed justice, with his surly hum,  
Delivering o'er to executors pale  
The lazy yawning *drone*. *Shakespeare. Henry 7.*  
Sit idle on the household hearth,  
A burdensome *drone*, to visitants a gaze. *Mum.*  
What have I lost by my forefather's fault!  
Why was I not the twentieth by descent  
From a long restive race of *droning* kings?

*Dryden.*

Melfoil and honeysuckles pound,  
With these alluring savours strew the ground,  
And mix with tinkling brass the cymbal's *drum*  
sound.

All, with united force, combine to drive  
The lazy *drones* from the laborious hive.

*Id. Trifl.*

Luxurious kings are to their people lost;  
They live, like *drones*, upon the publick cost.

*Id. Astroph.*

It is my misfortune to be married to a *drone*, who lives upon what I get, without bringing any thing to the common stock. *Adrian.*

The *dronish* monks, the scorn and shame of the hood,

Rouse and prepare once more to take possession  
To nestle in their ancient hives again. *Adrian.*

Here while his canting *drone-pipe* scanned  
The mystic figures of her hand,  
He tipples palmistry, and dines  
On all her fortune-telling lines. *Cleland.*

You speak with life, in hopes to entertain,  
Your elevated voice goes through the brain;  
You fall at once into a lower key,  
That's worse—the *drone-pipe* of an humble-bee.

*Camp.*

Cobwebs for little flies are spread,  
And laws for little folks are made;  
But if an insect of renown,  
Hornet or beetle, wasp or *drone*,  
Be caught in quest of sport or plunder,  
The flimsy fetter flies in sunder. *Emilia.*

**DRONTHEIM**, a town and province of Norway, formerly the capital, and the usual residence of the kings, situated on a gulf of the North Sea. It is nearly surrounded by the sea and lofty mountains; and has a well-frequented sea-port, which however is not capable of receiving large vessels, on account of rocks at the entrance of the harbour. It is still a bishop's see, is enclosed by a wall, and defended by a castle by no means strong. The houses are mostly of wood. Near it are mines of copper and silver. The principal exports are wax, timber, copper, iron, pitch, tar, stock-fish, skins, pot-ash, &c. In exchange, they receive and import spices, wines, salt, brandy, corn, tobacco, cloth, &c. It is 270 miles north-west of Stockholm. Long. 11° 9' E., lat. 63° 26' N. The province of Dronthem is the most northern of the four grand bailliages or dioceses of Norway, and situated on the west coast, between



erhuus, the Swedish frontier, and in its widest extent it comprises mentioned province and Finnmach. Proper includes eighty-six parishes, or towns of Drontheim, Roraas, Id, and Molde. The population of has received a marked increase last half century; in 1769 it was in 1814, 138,690: including Norrmarmark, the number in 1801 was though full of mountains, and little cultivation, the progress of rural been of late years very consider-

v. n. Dut. *droef* (sorrow); Sax. *diupa*, from *drop*, almost a cognate language; bend in sorrow; sink; ards.

y, with struggling spent; ghts are on my sorrows bent. *Sandys*. ag the dishonour of his mother, declined, *drooped*, took it deeply; ad fixed the shame on 't in himself. *Shakespeare*.

enith doth depend upon dious star; whose influence t not, but omit, my fortunes r *drop*. *Id. Tempest*.

m thy side henceforth must stray, day's work lies; though now enjoined l day *drop*. *Milton's Paradise Lost*.

His head, though gay, rple, azure, or specked with gold, y, unsustained. *Id*.

but *drop* in absence of the sun, their sweets? and mine, alas! is gone. *Dryden*.

etious rage to cruel exile drove of beauty and the court of love, *drooped* with their forsaken arts. *Id*. mpulse from heaven Tyrtæus sung, oldiers a new courage sprung. *Roscommon*.

ate the soldiers' *drooping* courage of freedom and contempt of life. *Addison's Cato*.

ten days before he died, and observed y much to *drop* and languish. *Swift*.

ved bosom hung her *drooping* head, sigh she raised, and this she said. *Pope*.

ret sighs the virgin lily *droops*, s cowslips hang their tawny cups. *Darwin*.

Don Jerome, you promised her forgive- y the poor creature *droops*! es, indeed! Why, gad take me, this is t—but where's my daughter, where's *Sheridan*.

he cared how sped the bower, e marked the *drooping* flower, dering through the bushy brake, bewildered accents spake. *Id*.

ore me the Gladiator lie: pon his hand—his manly brow p death, but conquers agony, ooped head sinks gradually low— gh his side the last drops, ebbing slow ed gash, fall heavy. *Byron*.

The winds were pillowed on the waves, The banners *drooped* along their staves, And, as they fell around them farling, Above them shone the crescent curling. *Id*.

DROP, v. a., v. n. & n. s. } Goth. *droppa*; }  
DROPLET, } Saxon *dropian*;  
DROPPING, n. s. } Germ. and Dutch  
*dropfen*; Swed. and Dan. *dryppe*. To let fall in small particles; hence let go; quit; speak casually; intermit; suffer to vanish or expire: as a neuter verb, to fall in drops; hence to fall generally; to come casually; to sink, die. Drop-let is a diminutive of drop.

His heavens shall *drop* down dew.

*Deut. xxxiii. 28.*

The heavens *dropped* at the presence of God.

*Psal. lxvii. 8.*

*Drop* not thy word against the house of Isaac.

*Amos.*

It was your presumise, That in the dole of blows your son might *drop*.

*Shakespeare.*

The quality of mercy is not strained; It *droppeth* as the gentle rain from heaven Upon the place beneath.

*Id. Merchant of Venice.*

Meet we the med'cine of our country's weal, And with him pour we, in our country's purge, Each *drop* of us.

*Id. Macbeth.*

Though I could With barefaced power sweep him from my sight, And bid my will avouch it; yet I must not, For certain friends that are both his and mine, Whose loves I may not *drop*.

*Id.*

Thou abhorrest in us our human griefs, Scorned our brine's flow, and those our *droplets*, which From niggard nature fall.

*Id. Timon.*

Thrifty wench scrapes kitchen-stuff, And barrelling the *droppings* and the snuff Of wasting candles.

*Donne.*

Nothing, says Seneca, so soon reconciles us to the thoughts of our own death, as the prospect of one friend after another *dropping* round us.

*Digby to Pope.*

So mayest thou live, till, like ripe fruit, thou *drop* Into thy mother's lap; or be with ease Gathered, not harshly plucked.

*Milton.*

Or sporting, with quick glance, Shew to the sun their waved coats, *dropped* with gold.

*Id.*

So thick a *drop* serene hath quenched their orbs, Or dim suffusion veiled!

*Id. Paradise Lost.*

Admiring in the gloomy shade, Those little *drops* of light.

*Waller.*

Whereas Aristotle tells us, that if a *drop* of wine be put into ten thousand measures of water, the wine, being overpowered by so vast a quantity of water, will be turned into it; he speaks very improbably. *Boyle.*

One only hag remained: Propped on her trusty staff, not half upright, And *dropped* an awkward courtesy to the knight.

*Dryden.*

Either you come not here, or, as you grace Some old acquaintance, *drop* into the place, Careless and qualmish, with a yawning face.

*Id.*

Beneath a rock he sighed alone, And cold Lycæus wept from every *dropping* stone.

*Id.*

Had I but known that Sanecho was his father, I would have poured a deluge of my blood To save one *drop* of his.

*Id. Spanish Friar.*



I have beat the hoof till I have worn out these shoes  
in your service, and not one penny left me to buy  
more; so that you must even excuse me if I drop you  
here.

*L'Estrange.*

The thoughts that come often unsought, and, as it  
were, drop into the mind, are commonly the most va-  
luable of any we have, and therefore should be se-  
cured, because they seldom return again.

*Locke.*

St. Paul's epistles contain nothing but points of  
Christian instruction, amongst which he seldom fails  
to drop in the great and distinguishing doctrines of  
our holy religion.

*Id.*

Repentance hath a purifying power, and every tear  
is of a cleansing virtue; but these penitential clouds  
must be still kept dropping; one shower will not suffice;  
for repentance is not one single action but a course.

*South.*

He could never make any figure in company, but by  
giving disturbance at his entry: and therefore takes  
care to drop in when he thinks you are just seated.

*Spectator, No. 448.*

Thus was the fame of our Saviour perpetuated by  
such records as would preserve the traditionary account  
of him to after-ages; and rectify it, if, by passing  
through several generations, it might drop any part  
that was material.

*Addison.*

Virgil's friends thought fit to let drop this incident of  
Helen.

*Id. Travels.*

In every revolution, approaching nearer and nearer  
to the sun, this comet must at last drop into the sun's  
body.

*Cheyne.*

Where the act is unmanly or immoral, we ought to  
drop our hopes, or rather never entertain them.

*Collier on Despair.*

After having given this judgment in its favour, they  
suddenly drop the pursuit.

*Sharp's Surgery.*

Philosophers conjecture that you dropped from the  
moon, or one of the stars.

*Gulliver's Travels.*

St. John himself will scarce forbear

To bite his pen and drop a tear.

*Swift.*

Opinions, like fashions, always descend from those  
of quality to the middle sort, and thence to the vulgar,  
where they are dropped and vanish.

*Id.*

The drops to thee, Brillante, we consign;

And, Momentilla, let the watch be thine.

*Pope.*

I heard of threats occasioned by my verses: I sent  
to acquaint them where I was to be found, and so it  
dropped.

*Id.*

Strain out the last dull droppings of your sense,  
And rhyme with all the rage of impotence.

*Id.*

The most affluent may be stript of all, and find his  
worldly comforts like so many withered leaves dropping  
from him.

*Sterne.*

Those who have assumed visible shapes for a season,  
can hardly be reckoned among this order of com-  
pounded beings; because they drop their bodies, and  
divest themselves of those visible shapes.

*Watts's Logick.*

Constancy in friendships, attachments, and familia-  
rities, is commendable, and is requisite to support  
trust and good correspondence in society. But in  
places of general, though casual concourse, where the  
pursuit of health and pleasure brings people promi-  
scuously together, public convenience has dispensed  
with this maxim; and custom there promotes an un-  
reserved conversation for the time, by indulging the  
privilege of dropping afterwards every indifferent ac-  
quaintance without breach of civility or good manners.

*Hume.*

Evening now from purple wings  
Sheds the grateful gifts she brings;  
Brilliant drops bedeck the mead,  
Cooling breezes shake the reed.

*Johnson. Ode to Evening.*

Shrouded Nile,

Eridanus, and Tiber with his ruins,  
And palmy Euphrates: they with droppings  
Hang o'er their urns, and mournfully see  
The plaintive-echoing ruins pour their streams

Drops, in meteorology, small spherical  
bodies which the particles of fluids spontaneously  
themselves into when let fall from any  
This spherical figure, the Newtonian  
phers demonstrate to be the effect of co-  
attraction; for, considering that the  
force of one single particle of a fluid is  
exerted to an equal distance, it must  
that other fluid particles are on every  
to it, and will therefore take their place  
equal distance from it, and consequent  
round superficies.

DROPSY,

*Fr. hydropisie; Lat. hydrops; Gr.*

DROPSICAL, *adj.* } *Port. dropesia, or*

DROPSIED, *adj.* } *Lat. hydrops; Gr.*  
from *vdwop*, water. A disease which  
water in different parts of the body.

Where great addition swells, and vitæ

It is a dropical honour: good alone  
Is good.

There note they the ship's sicknesses,  
Shaked with an ague, and the hold and  
With a salt dropie clogged.

Revenge, that thirsty dropie of our

Which makes us covet that which harts  
Is not alone sweet, but partakes of tart

The diet of nephritick and dropical  
to be such as is opposite to, and subdueth  
cent nature of the salts in the serum of the  
*Arbushnot*

A tendency to these diseases is certainly  
though perhaps not the diseases them-  
less quantity of ale, cyder, wine, or spirit,  
the gout and dropie in those constitutions,  
rents have been intemperate in the use  
quors; as I have more than once had  
observe.

She likewise hinted that a certain widow  
street had got rid of her dropie, and in  
shape in a most surprising manner.

DROPSY (*vdwop*), a collection of a  
in the cellular membrane, the viscous  
cavities of the body. For the general  
of this disease, see HYDROPS; for drop  
belly, see ASCITES; for dropie of the  
DROCEPHALUS; for dropie of the chest  
THORAX; for dropie of the skin, A  
for dropie of the testicle, HYDROCELE.

DROSERA, *ros solis*, or sun-dew,  
a genus of the pentagynia order, and  
class of plants; natural order four  
nales: CAL. quinquefid, petals five: c  
cular, and quinquevalved at top:  
numerous. Species eleven, which  
rally in boggy places, in many parts  
dom. They are named sun-dew f  
striking circumstance in their appea  
leaves, which are circular, are fringe  
supporting small drops or globular  
liquor like dew, which continue eve  
test part of the day, and in the full  
to the sun. The whole plant is ad-  
ciently caustic to erode the skin; ba

What succour can I hope the muse will send,  
Whose drowsiness hath wronged the muse's friend?  
*Crashaw.*

While thus she rested, on her arm reclined,  
The hoary willows waving with the wind,  
And feathered quires that warbled in the shade,  
And purling streams that through the meadow strayed,  
In drowsy murmurs lulled the gentle maid. *Addison.*

A sensation of drowsiness, oppression, and lassitude, are signs of a plentiful meal in young people.

Those inadvertencies, a body would think, even our author, with all his drowsy reasoning, could never have been capable of.  
*Atterbury.*

The flowers, called out of their beds,  
Start and raise up their drowsy heads.

Now while the drowsy world lies lost in sleep,  
Let me associate with the serious night,  
And contemplation, her sedate compeer.  
*Thomson.*

Amidst the drowsy charms of dull delight,  
Year chases year with unremitted flight,  
Till want now following, fraudulent and slow,  
Shall spring to seize thee like an ambushed foe.

A dull rotation, never at a stay,  
Yesterday's face, twin image of to-day;  
While conversation, an exhausted stock,  
Grows drowsy as the clicking of a clock.

The drowsy dungeon-clock had numbered two,  
And Wallace tower had sworn the fact was true:  
The tide-swollen Frith, with sullen sounding roar,  
Through the still night dashed hoarse along the shore.

DRUB, *v. a. & n. s.* } Dan. *druber*, to kill;  
DRUB'ING, *n. s.* } Swed. *drabba*; Island.  
*drybba*, to fight. To beat soundly; to give blows;  
also, the beating given, for which a drubbing is  
the common substantive of low conversation.

He that is valiant, and dares fight,  
Though drubbed, can lose no honour by it.

The blows and drubs I have received  
Have bruised my body, and bereaved  
My limbs of strength.  
The little thief had been soundly drubbed with a  
good honest cudgel.  
Though the bread be not mine, yet, if it had been  
less than weight, I should have been drubbed.

By setting an unfortunate mark on their followers,  
they have exposed them to innumerable drubs and  
contusions.

In the rude state of society, prior to the existence  
of laws, if one man gave another ill language, the  
affronted person might return it by a box on the ear;  
and if repeated, by a good drubbing.

DRUDGE, *v. n.* } Sax. *dreogan*; Dutch  
DRUDG'ER, *n. s.* } *dragen*; perhaps from  
DRUDG'ERY, } DRAG, which see. To  
DRUDG'INGLY, *adv.* } labor in heavy or servile  
DRUG, *n. s.* } work: a drudger is he  
who thus labors, and drudgery the work done.  
Shakspeare has drudge for drudge in his first fol.  
edit. See the passage given below from Timon  
of Athens.

My old dame will be undone for one to do her hus-  
bandry and her drudgery.

To conclude, this drudge of the devil, this diviner,  
said claim to me.

He from his first swath proceeded  
Through sweet degrees that this brief world  
To such as may the passive drudge of it  
Freely command.

Those whom the Egyptians honoured before  
now they condemn as drudges.

A high spirited man is above the world's  
drudgery, and cannot pull down his thoughts  
to the pelting business of life.

He sits above and laughs the while,  
At thee, ordained his drudge, to execute  
Whate'er his wrath shall bid.

And to cracked fiddle, and hoarse tale  
In merriment, did drudge and labour.

It is not poetry, that makes men poor;  
For few do write, that were not so before;  
And those that have writ best, had they but  
Had ne'er been seized with a poetic fever;  
Had loved their ease too well, to take the pains  
To undergo that drudgery of brains;  
Advantages obtained by industry, drownd  
losophy, can never be expected from drudge  
rance.

The hard master makes men serve him for  
who rewards his drudges and slaves with  
shame, and sorrow, and misery.

The poor sleep little: we must learn to wait  
Our labours late, and early every morning,  
Midst winter frosts; then, clad and fed with  
Rise to our toils, and drudge away the day.

To thee that drudgery of power I give;  
Cares be thy lot: reign though, and let us

Paradise was a place of bliss, as well as  
lity, without drudgery, and without sorrow.

Were there not instruments for drudgery  
offices of drudgery? Were there not people  
orders, as well as others to give and another

You do not know the heavy grievance  
The toils, the labours, weary drudgeries  
Which they impose.

He does now all the meanest and trifling  
himself drudgingly, without making use of  
or subordinate minister.

What is an age, in dull renowned drudge  
One little single hour of love is more.

Even Drudgery himself,  
As at the car he sweats, or dusty he  
The palace stone, looks gay.

It is now handled by every dirty wretch  
demned to do her drudgery.

A man of wit is not incapable of being  
above it. A sprightly generous horse is  
a pack-saddle as well as an ass; but he  
to be put to the drudgery.

I knew that the work in which I engaged  
rally considered as drudgery for the blind  
per toil of artless industry.

But I am bankrupt now; and doomed  
To drudge, in desecrated dry, on others' lays  
Bards, I acknowledge, of unequalled  
But what is commentators' happiest praise

The poor, inured to drudgery and drudge  
Act without aim, think little, and feel  
And no where, but in feigned Arcadian  
Taste happiness, or know what pleasure



ke ye, that sle as you and I,  
 ridge and drive through wet and dry,  
 ever-ceasing toil. Burns.

GING-BOX. See DREGGING-BOX.  
 n. s. & v. a. Fr. *drogue*; Span.  
 it, n. s. } and Ital. *droga*; pro-  
 ST, } bably from Sax. *drug*;  
 EB, } Gr. *ρρvη*, dry; drugs  
 signifying dry medicines: and hence  
 dried up or worthless. Drugget is a  
 non kind of stuff: druggist and drug-  
 er of drugs.

drugs I have; but Mantua's law  
 to any he that utters them. Shakespeare.

The surfeited grooms  
 air charge with snores.—I've *drugged* their  
 ets,  
 and nature do contend about them. Id.  
 e people, the good physician prescribes  
 wholesome medicines; not removing the  
 out of their bodies into their purses, nor  
 m to the East Indies for *drugs* which they  
 etter out of their gardens. Fuller.

oft they assayed,  
 thirst constraining; *drugged* as oft  
 lest disreliah, writhed their jaws  
 and cinders filled. Milton's *Paradise Lost*.

A fleet descried  
 e clouds, by equinoctial winds  
 g from Bengal, or the isles  
 and Tidore, whence merchants bring  
 drugs. Id.  
 mes of *drugs* and plants, the mistake in a  
 ndanger life.

Baker's *Reflections on Learning*.  
 nitre we bought at the druggist's. Boyle.  
 oil of turpentine I bought at the druggist's. Id.

Each noble vice  
 Shall bear a price  
 And virtue shall a *drug* become.  
 An empty name,  
 Was all her fame,  
 But now she shall be dumb.

Dryden's *Albion*.  
 ts drest, of thirteen pence a-yard,  
 son amidst his Persian guard. Swift.  
 the clergy below their apothecaries, the  
 f the soul below the *druggers* of the body. Atterbury.

physick's noble art to gain,  
 id plants explored, alas! in vain. Smith.  
 elen mixed a mirth-inspiring bowl,  
 with *drugs* of sov'reign use, to assuage  
 bosom of tumultuous rage.

Pope's *Odyney*.  
 e' important budget! ushered in  
 heart-shaking music, who can say  
 is tidings? have our troops awaked?  
 still, as if with opium *drugged*,  
 e murmurs of the Atlantic wave?

Cowper.  
 lled some *druggists* and physicians,  
 d to prove her loving lord was mad,  
 ad some lucid intermissions,  
 decided he was only bad. Byron.

tr, a slight kind of woollen stuff, some-  
 e all wool, sometimes half wool half  
 ometimes corded, but usually plain.  
 have the woof of wool, and the warp  
 are called threaded druggets; and  
 ight with the shuttle on a loom of four

marches, as the serges of Moui, Beauvois, and  
 other like stuffs corded, are called corded drug-  
 gets. The plain are wrought on a loom of two  
 marches, with the shuttle, in the same manner  
 as cloths, camblets, and other like stuffs not  
 corded.

DRUID, n. s. & adj. Gr. *δρυς*, Celt. *deru*;  
 Welsh and Arm. *deru*, an oak. An ancient  
 priest of Gaul and Britain. See below.

In yonder grave a *druid* lies  
 Where slowly steals the winding waves. Collins.  
 Sage beneath a spreading oak  
 Sat the *druid*, hoary chief;  
 Every burning word he spoke  
 Full of rage and full of grief. Cowper.

It stood embosomed in a happy valley,  
 Crowned by high woodlands, where the *druid* oak  
 Stood like Caractacus in act to rally  
 His host with broad arms 'gainst the thunder-  
 stroke. Byron.

DRUIDS, DRUIDES, or DRUIDÆ, the priests  
 or ministers of religion among the ancient Gauls,  
 Britons, and Germans. Picard (Celtoped. lib.  
 ii. p. 58) believes the druids to have been thus  
 called from *Druis*, or *Dryius*, their leader, the  
 fourth or fifth king of the Gauls, and father of  
 Saron or Naumes. Pliny, Salmatius, Vigenere,  
 &c., derive the name from *δρυς*, an oak; on ac-  
 count of their inhabiting, or frequenting, and  
 teaching in forests; or because they never sacri-  
 ficed but under the oak. Menage derives the  
 word from the old British *drus*, *dæmon*, or magi-  
 cian: Borel, from the Saxon *dry*, magician; or  
 from the old British *dru* or *derw*, 'oak,' whence  
 he takes the Greek word *δρυς* to be derived;  
 which is the most probable supposition. Gorop.  
 Becanus, lib. i. takes *druis* to be an old Celtic  
 and German word, formed from *truwis* or *truwis*,  
 'a doctor of the truth and the faith;' which ety-  
 mology Vossius also approves.

The druids were the first and most distin-  
 guished order among the Gauls and Britons;  
 they were chosen out of the best families; and  
 the honors of their birth, joined with those of  
 their function, procured them the highest veneration  
 among the people. They were versed in  
 astrology, geometry, natural philosophy, politics,  
 and geography; they were the interpreters of  
 religion, and the judges of all affairs indifferently.  
 Whoever refused obedience to them was declared  
 impious and accursed. We know but little as  
 to their peculiar doctrines; only that they be-  
 lieved the immortality of the soul; and the me-  
 tempsychosis. Their chief settlement in Britain  
 was in the isle of Anglesea, the ancient Mona,  
 which was well stored with spacious groves of  
 their favorite oak. They were divided into se-  
 veral classes. Strabo, however, only distin-  
 guishes three kinds, *bardi*, *vates*, and *druids*.  
 The *bardi* were the poets; the *vates*, *sarug*, were  
 the priests and naturalists; and the *druids*, be-  
 sides the study of nature, applied themselves to  
 morality. Diogenes Laertius assures us, that  
 the druids were the same among the ancient  
 Britons with the philosophers among the Greeks;  
 the magi among the Persians; the gymnosophists  
 among the Indians; and the Chaldeans among  
 the Assyrians. Their garments were remarkably  
 long; and, when employed in religious cere-



monies, they wore a white surplice. They generally carried a wand in their hands; and wore a kind of ornament enchased in gold about their necks, called the druid's egg. See *ANGUINUM OVUM*. Their necks were also decorated with gold chains, and their hands and arms with bracelets: they wore their hair very short, and their beards remarkably long. The druids had one chief or arch-druid, in every nation, who acted as high-priest. He had absolute authority over the rest; and commanded, decreed, punished, &c., at pleasure. At his death he was succeeded by the most considerable among the survivors; and, if there were several pretenders, the matter was ended by an election, or else decided by arms. The druids presided at sacrifices, and other ceremonies; and had the direction of every thing relating to religion. The British and Gaulish youth were instructed by them. The children of the nobility, Mela tells us, they carried into caves, or the most desolate parts of forests, and kept them there, sometimes for twenty years, under their discipline. They were here instructed in the motion of the heavens, and the course of the stars; the magnitude of the heavens and the earth; the power and wisdom of the gods, the metempsychosis, immortality, &c. They preserved the memory and actions of great men in their verses, which they never allowed to be written down, but made their pupils get them by heart. In their common course of learning, they are said to have taught them 24,000 such verses. Thus their doctrines appeared more mysterious by being unknown to all but themselves; and, having no book to recur to, they were the more careful to fix them in their memory.

It has been disputed, whether the druids were themselves the inventors of their opinions and systems of religion and philosophy, or received them from others. Some have imagined, that the colony of Phocians, who left Greece and built Marseilles, in Gaul, about the fifty-seventh Olympiad, imported the first principles of learning and philosophy, and communicated them to the Gauls and other nations in the west of Europe. But though we may allow, that the druids of Gaul and Britain borrowed some hints of their philosophy from this Greek colony, we have reason to believe that the substance of it was their own. Others have suggested, that the druids derived their philosophy from Pythagoras, which seems to be confirmed by Ammianus Marcellinus, and indeed the philosophy of the druids bore a much greater resemblance to that of Pythagoras, than to that of any other sage of antiquity. But this resemblance may, perhaps, be best accounted for by supposing that Pythagoras adopted some of the opinions of the druids, as well as imparted to them some of his discoveries. And Aristotle says that the philosophy of the druids passed into Greece. It is therefore highly probable, and in fact directly asserted by several authors, that Pythagoras visited the druids of Gaul, and was initiated into their philosophy. From the concurring testimonies of several authors, it appears that natural philosophy was the favorite study of the druids of Gaul and Britain. According to Dio-

dorus Siculus, Strabo, Cæsar, Mela, Ammianus Marcellinus, and others, they entered into many disquisitions, in their schools, concerning the form and magnitude of the universe in general, and of this earth in particular, and even concerning the most sublime and hidden secrets of nature. On these subjects they formed a variety of systems and hypotheses, which they delivered to their disciples in verse, that they might the more easily retain them in their memory, as they were not allowed to commit them to writing. Strabo has preserved one of the physical opinions of the druids concerning the universe, viz. that it was never to be entirely destroyed or annihilated; but was to undergo a succession of great changes and revolutions, which were to be produced sometimes by the predominancy of water, and sometimes by that of fire. This opinion, he intimates, was not peculiar to them, but was entertained also by the philosophers of other nations; and Cicero speaks of it as a truth universally acknowledged and undeniable. But they did not express their sentiments on these and the like heads in a plain and natural, but in a dark, figurative, and enigmatical manner. We know not what their opinions were about the dimensions of the universe or of the earth, but we have several reasons to suppose that they believed both to be of a spherical form. This is visibly the shape and form of the sun, moon, and stars, the most conspicuous parts of the universe; and the circle was the favorite figure of the druids, as appears from their houses and places of worship.

It may be thought improbable that the druid had made any considerable progress in arithmetic, as this may seem to be impossible by the mere strength of memory, without the assistance of figures and of written rules. But it is very difficult to ascertain what may be done by memory alone, when it has been long exercised in this way. There is reason to think that they made use of the letters of the Greek alphabet in their calculations. Cæsar, speaking of the druid of Gaul, says, 'In almost all other public transactions, and private accounts or computations, they make use of the Greek letters.' This is further confirmed by what the same author says of the Helvetii, a people of the same origin, language, and manners with the Gauls and Britons. 'Tables were found in the camp of the Helvetii, written in Greek letters, containing an account of all the men capable of bearing arms, who had left their native country, and also separate accounts of the boys, old men, and women.'

Astronomy appears to have been one of the chief studies of the druids of Gaul and Britain. 'The druids,' says Cæsar, 'have many disquisitions concerning the heavenly bodies and their motions, in which they instruct their disciples.' Mela, speaking of the same philosophers, observes, 'That they profess to have great knowledge of the motions of the heavens and of the stars.' Some knowledge of this science, indeed, was absolutely necessary for fixing the regular returns of their religious solemnities, of which the druids had the sole direction. The druids computed their time by nights, and not by days, a custom which they had received from their



ancestors by tradition, and in which affirmed by their measuring their time by the moon. They assembled upon either at the new or full moon; for these to be the most auspicious times for all affairs of importance. Their ceremony of cutting the mistletoe was always performed on the sixth moon. Nay, they even regulated operations very much by this lumid, as much as possible, to end while the moon was on the wane. both by Cæsar and Mela that the stars as well as the sun and that they professed to know, and disciples many things concerning of these heavenly bodies.

still many monuments remaining in the adjacent isles which give reason the ancient Britons could apply the *overs* so as to produce very asto- s. As these monuments appear to esigned for religious purposes, we in that they were erected under the he druids. Many obelisks or pillars, unpolished stone each, are still to ritain and its isles. Some of these y thick and lofty, erected on the arrows and of mountains; and some at Stonehenge) have ponderous aloft, and resting on the tops of pillars. We can hardly suppose possible to cut these prodigious ne (some of them above forty tons ithout wedges, or to raise them out y without levers. But it certainly greater knowledge of the mecha- s, and of the method of applying nsport those huge stones from the places of their destination, to erect ular pillars, and to elevate the im- ops of these pillars. That the Bri- vere acquainted with the principles the balance, we have good reason om some druidical monuments still called Lagan stones, or rocking- ch of them consists of one prod- or stone, resting upon an upright k, and so equally balanced, that a orce, sometimes even a child, can ind down, though hardly any force to remove it from its station. Some es may have fallen into this position but others of them evidently appear placed in it by art. That the an- s understood the construction and is, the great number of their war- other wheel-carriages is a sufficient that they knew how to combine er, and with the other mechanical s to form machines capable of rais- sporting very heavy weights, we have to believe.

ny and in the northern nations of healing art was chiefly committed to en of every state; but in Gaul and as entrusted to the druids, who were ins as well as the priests of these Pliny says expressly, 'That Tiberius

Cæsar destroyed the druids of the Gauls, who were the poets and physicians of that nation. The people of Gaul and Britain were probably induced to devolve the care of their health on the druids, and to apply to these priests for the cure of their diseases, not only by the high esteem they had of their wisdom and learning, but also by the opinion which they entertained, that a very intimate connexion subsisted between the arts of healing and the rites of religion; and that the former were most effectual when accompanied by the latter. It was indeed a prevailing opinion of all the nations of antiquity, that all internal diseases proceeded from the anger of the gods; and that the only way to obtain relief was to appease them by sacrifices.—That this was the practice of the Gauls and Britons, who, in some cases sacrificed one man as the most effectual means of curing another, is attested by Cæsar. This gave rise also to that great number of magical rites and incantations with which the medical practice of the druids, and of most ancient physicians was attended. The druids entertained a very high opinion of the medical virtues of the mistletoe, and esteemed it a remedy for all diseases. They believed it to be a specific against barrenness; a sovereign antidote against the effects of poisons; excellent for softening and discussing hard tumors; good for drying up scrofulous sores; for curing ulcers and wounds; and (provided it was not suffered to touch the earth after it was cut) very efficacious in the epilepsy. The selago, a kind of hedge hyssop, resembling savin, was another plant, much admired by the druids for its supposed medicinal virtues, particularly in diseases of the eyes. But its efficacy, according to them, depended much upon its being gathered under certain magical directions. They entertained a high opinion also of the herb samolus or marshwort for its sanative qualities; and gave many directions for gathering it. The person who was to perform that office was to do it fasting, and with his left hand; he was on no account to look behind him, nor to turn his face from the herbs he was gathering. It would be tedious to relate the extravagant notions they entertained of the many virtues of the vervain, and to recount the ridiculous mummeries which they practised in gathering and preparing it, both for the purposes of divination and physic. These may be seen in Pliny's Hist. Nat. l. 25. c. 9, from whom we have these anecdotes; but who, like other Greek and Roman writers, seems designedly to represent the philosophers of Gaul and Britain in an unfavorable light. We learn from Cæsar that the druids were the judges and arbiters of all differences and disputes, both public and private: they took cognizance of murders, inheritances, boundaries, and limits; and decreed rewards and punishments. Such as disobeyed their decisions they excommunicated, which was their principal punishment; the criminal being hereby excluded from all public assemblies, and avoided by all the world; so that nobody durst speak to him for fear of being polluted. Strabo observes, they had sometimes authority enough to stop armies upon the point of engaging, and accommodate their differences.



If the British druids made no contemptible proficiency in several parts of real and useful learning, it cannot be denied that they were also great pretenders to superior knowledge in certain vain fallacious sciences, by which they excited the admiration, and took advantage of the ignorance and credulity of mankind. These were magic and divination; by which they pretended to work miracles, and exhibit astonishing appearances in nature; to penetrate into the counsels of heaven, to foretell future events, and to discover the success or miscarriage of public or private undertakings. Their countrymen not only believed that the druids were possessed of these powers, but they were celebrated on this account by the philosophers of Greece and Rome. 'In Britain' says Pliny, 'the magic arts are cultivated with such astonishing success, that the Britons seem to be capable of instructing even the Persians themselves in these arts. They pretend to discover the designs and purposes of the gods. The Eubates or Vates, in particular, investigate and display the most sublime secrets of nature; and by auspices and sacrifices they foretell future events.' They were so famous for the supposed veracity of their predictions, that they were not only consulted on all important occasions by their own princes and great men, but even sometimes by the Roman emperors. Stonehenge, and several other works of the druids, were believed to have been executed by the art of magic, for many ages after the destruction of their whole order. The natural and acquired sagacity of the druids, with their long experience in public affairs, enabled them to form very probable conjectures about the event of enterprises. These conjectures they pronounced as oracles when they were consulted; and they pretended to derive them from inspecting the entrails of victims, observing the flight of certain birds, and other mummeries. By such arts they obtained and preserved the reputation of prophetic foresight among an ignorant and credulous people.

They worshipped the Supreme Being under the name of Esus, or Hesus, and the symbol of the oak; and had no other temple than a wood or a grove, where all their religious rites were performed. Nor was any person admitted to enter that sacred recess unless he carried with him a chain, in token of his absolute dependence on the Deity. Indeed, their whole religion originally consisted in acknowledging that the Supreme Being, who made his abode in these sacred groves, governed the universe; and that every creature ought to obey his laws, and pay him divine homage. They considered the oak as the emblem, or rather the peculiar residence, of the Almighty; and accordingly chaplets of it were worn both by the druids and people in their religious ceremonies; the altars were strewed with its leaves, and encircled with its branches. The fruit of it, especially the mistletoe, was thought to contain a divine virtue, and to be the peculiar gift of heaven. It was therefore sought for on the sixth day of the moon with the greatest earnestness and anxiety; and when found, was hailed with such raptures of joy, as it almost exceeds imagination to conceive. As soon

as the druids were informed of this fortunate discovery, they prepared every thing ready for its sacrifice under the oak, to which they fastened two white bulls by the horns; then the arch-druid, attended by a prodigious number of people, ascended the tree, dressed in white; and with a consecrated golden knife, or pruning-hook, cropped the mistletoe, which he received in his sagum or robe, amidst the rapturous exclamations of the people. Having secured the sacred plant he descended the tree; the bulls were sacrificed, and the Deity invoked to bless his own gift, and render it efficacious in the distempers in which it should be administered. The consecrated groves, in which they performed their religious rites, were fenced round with stones, to prevent any person's entering between the trees, except through the passages left open for that purpose, and which were guarded by some inferior druids, to prevent any stranger from intruding into their mysteries. These groves were of different forms: some quite circular, others oblong, and more or less capacious, as the votaries in the districts to which they belonged were more or less numerous. The one in the centre of the grove was encompassed with several rows of large oaks set very close together. Within this large circle were several smaller ones, surrounded with large stones; and near the centre of these smaller circles were stones of a prodigious size and convenient height, on which the victims were slain and offered. Each of these being a kind of altar, was surrounded with another row of stones, the use of which cannot now be known, unless they were intended as cinctures to keep the people at a convenient distance from the officiating priest. Suetonius, in his life of Claudius, assures us the druids sacrificed men; and Mercury is said to be the god to whom they offered these victims. Diodorus Siculus (lib. vi.) observes it was only on extraordinary occasions they made such offerings; as to consult what measures to take, to learn what should befall them, &c., by the fall of the victim, the tearing of his members, and the manner of his blood gushing out. This was the condemned custom, and Tiberius made it punished and abolished it.

DRUIDE, or DRORUM, in ancient times the principal place of the Druids where they met annually in a consecrated grove according to Cæsar. It was also called DRUIDICUM; and is now named Dreux.

DRUM, *n. s. & v. n.*  
 DRUM'FISH, *n. s.*  
 DRUM'MAJOR,  
 DRUM'MAKER,  
 DRUM'MER,  
 DRUM'STICK,  
 soft murmuring sound; and Skinner thinks the word is formed from the sound. An instrument of military music; the tympanum of the ancients, and from the hum made, a concourse of people. A drum-major is a chief drummer.

Let's march without the noise of threatening drums.  
 Drummer, strike up, and let us march away. *Id.*  
 In drums, the closeness round about, that produces the sound of dispersing, unskilful the noise



the drum-hole far more loud and  
you should strike upon the like skin  
open air.

*Bacon.*

ag down their breasts bedew the  
trumpets mix their mournful sound.

*Dryden.*

low, heart,  
voices, send the vigorous blood  
y active limb for my relief;  
rest within the quiet cell,  
t drum no more.

*Id.*

er uses it, and the cabinetmaker.

*Mortimer.*

v of the drumfish from Virginia.

*Woodward.*

y may chance to spoil the swearing  
jor's oaths, of bulk unruly,  
a feeble.—

*Cleveland.*

Now no more the drum  
rums, or trumpet's clangor shrill  
wives, and chills the virgin's blood.

*Philips.*

of drummers stand in martial file,  
ir vellum-thunder shake the pile.

*Gay.*

with Curtis, among the floating bat-

for witnesses an arm and limb :

try need me, with Elliot to head me,  
y stumps at the sound of the drum.

*Burns.*

he field in which no life or drum  
drives his cattle to a march ;  
the smart comrades he has left.

*Cowper.*

ariety of notes referable to the gamut  
a drum, yet, if it be performed in mu-  
agreeable to our ears ; and therefore  
sensation must be owing to the repe-  
ritions of the sounds at certain inter-  
musical bars.

*Darwin.*

hottest morn in summer, you may see  
quat pony, with her hair plaited up  
unner's, and puffing round the ring on

*Sheridan.*

y forming in the ranks of war ;

y thunder peel on peel afar ;

e beat of the alarming drum

ie soldier e'er the morning star.

*Byron.*

martial musical instrument, in the  
nder, hollow within and covered at  
vith vellum, which may be stretched  
y small cords and sliding leathers  
is instrument is said to have been  
Bacchus, who, as Polyenes reports,  
nals of battle with cymbals and  
the Saracens, who invaded Pales-  
duced it into Europe. The drums  
made of brass. Those belonging  
re silver.

ns are two sorts of large basins of  
rass, rounded at the bottom and  
vellum or goat-skin, which is kept  
of iron, and several holes, fastened  
of the drum, and a like number of  
etch it at pleasure. They are used  
rse.

e following account of the different  
drum from James's Military Dic-

The *General*, to give notice to the troops that  
they are to march.

The *Assembly*, or *Troop*, to order the troops to  
repair to the place of rendezvous, or to their  
colors.

The *March*, to command them to move, always  
with the left foot first.

*Tat-too*, or *Tap-too*, to order all to retire to  
their quarters.

*To Arms!* for soldiers who are dispersed, to  
repair to them.

The *Réveillé* always beats at break of day, and  
is to warn the soldiers to rise, and the sentinels  
to forbear challenging, and to give leave to come  
out of quarters.

The *Retreat*, a signal to draw off from the  
enemy. It likewise means a beat in both camp  
and garrison a little before sun-set, at which time  
the gates are shut, and the soldiers repair to their  
barracks, &c.

The *Alarm*, to give notice of sudden danger,  
that all may be in readiness for immediate duty.

The *Parley*, or *Chamade*, a signal to demand  
some conference with the enemy.

*Long March*, a beat which was formerly used  
in England; on the sound of which, the men  
clubbed their firelocks, and claimed and used the  
liberty of talking all kind of ribaldry.

The *Church Call*, called, also, *Beating the  
Bank*; a beat to summon the soldiers of a regi-  
ment, or garrison, to church.

The *Pioneer's Call*, known by the appellation  
of round heads and cuckolds! come dig; this is  
beaten in camp to summon the pioneers to  
work.

The *Serjeants' Call*, a beat for calling the ser-  
jeants together in the orderly-room, or in camp,  
to the head of the colors.

The *Drummers' Call*, a beat to assemble the  
drummers at the head of the colors, or in quar-  
ters at the place where it is beaten.

The *Preparative*, a signal to make ready for  
firing.

The *Warning Drum*, a beat to give officers  
and soldiers time to assemble for their meals in  
camp or quarters.

The *Roust-beef of Old England*, a beat to call  
officers to dinner.

DRUMMER, or DRUM, he that beats the drum;  
of whom each company of foot has one, and  
sometimes two. Every regiment has a drum-  
major, who has the command over the other  
drums. They are distinguished from the soldiers  
by clothes of a different fashion: their post, when  
a battalion is drawn up, is on the flanks, and on  
march it is betwixt the divisions.

DRUMBLE, *v. n.* A diminutive of drum;  
probably from the noise of a sluggish stream.  
Hence drumbly, or drumly, is stagnant: see below.  
To drone; to be sluggish.

Take up these cloaths here quickly: where's the  
cowstaff? Look, how you drumble! carry them to  
the landress in Datchet Mead.

*Shakespeare. Merry Wives of Windsor.*

DRUMLY, *adj.* From drumble. Stagnant  
thick; muddy.

Then bouses drumly German water,  
To mak himsel look fair and fatter,



An' clear the consequential sorrows,  
Love-gifts of Carnival signoras. Burns.

**DRUMMOND** (William), the son of Sir John Drummond, of Hawthornden, knight of the black rod to king James I., was born in Scotland in 1585. He was educated at Edinburgh, where he took the degree of A.M. In 1606 he was sent by his father to study civil law at Bourges in France; but, having a dislike for the law, he returned to his agreeable seat at Hawthornden, where he applied himself with great assiduity to classical learning and poetry. Here he wrote his *Cypress Grove*, and, about the same time, *Flowers of Zion*, in verse. But on the death of a lady, to whom he was about to be married, he went to Paris and Rome. He travelled through France, Germany, and Italy, where he visited the universities; and, after an absence of eight years, returned to his native country. On the appearance of a civil war, he retired again; and is now supposed to have written his *History of the Five James's*, kings of Scotland, which was not published till after his death. He was steadily attached to Charles I.; and, in a piece called *Irene*, he harangues the king, nobility, and clergy, about their mutual mistakes, fears, and jealousies; and lays before them the consequences of a civil war. His attachment to the king was so strong, that when he heard of his being executed, he is said to have been overwhelmed with grief, and to have lifted up his head no more. He died in 1649, leaving behind him several children: the eldest of whom, William, was knighted by Charles II. He was the intimate friend of Michael Drayton and Ben Jonson; the latter of whom, at the age of forty-five, travelled from London on foot to visit him at Hawthornden. An edition of his works, with his life prefixed, was printed in folio at Edinburgh in 1711. Among all the writers of the seventeenth century, who flourished after the death of Shakspeare, there is not one whom a general reader of the English poetry of that age will regard with so much and so deserved attention, as William Drummond. His thoughts are generally bold and highly poetical: he closely follows nature, and his verses are delicately harmonious. On the death of Henry prince of Wales, in 1612, Drummond wrote an elegy entitled *Tears on the death of Moeliades*; a name which that prince had used in all his challenges of martial sport, as the anagram of *Miles à Deo*.

**DRUNK'ARD,**

**DRUNK'EN,**

**DRUNK'ENLY,**

**DRUNK'ENNESS.**

} See **DRINK.**

**DRUPA**, or **DRUPPA**. See **BOTANY**. The cherry, plum, peach, apricot, and all other stone fruit are of this kind. The term, which is of great antiquity, is synonymous to Tournefort's *fructus mollis ossiculo*, 'soft fruit with a stone;' and to the *prunus* of other botanists. The stone or nut, which in this sort of fruit is surrounded by the soft pulpy flesh, is a kind of ligneous or woody cup, which contains a single kernel or seed. This definition, however, will not apply to every seed-vessel denominated *drupa* in the *Genera Plantarum*. The almond is a *drupa*, so is the seed vessel of the elm trees and the genus

*rumphia*, though far from being pulpy or violent; the first and third are of a substance like leather, the second like parchment. The first may be said of the walnut, the pistacia, the guetterda, quisqualis, jack-in-a-box, and some others. The seeds of the elm schreberi, eupharia, and the mango tree, are not contained in a stone. The seed-vessel of *butr-reed* is a dry, shaped like a top, and contains two angular stones.

**DRURY** (Robert), an English mariner, and a humble but respectable author, was born in Leicestershire. In 1702, while a boy, he was shipwrecked in the *Degrave*, East Indian, on the south side of the island of Madagascar, and lived in captivity there for fifteen years. On his return he published, in 1743, an account of his island, and of his own adventures, in a plain unadorned manner, and being corroborated as far as it went by the journal of Mr. Benbow, the son of the admiral, who was wrecked at the same time, his book has always been considered authentic. It was republished in 1808. Drury was porter at the India-house, and inherited very little property, but when he died is not known.

**DRUSES**, **DRUZES**, or more properly *Druzes*, signifying riches, or sensual comforts, the great rewards of their faith, a remarkable nation in Palestine, inhabiting the environs of Mount Lebanon, of whose origin and history we have considerable details from the pen of M. Vainy, to which we subjoin the more modern observations of Messrs. Niebuhr, Burckhardt, &c.

Twenty-three years after the death of Mahomet, the disputes between Ali his son-in-law and Moadua governor of Syria, occasioned the schism in the empire of the Arabs, and the sects subsist to this day: but, in reality, the difference related only to power; and the Mahomedans, however divided in opinion respecting the rightful successor of the prophet, were agreed with respect to their dogmas. It was not until the following century, that the period of Greek books introduced among the Arabs a spirit of discussion and controversy, to which till then they were utter strangers. The consequence was, as might be expected, by reasoning on matters not susceptible of demonstration, and guided by the abstract principles of an unsound logic, they divided into a multitude of sects and opinions. At this period, too, the power lost its authority; and that kind of religion, which derives from it alone the means of preserving its unity, shared the same fate. The nations which had received the religion of Mahomet, mixed with it their former ancient notions; and the errors which had formerly prevailed over Asia again made their appearance, though altered in their forms. The Manichæism, the doctrine of a good and evil principle, and the renovation after 6000 years, as it had been taught by Zoroaster, were again revived. In this political and religious confusion, every enthusiast became an apostle, and every sect the head of a sect. No less than sixty of these were reckoned, remarkable for the number of their followers, all differing in some point of faith, and all disavowing heresy and error. Such was the state of these countries, when a



commencement of the eleventh century, it became the theatre of one of the most vagrant scenes of enthusiasm and absurdity recorded in history. The following account is extracted from the eastern writers. In the year of the Hejira 386 (A. D. 996), the third caliph of the race of the Fatemites, called Hakem B' Allah, succeeded to the throne of Egypt at the age of eleven years. He was one of the most cruel and capricious princes of whom history has preserved the name, not excepting Caligula himself. He caused the first caliphs, the companions of Mahomet, to be cursed in the mosques, afterwards revoked the anathema: he compelled the Jews and Christians to abjure their religion, and then permitted them to resume it. He prohibited the making of slippers for women, to prevent them from coming out of their houses. He turned one half of the city of Cairo for his stables, while his soldiers pillaged the other. He prohibited the pilgrimage to Mecca, fasting, the five prayers; and at length carried his despotism so far as to desire to pass for God himself.

He ordered a register of those who acknowledged him to be so, and the number amounted to 1,000! This impious pretension was supported by a prophet, named Mohammed Ben Ismael, who came from Persia into Egypt, and declared that it was not necessary to fast or pray, to practise circumcision, to make the pilgrimage to Mecca, or observe festivals; that the prohibition of pork and wine was absurd; and that marriage between brothers and sisters, fathers and children, was lawful. To ingratiate himself with Hakem, he maintained that this caliph was himself incarnate; and instead of his name, which was B' Amr-Ellah, which signifies governing by the order of God, he called him Hakem B' Allah, governing by his own order. Unluckily he was a prophet, his new god had not the power to protect him from the fury of his enemies, for he was slain in a tumult almost in the arms of the caliph, who was himself massacred soon after at Mokattam, where he, as he said, had conversation with angels. The death of these two chiefs did not stop the progress of their sect; a disciple of Mohammed Ben Ismael, called Hamzah Ben Ahmud, propagated their indefatigable zeal in Egypt, in Palestine, along the coast of Syria, as far as Sidon and Tyre. His proselytes being persecuted by the power, they took refuge in the mountains of Lebanon, where they were better able to defend themselves; at least it is certain, that, after this era, we find them established as a nation, forming an independent society. The diversity of their opinions disposes them to be fractious; but the urgent interest of their common defence forces them to allow mutual toleration, and they have always appeared united, and have opposed, at different times, the Crusaders, the Aghas of Aleppo, the Mamelukes, and the Ottomans. The conquest of Syria by the latter, did not change their situation. Selim I. on his return from Egypt, meditating no less than the conquest of Europe, disdained to waste his time before the rocks of Lebanon. Soliman II. his successor, incessantly engaged in important wars, and with the knights of Rhodes, the Persians,

the kingdom of Yemen, the Hungarians, the Germans, or the emperor Charles V. had no time to think of the Druses. Emboldened by this inattention, and not content with their independence, they frequently descended from their mountains to pillage the Turks. The pachas in vain attempted to repel their inroads; their troops were invariably routed or repulsed. And it was not till 1588, that Amurath III. wearied with the complaints made to him, resolved, at all events, to reduce these rebels, and had the good fortune to succeed. His general, Ibrahim Pacha, marched from Cairo, and attacked the Druses and Maronites, with so much address and vigor, as to force them into their strong holds in the mountains. Dissension took place among their chiefs, of which he availed himself to exact a contribution of upwards of 1,000,000 of piastres, and to impose a tribute which has continued to the present time.

This expedition was the epocha of a considerable change in the constitution of the Druses. Till then they lived in a sort of anarchy, under the command of different sheiks or lords. The nation was likewise divided into two factions, such as is to be found in all the Arab tribes, and which are distinguished into the Kaisi and Yamani parties. To simplify the administration, Ibrahim permitted them only one chief, who should be responsible for the tribute, and execute the office of civil magistrate; and this governor, from the nature of his situation, acquiring great authority, became almost the king of the republic; but, as he was always chosen from among the Druses, a consequence followed, which the Turks had not foreseen, and which was nearly fatal to their power. The chief thus chosen, having at his disposal the whole strength of this people, was able to give it unanimity and energy, and naturally turned it against the Turks; who, by becoming their masters, had not ceased to be their enemies. They took care, however, that their attacks should be indirect, so as to save appearances, and only engaged in secret hostilities. About this time, viz. in the beginning of the seventeenth century, the power of the Druses attained its greatest height; which it owed to the talents and ambition of the celebrated Faker-el-din, commonly called Fakardin. No sooner was this prince advanced to be the chief of that people, than he turned his whole attention to humble the Ottoman power, and aggrandise himself. In this enterprise he displayed an address seldom seen among the Turks. He first gained the confidence of the Porte, by every demonstration of loyalty and fidelity; and as the Arabs at that time infested the plain of Balbec, and the country around Acre, he made war upon them, freed the inhabitants from their depredations, and thus rendered them desirous of living under his government. The city of Bairout was situated advantageously for his designs, as it opened a communication with foreign countries, particularly with the Venetians. Faker-el-din availed himself of the misconduct of the aga, expelled him, seized on the city, and even had the art to make a merit of this act of hostility with the divan, by paying a more considerable tribute. He proceeded in the



same manner at Saïde, Balbec, and Sour; and at length, about A. D. 1613, saw himself master of all the country as far as Adjaloun and Safad. The pachas of Tripoli and Damascus sometimes opposed him by open force, though ineffectually, and sometimes endeavoured to ruin him at the Porte by secret insinuations; but the emir, who maintained there his spies and defenders, defeated every attempt. At length, however, the divan began to be alarmed at the progress of the Druses, and made preparations for an expedition capable of crushing them. Whether from policy or fear, Faker-el-din did not think proper to wait this storm. He had formed connexions in Italy, on which he built great hopes, and determined to go in person to solicit the succours they had promised him; persuaded that his presence would increase the zeal of his friends, while his absence might appease the resentment of his enemies. He therefore embarked at Bairout; and after resigning the administration to his son Ali, repaired to the court of the Medici at Florence. The arrival of an oriental prince in Italy did not fail to attract the public attention. Enquiry was made into his nation, and the origin of the Druses became a popular topic of research. Their history and religion were found to be so little known, as to leave it a matter of doubt, whether they should be classed with the Mahomedans or Christians. The crusades were called to mind; and it was suggested, that a people who had taken refuge in the mountains, and were enemies to the natives, could be no other than the offspring of the crusaders. This conceit was too favorable to Faker-el-din for him to endeavour to disprove it; he was artful enough, on the contrary, to pretend he was related to the house of Lorraine; and the missionaries and merchants, who promised themselves a new opening for conversion and commerce, encouraged his pretensions. When an opinion is in vogue, every one discovers new proofs of its certainty. The learned in etymology, struck with the resemblance of the names, insisted that Druses and Dreux must be the same word; and on this foundation formed the system of a pretended colony of French crusaders, who, under the conduct of a count de Dreux, had formed a settlement in Lebanon. This hypothesis, however, was completely overthrown by the remark, that the name of the Druses is to be found in the itinerary of Benjamin Tudela, who travelled before the time of the crusades. Indeed the futility of it ought to have been sufficiently apparent at first, from the single consideration, that had they been descended from any nation of the Franks, they must have retained at least the traces of some European language; for a people, retired into a separate district, and living distinct from the natives of the country, do not lose their language. That of the Druses, however, is almost a pure Arabic. After a stay of nine years in Italy, Faker-el-din returned to resume the government of his country. During his absence, his son Ali had repulsed the Turks, appeased discontents, and maintained affairs in good order. Nothing remained for the emir, but to employ the knowledge he had acquired, in perfecting the internal administration of govern-

ment, and promoting the welfare of the nation; but, instead of the useful arts, he abandoned himself to the frivolous and the expensive, for which he had imbibed a passion in Italy. He built numerous villas; constructed baths, and planted gardens; he even presumed, notwithstanding they are prohibited by the Koran, and without respect to the prejudices of his country, to employ the ornaments of painting and sculpture. The consequences of this were, the Druses, who paid the same tribute as in time of war, became dissatisfied. The Yamani faction was roused into revolt, the people murmured at the expenses of the prince, and the luxury he displayed renewed the jealousy of the pachas. They attempted to levy greater tribute: hostilities again commenced, and Faker-el-din repulsed the forces of the pachas; who took occasion, from this resistance, to render him suspected by the sultan himself. Amurath III. incensed that one of his subjects should dare to enter into a competition with him, resolved on his destruction; and the pacha of Damascus received orders to march, with all his forces, against Bairout, the usual residence of Faker-el-din; while three galleys invested it by sea, and cut off all communication. The emir, who depended on his good fortune and succours from Italy, determined at first to brave the storm. His son Ali, who commanded at Safad, bravely opposed the progress of the Turkish army, notwithstanding the great disparity of his forces; but after two engagements, in which he had the advantage, being slain in a third attack, the face of affairs was greatly changed, and every thing went to ruin. Faker-el-din terrified at the loss of his troops, afflicted at the death of his son, and feeble by age and luxury, lost his courage. He sent his second son to solicit a peace of the Turkish admiral, whom he attempted to seduce by presents; but the admiral, detaining both the presents and envoy, declared he would have the prince himself. Faker-el-din, intimidated, fled in flight, and was pursued by the Turks, the masters of the country. He took refuge on the steep eminence of Niha, where they besieged him ineffectually for a whole year, when they left him at liberty: but shortly after, the companions of his adversity, wearied with their sufferings, betrayed and delivered him up to the Turks. He was carried to Constantinople, where Amurath, pleased to behold at his feet a person so celebrated, at first treated him with that benevolence which arises from the pride of superiority; but afterwards yielded to the importunities of his courtiers, and, in one of his violent fits of passion, ordered him to be strangled.

After the death of Faker-el-din, his posterity still continued in possession of the government, as vassals of the Turks. But this family failing in the male line at the beginning of the eighteenth century, the authority devolved, by the election of the sheiks, on the house of Shihab, in which it still continues. The only emir of that house who merits notice is Melhem, who reigned from 1740 to 1759, retrieved the losses of the Druses, and restored them to that consequence which they had lost by the death of Faker-el-din. Towards the end of his life,



1754, Melhem, wearied with the cares of government, abdicated his authority, to live in his retirement, after the manner of the Is; but the troubles that succeeded occasioned him once more to resume the reins of government, which he held till 1759, when he universally regretted. He left three sons, the eldest of whom ought to have succeeded him: but, being only eleven years of age, authority devolved on his uncle Mansour, ably to a law very general in Asia, that the state shall be governed by a sovereign who arrived at the years of maturity. The young prince was but little fitted to maintain his pre-eminence; but a Maronite, named Sad-el-Kouri, whom Melhem had entrusted his education, this upon himself. Aspiring to see his nephew a powerful prince, that he might himself be a powerful vizier, he made every exertion to advance his fortune. He first retired him to Djebail, in the Kesraouan, where his nephew possessed large dominions, and undertook to conciliate the Maronites, by giving every opportunity to serve both individuals and the nation. The great revenues of the empire, and the moderation of his expensively furnished him with the means. The empire of the Kesraouan was divided between the sheiks, with whom the Porte was not well satisfied. Sad treated for the whole the pacha of Tripoli, and got himself appointed sole receiver. The Motoualis of the pacha of Balbec had for some years before made encroachments on Lebanon, and the sheiks began to be alarmed at the near approach of these intolerant Mahomedans. Sad used of the pacha of Damascus a permission to make war upon them; and in 1763 he drove them out of the country. The Druses at that time divided into two factions; Sad continued his interest with those who opposed Mansour, and secretly prepared the plot which was executed by the nephew, by the ruin of the uncle. In the period the Arab Daher, who had made himself master of Galilee, and fixed his residence at Acre, disquieted the Porte by his insolence and pretensions: to oppose him, the pacha had just united the pachalics of Damascus, Tripoli, and Sidon, in the hands of Osman Bey, his children; and it was evident that an attempt at war was not very remote. Mansour, who feared the Turks too much to resist them, made use of the policy usual on such occasions, procuring a zeal for their service, while he secretly supported the enemy. This was a sufficient motive to pursue measures directly opposite. He reported the Turks against the faction of Mansour, and manœuvred with so much address to depose that emir in 1770, and place his nephew in his government. In 1771 Ali Bey declared war, and attacked Damascus. Yousef, son by the Turks, took part in the quarrel, without being able to draw the Druses from the mountains, to enter into the army of the pacha. Besides their natural repugnance, the Druses, at times, to make war out of their country, were on this occasion too much divided at to quit their habitations, and they had to congratulate themselves on the event.

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The battle of Damascus ensued; and the Turks were completely routed. The pacha of Saïde escaping from this defeat, and not thinking himself safe in that town, sought an asylum even in the house of Yousef. The moment was unfavorable: but the face of affairs soon changed by the flight of Mohammed Bey. The emir, concluding that Ali Bey was dead, and not imagining that Daher was powerful enough singly to maintain the quarrel, declared openly against him. Saïde was threatened with a siege, and he detached 1500 men of his faction to its defence; while himself in person, prevailing on the Druses and Maronites to follow him, made an incursion with 25,000 peasants into the valley of Bekaa; and in the absence of the Motoualis, who had joined the army of Daher, laid the whole country waste with fire and sword from Balbec to Tyre. While the Druses, proud of this exploit, were marching in disorder towards the latter city, 500 Motoualis, informed of what had happened, flew from Acre inflamed with rage and despair, and fell with such impetuosity on their army as to give them a complete overthrow. Such was the surprise and confusion of the Druses, that, imagining themselves attacked by Daher himself and betrayed by their companions, they turned their swords on each other as they fled. The steep declivities of Djezin, and the pine woods which were in the route of the fugitives, were strewn with dead, few of whom perished by the hands of the Motoualis. The emir Yousef, ashamed of this defeat, escaped to Dair el Kamer, and shortly after attempted to take revenge; but, being again defeated in the plain between Saïde and Sour (Tyre), he was constrained to resign to his uncle Mansour the ring, which, among the Druses, is the symbol of command. In 1773 he was restored by a new revolution; but he could not support his power but at the expense of a civil war. In order, therefore, to prevent Bairout from falling into the hands of the adverse faction, he requested the assistance of the Turks, and demanded of the pacha of Damascus a man of sufficient abilities to defend that city. The choice fell on Ahmad, an adventurer, who, from his subsequent fortune, merits particular notice. This man was a native of Bosnia, and spoke the Slavonian as his mother tongue. It is said, that flying from his country at the age of sixteen, to escape the consequences of an attempt to violate his sister in law, he repaired to Constantinople, where, destitute of the means of procuring a subsistence he sold himself to the slave-merchants to be conveyed to Egypt; and, on his arrival at Cairo, was purchased by Ali Bey, who placed him among his Mamelukes. Ahmad was not long in distinguishing himself by his courage and address.—His patron employed him on several occasions in dangerous *coups de main*, such as the assassination of such beys and chiefs as he suspected; of which commissions he acquitted himself so well, as to acquire the name of Djezzar. With this claim to his friendship, he enjoyed the favor of Ali, until he was disturbed by an accident. The jealous Bey, having proscribed one of his benefactors called Saleh Bey, commanded Ahmad Djezzar to cut off his head.

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Either from humanity or some secret friendship for the devoted victim, Djeddar hesitated, and even remonstrated against the order. But learning the next day that Mohammed Bey had executed the commission, and that Ali had spoken of him not very favorably, he thought himself a lost man, and, to avoid the fate of Saleh, escaped unobserved, and reached Constantinople. He there solicited employments suited to his former rank; but meeting, as is usual in capitals, with a great number of rivals, he pursued another plan, and went to seek his fortune in Syria as a private soldier. Chance conducted him among the Druses, where, being hospitably entertained in the house of the *kiaya* of the emir Yousef, he repaired to Damascus, and obtained the title of Aga, with the command of five pair of colors, that is to say of fifty men. He was thus situated when fortune destined him to the government of Bairout. Djeddar was no sooner established there, than he took possession of it for the Turks. Yousef was confounded at this proceeding. He demanded justice at Damascus; but finding his complaints treated with contempt, entered into a treaty with Daher, and concluded an offensive and defensive alliance with him at Rafien, near Sour. No sooner was Daher united with the Druses, than he laid siege to Bairout by land, whilst two Russian frigates, whose service was purchased by 600 purses, cannonaded it by sea. Djeddar was compelled to submit to force, and, after a vigorous resistance, gave up the city and surrendered himself prisoner. Sheik Daher, charmed with his courage, and flattered with the preference he had given him in the surrender, conducted him to Acre, and showed him every mark of kindness. He even ventured to trust him with a small expedition into Palestine; but Djeddar, on approaching Jerusalem, went over to the Turks, and returned to Damascus. The war of Mohammed Bey breaking out, Djeddar offered his service to the captain Pacha, and gained his confidence. He accompanied him to the siege of Acre; and that admiral, having destroyed Daher, and finding no person more proper than Djeddar to accomplish the designs of the Porte in that country, named him pacha of Saide. Being now, in consequence of this revolution, superior lord to the emir Yousef, Djeddar was mindful of his past injuries, and, by a conduct truly Turkish, feigning alternately gratitude and resentment, he extorted from the emir, within the space of five years, 4,000,000 of French money (above £160,000), a sum the more astonishing as the farm of the country of the Druses did not then amount to 100,000 livres, £4000. In 1784 he made war on him, deposed him, and bestowed the government on the emir of the country of Hasbeya, named Ismael. Yousef, having once more purchased his favor, returned, towards the end of the same year, to Dair-el-Kamar, and even courted his confidence so far as to wait on him at Acre, from whence nobody expected him to return; but Djeddar was too wise to shed blood while there were any hopes of obtaining money: he released the prince, and sent him back with every mark of friendship. The present emir bashir is a descendant of Yousef. He pays 130 purses annually to the pacha of Tripoli, and 400 to the

pacha of Saide; and, perhaps, 300 purses more in the way of extraordinary demands, or about £20,750 altogether. He has also to furnish annually, the friendship of the pacha of Acre, or Acre. This revenue is derived from the whole country situated between Bilad Acre, the north declivity of Mount Libanus, and the immediate neighbourhood of Akri. The internal succession of the Druses have continued from the middle of the last century: in 1799 or 1800 some of the chiefs of one faction were put to death in the palace of the emir: and the most powerful chief in the country in 1812, was, according to Barthardt, El-sheikh Beshir, of the Jonbelat tribe: he has a clear income of about £50,000 a year, while that of the emir, his nominal superior, is not above £10,000.

Neither the chief nor the individual can maintain troops; they have only persons attached to the domestic service of their houses, and a few black slaves. When the nation makes war, every man, whether sheik or peasant, able to bear arms, is called upon to march. He goes with him a bag of flour, a musket, some bullets, and a small quantity of powder, made in his village, and repairs to the rendezvous appointed by the governor. If it be a civil war, as sometimes happens, the servants, the farmers, and his friends, take up arms for their patron, or the chief of their family, and repair to his standard. In such cases, the parties irritated frequently seem on the point of proceeding to the last extremities; but they seldom have recourse to acts of violence, or attempt the death of each other: mediators always interpose, and the quarrel is appeased the more readily, as each party is obliged to provide his followers with provisions and ammunition. This system, which produces happy effects in civil troubles, is attended with great inconvenience in foreign wars, as sufficiently appeared in that of 1784. Djeddar knew that the whole army lived at the expense of the emir Yousef, aimed at nothing but death, and the Druses, who were not displeased at being fed for doing nothing, prolonged the operations; but the emir, wearied with paying, concluded a treaty, the terms of which were not a little rigorous for himself, and eventually for the whole nation. 'The ceremonies to which I have been a witness on these occasions,' says M. Vane, 'bear a striking resemblance to the customs of ancient times. When the emir and the elect had determined on war at Daer-el-Kamar, one in the evening ascended the summit of the mountain, and there began to cry with a loud voice: 'To war, to war; take your pace, take your pistols: noble sheiks, mount your horses, arm yourselves with the lance and sabre: rendezvous to-morrow at Daer-el-Kamar. God! zeal of combats!' This summons from the neighbouring villages, was there; and, as the whole country is a chain of lofty mountains and deep valleys, a proclamation passed in a few hours to all tiers. These voices, from the stillness of the night, the long resounding echoes, and the effect of the subject, had something awful and in their effect. Three days after, 15,000 men rendezvoused at Daer-el-Kamar.



might have been immediately commenced. I can easily imagine that troops of this kind may resemble our European soldiers; they wear either uniforms, discipline, nor order. They are a crowd of peasants with short coats, naked arms and muskets in their hands; differing from the Turks and Mamelukes in that they are all the sheiks and emirs alone have horses, and are of little use from the rugged nature of the country. War there can only be a war of

The Druses never risk themselves in the field, and with reason; for they would be unable to stand the shock of cavalry, having no bayonets for their muskets. Their whole art consists in creeping among the bushes and rocks, creeping among the bushes and rocks, from whence their fire is the most dangerous, as they are covered, fire at their feet, and, by hunting and military sports, have acquired the habit of hitting a mark with great accuracy. They are accustomed to sudden attacks by night, ambuscades, and all sorts of coups de main which require to fall suddenly, and come to close fight with the enemy. It is in improving their success, easily disappointed, and prompt to resume their courage; even to temerity, and sometimes ferocious, possess above all two qualities essential to the excellence of any troops; they strictly obey their leaders, and are endowed with a temperance and vigor of health, at this day unknown to most civilized nations. In the campaign of 1784 they were three months in the open air without shelter, or any other covering than a sheep-skin; there were not more deaths or maladies than in a campaign had remained in their houses. Their diet consisted, as at other times, of small pieces baked on the ashes or on a brick, raw meat, cheese, olives, fruits, and a little wine. The able of the chiefs was almost as frugal; and they affirm, that they subsisted 100 days, on the same number of Englishmen or Frenchmen would not have lived ten. They have no knowledge of the science of fortification, the management of artillery or encampments, nor, in word, any thing which constitutes the art of

But had they among them a few persons skilled in military science, they would readily acquire its principles, and become a formidable army. This would be the more easily effected, as their mulberry plantations and vineyards do occupy them all the year, and they could afford time for military exercises.

The Druses are considered, throughout the country, as restless, enterprising, hardy, and brave to temerity. Only 500 of them have been permitted to enter Damascus in open day, and spread terror and carnage. No people are more fierce than they, with respect to the point of honor; any offence of that kind, or open insult, is instantly punished by blows of the kandjar or scimitar; while, among the inhabitants of the country, it only excites injurious retorts. This has occasioned in their manners and conduct a reserve, or, if you will, a politeness, which is astonished to discover among peasants.

It is carried even to dissimulation and dissimulation, especially among the chiefs, whose interests demand greater attentions. Circumference is necessary to all, says M. Volney,

from the formidable consequences of that retaliation of which I have spoken. These customs may appear barbarous to us; but they have the merit of supplying the deficiency of regular justice, which is necessarily tedious and uncertain in these disorderly and almost anarchical governments. The Druses have another point of honor, that of hospitality. Whoever presents himself at their door, in the quality of a suppliant or passenger, is sure of being entertained and lodged in the most generous and unaffected manner. M. Volney often saw the lowest peasants give the last morsel of bread they had in their houses, to the hungry traveller; and when it was observed to them that they wanted prudence, their answer was, 'God is liberal and great, and all men are brethren.' There are, therefore, no inns in their country any more than in the rest of Turkey. When they have once contracted with their guest the sacred engagement of bread and salt, no subsequent event can make them violate it. Various instances of this are related, which do honor to their character. A few years ago, an aga of the janissaries having been engaged in a rebellion, fled from Damascus and retired among the Druses. The pacha was informed of this, and demanded him of the emir, threatening to make war on him in case of refusal. The emir demanded him of the sheik Talhouk, who had received him; but the indignant sheik replied, 'When have you known the Druses deliver up their guests? Tell the emir, that as long as Talhouk shall preserve his beard, not a hair of the head of his suppliant shall fall!' The emir threatened him with force; Talhouk armed his family. The emir, dreading a revolt, adopted a method practised as juridical in that country. He declared to the sheik, that he would cut down fifty mulberry-trees a-day until he should give up the aga. He proceeded as far as a thousand, and Talhouk still remained inflexible. At length the other sheiks, enraged, took up the quarrel; and the commotion was about to become general, when the aga reproaching himself with being the cause of so much mischief, made his escape without the knowledge even of Talhouk. The Druses have also the prejudices of the Bedouins respecting birth; like them, they pay great respect to the antiquity of families; but this produces no essential inconveniences. The nobility of the emirs and sheiks does not exempt them from paying tribute in proportion to their revenues. It confers on them no prerogatives, either in the attainment of landed property or public employments. Every man, after paying his miri and his rent, is master of his property. In short, by a particular privilege, the Druses pay no fine for their succession: nor does the emir, like the sultan, arrogate to himself original and universal property: there exists nevertheless, in the law of inheritance, an imperfection which produces disagreeable effects. Fathers have, as in the Roman law, the power of preferring such of their children as they think proper: hence it has happened in several families of the sheiks, that the whole property has centered in the same person, who has perverted it to the purpose of intriguing and caballing, while his relations remain, as they well express



it, 'princes of olives and cheese;' that is to say, poor as peasants. In consequence of their prejudices, the Druses do not choose to make alliances out of their own families. They invariably prefer their relation, though poor, to a rich stranger; and poor peasants have been known to refuse their daughters to merchants of Saïde and Bairout, who possessed from 12,000 to 15,000 piastres. They observe also, to a certain degree, the custom of the Hebrews, which directed that a brother should espouse his brother's widow; but this is not peculiar to them, for they retain that as well as several other customs of that ancient people, in common with other inhabitants of Syria and all the Arab tribes. In short, the proper and distinctive character of the Druses, is a sort of republican spirit, which gives them more energy than any other subjects of the Turkish government, and an indifference for religion, which forms a striking contrast with the zeal of the Mahomedans and Christians. They are further said to be remarkably domestic and intelligent. In the evening they sometimes assemble in the court, the area, or house of the chief of the village or family. There, seated in a circle, with legs crossed, pipes in their mouths, and poniards at their belts, they discourse of their various labors, the scarcity or plenty of their harvests, peace or war, the conduct of the emir, or the amount of the taxes; they relate past transactions, discuss present interests, and form conjectures on the future. Their children, tired with play, come frequently to listen; and a stranger is surprised to hear them, at ten or twelve years old, recounting, with a serious air, why Djezzar declared war against the emir Yousef, how many purses it cost that prince, what augmentation there will be of the miri, how many muskets there were in the camp, and who had the best mare. This is their only education. They are neither taught to read the psalms, as among the Maronites, nor the Koran like the Mahomedans; hardly do the sheiks know how to write a letter. But if their minds be destitute of useful or agreeable information, at least it is not pre-occupied by false and hurtful ideas; and, without doubt, such natural ignorance is well worth all our artificial folly. This advantage results from it, that their understandings being nearly on a level, the inequality of conditions is less perceptible. For, in fact, we do not perceive among the Druses that great distance, which, in most other societies, degrades the inferior, without contributing to the advantages of the great. All, whether sheiks or peasants, treat each other with that rational familiarity, which is equally remote from rudeness and servility. The grand emir himself is not a different man from the rest: he is a good country gentleman, who does not disdain admitting to his table the meanest farmer. In a word, their manners are those of ancient times, and of that rustic life which marks the origin of every nation; and prove that the people among whom they are still found are yet only in the infancy of the social state.' *Volney's Travels*.

The opinions of Mohammed ben Ismael may be regarded as the substance of the religion of

the Druses. They practise neither circumcision, nor prayers, nor fasting; they observe neither festivals nor prohibitions. They drink wine, eat pork, and allow marriage between brothers and sisters, though not between fathers and children. From this we may conclude, that the Druses have properly no religion; but one class of them must be excepted, whose religious customs are very peculiar. Those who compose it are the rest of the nation what the initiated were to be profane; they assume the name of Okkals, which means spiritualists, and bestow on the vulgar the epithet of Djahel or ignorant; they have various degrees of initiation, the higher orders of which require celibacy. They are distinguished by the white turban they affect to wear, as a symbol of their purity; and so pure are they of this supposed purity, that they think themselves sullied by even touching a profane person. If such eat out of their plate, or drink out of their cup, they break them; and hence the custom, so general in this country, of using vases with a sort of cock, which may be filled out of without touching them with the lips. All their practices are enveloped in mystery: the oratories always stand alone, and are commonly situated on eminences: in these they hold the secret assemblies, to which women are admitted. It is pretended they perform ceremonies in the presence of a small statue resembling a calf or calf; whence some have attempted to prove that they are descended from the Samaritans. But, besides, that the fact is not well ascertained, the worship of the ox may be deduced from other sources. They have one or two legends, which they conceal with the greatest care; but chance has deceived their jealousy; for in a civil war, which happened about twenty years ago, the emir Yousef, who is Djahel or ignorant, found one among the pillage of one of their oratories. M. Volney was assured by persons who had read it, that it contains much mystic jargon, the obscurity of which doctrine renders it valuable to adepts. Haken ben Ellah is there spoken of, by whom they say God incarnate in the person of the caliph, likewise treats of another life, of a place of punishment, and a place of happiness, where the Okkals shall of course be most distinguished. Several degrees of perfection are mentioned, by which they arrive by successive trials. In other respects these sectaries have all the insolence and all the fears of superstition; they are not communicative, because they are weak; but it is probable that, were they powerful, they would be promulgators and intolerant. The rest of the Druses, strangers to this spirit, are wholly indifferent about religious matters. The Christians, who live in their country, pretend that several of them believe in the metempsychosis; that others worship the sun, moon, and stars; all which is possible; for, as among the Americans, every one, left to his own fancy, follows the opinion that pleases him most; and these opinions are those which present themselves most naturally to unenlightened minds. When among the Turks, they affect the exterior of Mahomedanism, frequent the mosques, and perform their ablutions and prayers. Among the Maronites, they are



ny their to church, and, like them, make holy water. Many of them, importuned missionaries, suffer themselves to be baptised and if solicited by the Turks, receive cision, and conclude by dying neither ans nor Mahomedans.

Burckhardt confirms this general picture ner travellers. Though a sect of the Madians, they mingle so much of the tenets oaster and the eastern Christian heretics eir religion, that it belongs as a whole to lves only. Niebuhr has printed a cate- of their faith, which is principally remark- or its affected mysteriousness on the one and its positive injunction to curse its l author (a great poet) on the other. re they,' says their patriarch Hamzah, ave been put in possession of the Faith he religion of Mahomet, the son of lah; may the curse of our Lord be upon

y are a branch, it is clear, of the sect Is-

'Enquiries,' says Burckhardt, 'have been made concerning the religious doc- of this sect, as well as those of the An- and Druses. Not only European tra- , and Europeans resident in Syria, but natives of influence, have endeavoured to ate the mysteries of these idolaters, without s, and several causes combine to make it le, that their doctrines will long remain wn. The principal reason is, that few luals among them become acquainted with ost important and secret tenets of their the generality contenting themselves with ervice of some exterior practices, while ana are possessed by the select few. It e asked, perhaps, whether their religious would not unveil the mystery? It is true l the different sects possess books, which egard as sacred, but they are intelligible o the initiated. A sacred book of the An-

fell into the hands of a chief of the army usef pacha, who plundered the castles of ect in 1808; it came afterwards into the sion of my friend Selym of Hamah who estined it as a present to me; but he was ided upon to part with it to a travelling rian, and the book is now in the possession . Rousseau, the French Consul at Aleppo, as had it translated into French, and means blish it, but it will probably throw little upon the question. Another difficulty from the extreme caution of the Ismaylys this subject; whenever they are obliged to ny part of the country under the Turkish ment, they assume the character of Mus- as; being well aware that if they should ected in the practice of any rite contrary

Turkish religion, their hypocrisy, in af- to follow the latter, would no longer be ed; and their being once clearly known agans, which they are only suspected to resent, would expose them to the heaviest as, and might even be followed by their epulsion or extirpation. Christians and e tolerated because Mahomet and his ate successors granted them protection, ause the Turks acknowledge Christ and

the prophets; but there is no instance whatever of pagans being tolerated.

'The Ismaylys, when they go to Hamah, pray in the mosque, which they never do at Kalant Maszyad. This castle has been from ancient times their chief seat. One of them asserted that his religion descended from Ismayl, the son of Abraham, and that the Ismaylys had been possessed of the castle since the time of El Melek el Dhaher, as acknowledged by the Firmahus of the Porte. A few years since they were driven out of it by the Anzeyrys, in consequence of a most daring act of treachery. The Anzeyrys and Ismaylys have always been at enmity; the consequence, perhaps, of some religious differences.'

With respect more particularly to the true religion of the Druses, says this intelligent traveller, 'none but a learned Druse can satisfy the enquirer's curiosity. What I have already said of the Anzeyrys is equally applicable to the Druses; their religious opinions will remain for ever a secret, unless revealed by a Druse. Their customs, however, may be described; and, as far as they can tend to elucidate the mystery, the veil may be drawn aside by the researches of the traveller. It seems to be a maxim with them to adopt the religious practices of the country in which they reside, and to profess the creed of the strongest. Hence they all profess Islamism in Syria; and even those who have been baptised, on account of their alliance with the Shehab family, still practise the exterior forms of the Mahomedan faith. There is no truth in the assertion, that the Druses go one day to the mosque, and the next to the church. They all profess Islamism, and whenever they mix with the Mahomedans they perform the rites prescribed by their religion. In private, however, they break the fast of Ramadhan, curse Mahomet, indulge in wine, and eat food forbidden by the Koran. They bear an inveterate hatred to all religions except their own, but more particularly to that of the Franks, chiefly in consequence of a tradition current among them, that the Europeans will one day overthrow their commonwealth. This hatred has been increased since the invasion of the French; and the most unpardonable insult which one Druse can offer to another, is to say to him, 'May God put a hat on you.'

'Nothing is more sacred with a Druse than his public reputation: he will overlook an insult, if known only to him who has offered it; and will put up with blows, where his interest is concerned, provided nobody is a witness; but the slightest abuse given in public he revenges with the greatest fury. This is the most remarkable feature of the national character: in public a Druse may appear honorable; but he is easily tempted to a contrary behaviour, when he has reason to think that his conduct will remain undiscovered. The ties of blood and friendship have no power amongst them; the son no sooner attains the years of maturity, than he begins to plot against his father. Examples are not wanting of their assailing the chastity of their mothers, and towards their sisters such conduct is so frequent, that a father never allows a full grown son to remain alone with any of the fe-





males of his family. Their own religion allows them to take their sisters in marriage; but they are restrained from indulging in this connexion, on account of its repugnance to the Mahomedan laws. A Druse seldom has more than one wife, but he divorces her under the slightest pretext; and it is a custom among them, that if a wife asks her husband's permission to go out, and he says to her 'Go;' without adding 'and come back,' she is thereby divorced; nor can her husband recover her, even though it should be their mutual wish, till she is married again according to the Turkish forms, and divorced from her second husband. It is known that the Druses, like all Levantines, are very jealous of their wives; adultery, however, is rarely punished with death: if a wife is detected in it, she is divorced; but the husband is afraid to kill her seducer, because his death would be revenged, for the Druses are inexorable with respect to the law of retaliation of blood; they know too that if the affair were to become public, the governor would ruin both parties by his extortions. Unnatural propensities are very common amongst them.

'The Akal are those who are supposed to know the doctrines of the Druse religion; they superintend divine worship in the chapels, or, as they are called, Khaloue, and they instruct the children in a kind of catechism. They are obliged to abstain from swearing, and all abusive language, and dare not wear any article of gold or silk in their dress. Many of them make it a rule never to eat of any food, nor to receive any money, which they suspect to have been improperly acquired. For this reason, whenever they have to receive considerable sums of money, they take care that it shall be first exchanged for other coin. The sheik El Nedjem, who generally accompanies the sheik Beshir, in his visits to the emir, never tastes food in the palace of the latter, nor even smokes a pipe there, always asserting that whatever the emir possesses has been unlawfully obtained. There are different degrees of Akal, and women are also admitted into the order, a privilege which many avail themselves of, from parsimony, as they are thus exempted from wearing the expensive head-dress and rich silks fashionable among them.

'A father cannot entirely disinherit his son; in that case his will would be set aside; but he may leave him a single mulberry-tree for his portion. There is a Druse Kadhi at Daer-el Kamar, who judges according to the Turkish laws, and the customs of the Druses; his office is hereditary in a Druse family; but he is held in little repute, as all causes of importance are carried before the emir or the sheik Beshir.

'The Druses do not circumcise their children; circumcision is practised only in the mountain by those members of the Shehab family who continue to be Mahomedans.

'The best feature in the Druse character is that peculiar law of hospitality, which forbids them ever to betray a guest. I made particular enquiries on this subject, and I am satisfied that no consideration of interest or dread of power will induce a Druse to give up a person who has once placed himself under his protection. Per-

sons from all parts of Syria are in the constant practice of taking refuge in the mountains, where they are in perfect security from the moment they enter upon the emir's territory: should the prices ever be tempted by large offers to consent to give up a refugee, the whole country would rise to prevent such a stain upon their national reputation. The mighty Djazzar, who had invested his creatures with the government of the mountains, never could force them to give up a single individual of all those who fled thither from his tyranny. Whenever he became very urgent in his demands, the emir informed the fugitive of his danger, and advised him to conceal himself in a time in some more distant part of his territory; an answer was then returned to Djazzar, that the object of his resentment had fled. The system which is thus afforded by the mountain is one of the greatest advantages that the inhabitants of Syria enjoy over those of the other parts of the Turkish dominions.

'The Druses are extremely fond of raw meat, whenever a sheep is killed, the raw liver, lung, &c., are considered dainties; the Christians take their example, but with the addition of a glass of brandy to every slice of meat. In many parts of Syria I have seen the common people eat raw meat in their favorite dish the *Kabab*; the women especially indulge in this luxury.

'Mr. Barker told me that during his two years' residence at Harissa and in the mountains he never heard any kind of music. The Christians are too devout to occupy themselves with such worldly pleasures, and the Druses have no sort of musical instruments.

'The Druses have a few historical books which mention their nation; Ibn Shebat, for instance, I was told, gives in his history of the Caliphs that of the Druses also, and of the family of Shehab. Emir Haidar a relation of the sheik Beshir, has lately begun to compile a history of the Shehabs, which already forms a thick quarto volume.

'I believe that the greatest amount of the military forces of the Druses is between 7,000 and 15,000 firelocks; the Christians of the mountain may, perhaps, be double that number; but I conceive that the most potent pacha or emir would never be able to collect more than 20,000 men from the mountain.' *Travels*, p. 206-207.

DRUSIUS (John), a protestant writer of great learning, born at Oudenarde in Flanders, in 1555. He was designed for the study of divinity, but his father being outlawed, and deprived of his estate, they both retired to England, where the son became professor of the oriental languages at Oxford: upon the pacification of Ghent, they returned to their own country, where also Drusius was appointed professor of oriental languages. From thence he removed to Friesland, where he was admitted Helow professor in the university of Franeker; the functions of which he discharged with great honor till his death in 1616. His works show him to have been well skilled in Hebrew; and the States General employed him in 1600 to write notes on the most difficult passages in the Old Testament, with a pension of 400 florins a-year: but, being frequently disturbed in this undertaking, he was



l till after his death. He held a  
ndence with the learned; among  
re were found 2300 Latin letters.  
(John), the son of the preceding.  
Franker in 1588; and began to  
nd Hebrew at five years old; at  
read that language without points,  
a where wanted. He spoke Latin  
his native tongue, and could make  
stood in English. At twelve he  
brew extempore; at seventeen he  
h in Latin to king James I. in the  
court, and was admired by all  
died of the stone, in 1609, aged  
at the house of Dr. W. Thomas,  
ester, who gave him a considerable  
left several works; as, Letters and  
brew; Notes on Solomon's Proverbs;  
ested into alphabetical order Elias  
enculator, to which he added the

v. a. & v. n. } Goth *thur*; Sax.  
s. } drig; Teut. *treig*;  
adj. } Belg. *droog*, from  
to. } Gr. *τρυγη*, dryness.  
n. s. } Arid; free from  
v. a. & n. s. } moisture; hence  
adj. } barren, and, figu-  
rally, deficient; hard; severe; sneer-  
ers seem to have been formed from

de to it, nevere fruyt come forth of thee  
a ende; and anon the fige-tree was  
disciplis sighen wondriden and seiden,  
*driede.* *Wiclif. Matt. xxi.*

rable men are famished, and their mul-  
with thirst. *Isaiah v. 13.*

pass, she parts the floods in tway;  
mountains from their native seat  
mand themselves to bear away.

*Faerie Queene.*  
ll drain him dry as hay;  
hall neither night nor day  
pon his penthouse lid:  
ll live a man forbid.

*Shakespeare. Mucheth.*  
as well, if you were so contented.  
Kate, 't was burnt and dried away.

*Shakespeare.*  
If he filled  
ney with his voluptuousness,  
sits, and the dryness of his bones,  
im for't. *Id. Antony and Cleopatra.*  
ly is his nurse, or his drynurse, or his  
undry, his washer, and his wringer.

*Shakespeare.*  
h and a dry May portend a wholesome  
ere be a showering April between.

*Bacon.*  
lemen, the one was given to scoff, but  
al cheer in his house, the other would  
hat had been at his table, was there  
a dry blow given? *Id.*

ale, that boiling of daisy roots in milk,  
rtain are great driers, will make dogs  
*Id.*

ke, conscious to himself how dryly the  
used by his council, did strive to re-  
's affection. *Id. Henry VII.*

ld take care that our stile in writing be  
or empty, we should look again it be not

winding or wanton with far-fetched descriptions;  
either is a vice. *Ben Jonson.*

Their new flowers and sweetness do as much corrupt  
as others dryness and squalor, if they chuse not care-  
fully. *Id.*

It remaineth to treat concerning ornaments within  
or without the fabrick; a piece not so dry as the meer  
contemplation of proportions: and therefore I hope  
therein somewhat to refresh both the reader and my-  
self. *Wotton's Architecture.*

When they have flesh, yet they must stay a time  
ere they can have a full meal; unless they would eat  
their meat breadless, and their bread dry.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*  
I find that an evil fountain is not soon drawn dry.

*Bp. Taylor.*  
It may be, that by this dryness of spirit, God intends  
to make us the more fervent and resigned in our di-  
rect and solemn devotions, by the perceiving of our  
weakness. *Id.*

That the fire burns by heat, is an empty dry re-  
turn to the question, and leaves us still ignorant.

*Glancille.*  
When God said,  
Be gathered now, ye waters under heaven,  
Into one place, and let dry land appear!

*Milton.*  
Sight so deform what heart of rock could long  
Dryeyed behold? Adam could not, but wept. *Id.*

I rather hoped I should no more  
Hear from you o' th' gallanting score;  
For hard dry hastings used to prove  
The readiest remedies of love;  
Next a dry diet. *Hudibras.*

As Romulus a wolf did rear,  
So he was drynursed by a bear. *Id.*

The Africans are conceived to be peculiarly scorched  
and torrifed by the sun, by dryness of the soil, from  
want and defect of water.

*Broune's Vulgar Errors.*  
The ill effects of drinking are relieved by this plant,  
which is a great dryer and opener, especially by per-  
spiration. *Temple.*

It is a dry fable, with little or nothing in it.  
*L'Estrange.*

'Twas grief no more, or grief and rage were one  
Within her soul: at last 'twas rage alone;  
Which, burning upwards in succession, dries  
The tears that stood considering in her eyes.

*Dryden.*  
Has honour's fountain then sucked back the stream?  
He has: and hooting boys may dryshod pass,  
And gather pebbles from the naked ford. *Id.*

Wouldst thou to honour and preferments climb,  
Be bold in mischief, dare some mighty crime,  
Which dungeons, death, or banishment deserves;  
For virtue is but dryly praised, and starves.

*Id. Juvenal.*  
He had embarked us in such disadvantage, as we  
could not return dryshod. *Sidney.*

A palsy may as well shake an oak, or a fever dry  
up a fountain, as either of them shake, dry up, or  
impair the delight of conscience. *South.*

DRY-ROT, a term or name applied to a rapid  
decay of any vegetable matter, when it has the  
appearance of being tolerably dry, but, in ge-  
neral, is applied only to timber when in that  
state, and is so named in contradistinction to the  
common mode of decay, by being exposed to the  
alternate states of wet and dry. There are a  
great number of causes for this species of decay:  
some are quite simple, others are very compli-  
cated; yet, whatever may be the original cause,



simple or compound, the effects are the same, namely, to render the timber useless, by destroying its elasticity and toughness, rendering it insufficient to resist any considerable pressure, and indeed, for any of the useful purposes to which timber is applied. When timber is in a tolerably dry state, any means which will absorb or extract its oxygen from the other component parts, will leave it in the state commonly called dry-rotten. Moist, warm situations, with little or no current of air, are the most likely to generate this evil. The effluvia from timber in such a state of decay will rapidly carry its effects to the circumjacent timber, however dry it may appear; and any sort of timber will be, in a very little time, rendered quite useless. When timber is exposed to any considerable degree of moisture and heat, fungi of various shapes and texture, according to the species of timber, and other causes, will appear upon it; and although this fungous matter be really an effect of the dry-rot, yet it is as truly a cause of the same evil. There are no means of restoring rotten timber to a sound state, and the dry-rot can be cured, as it is called, by removing the decayed and affected parts, clearing away all the fungi, and destroying its vegetating principle, with which the hard materials, such as bricks or stone, may have been impregnated. For this purpose, a strong solution of iron, copper, or zinc, is used with advantage. This, with the admission of a large quantity of air, as in Mr. George's ventilation system, is very advantageous. Much also may be done by cutting timber in winter, and properly seasoning it, by steeping it in water for some time, and then thoroughly drying it before it is used in building. But the following is the most approved remedy:—let the timber, prior to its application, be immersed in a solution of corrosive sublimate: in the course of a week one load will be found to have absorbed five gallons of the solution. Let it then be removed, and shortly after it becomes fit for building.

**DRYADES**, or **DRYADS**, in the heathen mythology, a sort of deities, who, the ancients believed, inhabited groves and woods. They differed from the Hamadryades; these latter being attached to some particular tree, with which they were born, and with which they died; whereas the Dryads were goddesses of trees and woods in general. See **HAMADRYADES**.

**DRYANDER** (John), A.M. university of Lund, a Swedish naturalist, the pupil and friend of Linnæus, was born in 1748, near Gottenburgh, where his father was a clergyman. In consequence of the decease of his father, the care of his education devolved on a maternal uncle, Dr. Lars Montin, a member of the Stockholm Academy. This gentleman was also the intimate friend of Linnæus, and published under his presidency, an Inaugural Dissertation on the Genus *Splachnum*, reprinted in the *Amœnitates Academicæ*, vol. ii. 263. Young Dryander received his early education in the university of Gottenburgh; but removed to Lund, where he took his degree of Master of Arts, or Doctor of Philosophy, in 1776; he published on this occasion a dissertation, *Fungos Regno Vegetabili Vindicans*, asserting the vegetable nature of these

bodies. He was afterwards a student for a short time at Upsal, and tutor to a young Swedish nobleman. He first visited England with his countryman Dr. Solander, who introduced him to the acquaintance of Sir Joseph Banks; and on whose sudden death, in 1782, he succeeded to the place of librarian to Sir Joseph. Dr. Dryander was also librarian to the Royal and the Linnæan Societies. Of the latter institution he was indeed one of the first founders, and drew up its laws and regulations, when in 1802 the society was incorporated by royal charter. He continued an able and active vice-president of the society until his death, which took place towards the end of October, 1810, in the thirty-third year of his age. The publications of Dr. Dryander on the subject of botany are very valuable, and consist of, 1. An Account of the Genus *Albica*, in the Stockholm Transactions for 1784, in Swedish. 2. Observations on the Genus *Begonia*, in the Transactions of the Linnæan Society, vol. i. 3. On Genus of Species of Plants which occur twice or sometimes in Professor Gmelin's edition of Linnæi *Systema Naturæ*; Trans. of Linn. Soc. v. 4. 4. Lindsee, a New Genus of Ferns; Trans. of Linn. Soc. v. iii. 5. A Botanical Description of the Benjamin Tree of Sumatra, Phil. Trans. v. lxxvii. He also superintended and assisted in the publication of Mr. Aiton's *Hortus Kewensis*, and Dr. Roxburgh's *Plants of the Coast of Coromandel*. But his *Catalogus Bibliothecæ Historico-Naturalis Josephi Banks*, 5 vols. fol. is his most celebrated work, and a model for all future bibliographers.

**DRYANDRA**, in botany, a genus of plants of the class diccia, order monadelphia: two-leaved; petals five; stamens nine: three or four grained: SEEDS solitary. Species one only; a dwarf tree of Japan.

**DRYAS**, in botany, a genus of the polygala order, and icosandria class of plants; natural order thirty-fifth, senticosæ: CAL. obovate; petals eight: SEEDS long and hairy with a trace. Species, one only; a native of Denmark, and sometimes found on our own mountains.

**DRYRURGH ABBEY**. This place was dedicated to religious institutions so anciently as the year 522, when Modan, a presbyter and missionary was there seated; as appears by records cited in Chalmers de Statu Hiberniæ, veteris simul ac novæ Ecclesiæ, b. i. p. 147; and King, in his *Kalendar. Breviar. Aberdeen*. There is no doubt that the Roman station of *Transitum* was at the foot of the Eildon hills, in the district, about three miles distant from Dryburgh; as appears from the *Antonine Itinerary*, and from General Roy's Survey and Map of Roman Scotland. Many coins of Vespasian, Domitian, and Trajan, are found in this neighbourhood; and a considerable part of the Roman road is still in good preservation, passing through the parishes of Ancrum, Lallies-leaf, and Monton. In the abbey of Dryburgh, Chaucer, the English poet, passed some time with his friend Ralph Strode, a Welshman, a monk and scholar here, to whom Chaucer dedicates or alludes some of his verses. At the Reformation, the abbey lands were erected into a temporal barony.



mes VI. in favor of John, earl of Marr, and lord high treasurer of Scotland; who gave to Henry his third son, from whom the descent to the present earl of Buchan, ought the abbey lately from the heirs of Tod, and has made it his principal residence. It was here that James Thomson composed his beautiful poem of Winter, the first of the *Seasons*; having occasionally resided at the Haliburtons of Newmains, who were proprietors of the place. Thomas Hannah, an ironmaster, was born here, in a house built on a part of the abbey, in 1662; and Allan Ramsay composed an epitaph for his tomb in the church-yard, which is still extant. The remains of Sir Walter Scott are deposited here.

DRYDEN (John), one of the most eminent English poets of the seventeenth century, descended of a respectable family in Huntingdonshire, was born at Aldwinkle 1631, and educated at Westminster school under Dr. Busby. Thence he removed to Cambridge in 1650, being a scholar of Trinity College, of which he was, by his *Epithalamia Cantabrigiensi*, 4to, to have been afterwards a fellow. On the death of Oliver Cromwell he wrote some heroic poems to his memory; but on the Restoration, desirous of ingratiating himself with the court, he wrote first a poem entitled *Astræa*, and afterwards a panegyric on the king. On the 1st January, 1662, he addressed a poem to the chancellor Hyde; and published in the same year a satire on the Dutch. In 1668 appeared his *Mirabilis*, an historical poem in celebration of the duke of York's victory over the Dutch. These pieces at length obtained him the favor of the crown; and Sir William Davenant appointed him as poet laureat. In 1669 he produced the *Wild Gallants*, his first comedy. This was a very indifferent success; yet the author, encouraged by its failure, soon after published his *Indian Emperor*. Other pieces now followed with such rapidity, that in the key to the duke of Buckingham's *Rehearsal* he is reported to have engaged himself by contract, to write four plays per year; and in the years 1679 and 1680, he appears to have fulfilled it. To Dryden are attributed those irregularities, bombast, and even puerile exuberances, for which he has been so severely criticised. In the earl of Rochester, who was chagrined at the applause with which Dryden's dramas had been received, was determined if he could shake his interest at court; and he succeeded so far as to recommend a Mr. Crowne, a man of obscure reputation, to write a play in an honor which certainly belonged to Dryden's office. The duke of Buckingham also severely ridiculed several of our author's plays at this time, in his admired *Rehearsal*. Dryden, however, did not suffer these attacks to deter him from his impunity; for in 1679 there came out a satire on Dryden, said to be written jointly by the earl of Mulgrave, and the duchess of Portsmouth; and in 1680 he published his *Absalom and Achitophel*, in which the well-known character of

Zimri, drawn for the duke of Buckingham, is certainly severe enough to repay all the ridicule of that nobleman. The resentment shown by the two peers was very different. Lord Rochester, who was a coward, as well as a man of the most depraved morals, basely hired three ruffians to cudgel Dryden in a coffee-house; but the duke of Buckingham took the task upon himself; and at the same time presented him with a purse containing a large sum of money; telling him that he gave him the beating as a punishment for his impudence, but bestowed that gold on him as a reward for his wit. In 1682 Dryden published his *Religio Laici*, designed as a defence of revealed religion against Deists, Papists, &c. Soon after the accession of James II. he went over to the church of Rome, and wrote two pieces in vindication of the Romish tenets: viz. A defence of the *Papers* written by the late king, found in his strong box; and the celebrated poem, afterwards answered by lord Halifax, entitled, *The Hind and the Panther*. By this extraordinary step he not only engaged himself in controversy, and incurred much censure and ridicule from his contemporary wits: but on the completion of the Revolution, being, on account of his newly-chosen religion, disqualified from bearing any office under the government, he was stripped of the laurel, which, to his still greater mortification, was bestowed on Richard Flecknoe, a man to whom he had a most settled aversion. This circumstance occasioned his writing the very severe poem called *Mac-Flecknoe*. Mr. Dryden's circumstances had never been affluent; but now, being deprived of this little support, he found himself reduced to the necessity of writing for bread. From this period, therefore, he was engaged in works of labor as well as genius, translating the works of others, &c.; and to this necessity we stand indebted for some of our best translations. In the year 1690 he lost the laurel, he published the life of St. Francis Xavier from the French. In 1693 came out his *Juvenal* and *Persius*. In 1695 his prose version of *Fresnoy's Art of Painting*; and in the year 1697 a translation of *Virgil's* entire work, which still stands foremost among the translations of that author. The minor pieces of this eminent writer, viz. his prologues, epilogues, epitaphs, elegies, songs, &c. are too numerous to specify here, but may all be found in the elegant editions of this poet by Sir Walter Scott, Malone, and Dr. Warton. His last work is his *Fables*, which consist of many of the most interesting stories in Homer, Ovid, Boccaccio, and Chaucer, translated or modernised in the most elegant manner; together with some original pieces, among which is the celebrated ode on St. Cecilia's day. Dryden married the lady Elizabeth Howard, sister to the earl of Berkshire, who survived him eight years. By this lady he had three sons, Charles, John, and Henry. Of the eldest there is a circumstance related by Charles Wilson, esq. in his *Life of Congreve*, which seems so well attested, and is itself of so very extraordinary a nature that we cannot avoid giving it a place here. Dryden, with all his understanding, was weak enough to be fond of judicial astrology, and used to calculate the nativity of his children. Of



casting that of Charles he found, according to the rules by which he calculated, that his eighth, twenty-third, and thirty-third years were of peculiar omen. In his eighth year, notwithstanding his father's precautions, he went out on his birth-day to see a stag hunted, and the animal flung down on him a wall ten feet in length which was nearly fatal to him. In his twenty-third year he fell from the top of a tower in the Vatican, and never fully recovered his health; and in his thirty-third year he was drowned in swimming across the Thames near Windsor.

Dryden died May 1701, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. The day after his death, the dean of Westminster sent a message to his widow, that he would make a present to her of the ground and all other abbey-fees for the funeral; lord Halifax likewise sent to lady Elizabeth, and to Mr. Charles Dryden, offering to defray the expenses of our poet's funeral, and afterwards to bestow £500 on a monument in the abbey. Accordingly, on Sunday following, the company being assembled, the corpse was put into a hearse and attended by eighteen mourning coaches. When they were just ready to move, lord Jefferys, son of lord chancellor Jefferys, a name dedicated to infamy, riding by with some of his companions, asked whose funeral it was; and being told it was Mr. Dryden's, he protested he should not be buried in that private manner; that he would himself, with lady Elizabeth's leave, have the honor of the interment, and bestow £1000 on a monument in the abbey for him. This put a stop to the procession; and lord Jefferys, with several of the gentlemen who had alighted from their coaches, went up stairs to the lady, who was sick in bed. His lordship repeated the purport of what he had said below; but lady Elizabeth refusing her consent, he fell on his knees, vowing never to rise till his request was granted. The lady under a sudden surprise fainted away; and lord Jefferys, pretending to have obtained her consent, ordered the body to be carried to Mr. Russel's an undertaker in Cheapside, and to be left there till further orders. In the mean time the abbey was lighted up, the ground opened, the choir attending, and the bishop of Rochester waiting some hours to no purpose for the corpse. The next day Mr. Charles Dryden waited on lord Halifax and the bishop, and endeavoured to excuse his mother by relating the truth. Three days after, the undertaker having received no orders, waited on lord Jefferys; who pretended that it was a drunken frolic, that he remembered nothing of the matter, and he might do what he pleased with the body. Upon this the undertaker waited upon lady Elizabeth, who desired a day's respite, which was granted. Mr. Charles Dryden immediately wrote to lord Jefferys, who returned for answer, that he knew nothing of the matter, and would be troubled no more about it. Mr. Dryden hereupon applied again to lord Halifax and the bishop of Rochester, who absolutely refused to do any thing in the affair. In this distress, Dr. Garth, who had been Mr. Dryden's intimate friend, sent for the corpse to the college of physicians, and proposed a subscription; which succeeding, about three weeks after Mr. Dryden's decease,

Dr. Garth pronounced a fine Latin oration over the body, which was conveyed from the college, attended by a numerous train of coaches to Westminster Abbey, but in great disorder. It was interred in a private manner. After the funeral Charles Dryden sent a challenge to lord Jefferys, and repeatedly sought admittance to him to provoke a duel, or to chastise him for his above barbarous indignity, in vain. Dryden had no monument erected to him for several years, to which Mr. Pope alludes in his epitaph intended for Mr. Rowe, in this line,

Beneath a rude and nameless stone he lies.

In a note upon which we are informed, that the tomb of Mr. Dryden was erected upon this hill by Sheffield, duke of Buckingham, to which was originally intended this epitaph:

This Sheffield raised.—The sacred dust below  
Was Dryden once; the rest, who does not know!

Which was afterwards changed into the plain inscription now upon it, viz.

J. DRYDEN,  
Natus Aug. 9, 1631.  
Mortuus Martii 1, 1701.

Johannes Sheffield, dux Buckinghamiensis, fecit.

Were we to form a judgment of this celebrated writer from some of his dramatic writings, we should be apt to conclude him a man of the most licentious morals; many of his comedies containing gross obscenity. But Congreve, whose authority cannot be suspected, has depicted him as no less amiable in his private character as a man, than he was illustrious in his public one as a poet. He was, according to this authority, humane, compassionate, forgiving, friendly; gentle in the correction of the wrongs of other authors, and patient under the censure of his own; easy of access himself, but slow and diffident in his advances to others; and of all men the most modest, and the most easy to be discountenanced in his approaches to his superiors or his equals. As to his writings, he has been thought to have attained the greatest general harmony in his numbers, of any of our poets.

DRYPIS, in botany, a genus of the tripetal order, and pentandria class of plants; natural order twenty-second, caryophyllæ; cal. quadridentate; petals five; the opening of the capsule as if cut round horizontally, monoporous. Species one only, a native of Barbary and Italy.

DRYSDALE (John), D. D., a late eminent clergyman of the church of Scotland, was born at Kirkcaldy, April 29th 1718. He soon distinguished himself as a classical scholar, and, in 1732, was sent to finish his studies at the university of Edinburgh. In 1740 he was licensed to preach by the presbytery of Kirkcaldy; and, after having been several years employed as assistant minister of the college church at Edinburgh, was settled at Kirkcaldy in 1748. After remaining fifteen years in this town, he obtained a presentation to Lady Yester's church, from the town council of Edinburgh. This having been the last



The magistrates of Edinburgh had exercised right of presentation, a most formidable position was now made to his settlement. The action however, which was more against the man than the man, being at last overcome, he was settled as minister of Lady Yester's. In the Marischal College of Aberdeen conferred on him the degree of D. D. In 1766, on the death of Dr. Jardine, he was translated to the church, where he became colleague to Wishart; and was also appointed one of the chaplains, with one-third of the emolument of the deanery of the chapel royal. In 1773 he was unanimously elected moderator of the General Assembly; 'the greatest mark of respect,' says Professor Dalziel, 'which an ecclesiastical commonwealth can bestow;' and in 1784 he was raised to the same dignity, by a great majority.

In May, 1788, he appeared in his place at the meeting of the Assembly, and acted as legal clerk the first day; but was obliged to the assistance of professor Dalziel during the ensuing days; and, being violently attacked with a cough, became gradually weaker, till he died on the 16th June following, aged seventy. Dr. Dalziel's sermons have been published since his death, and are esteemed a valuable addition to the public stock of instruction.

**EDSJAL**, a sect of Mahomedan Arabs, inhabiting Mecran, a maritime province of Persia. 'Its first author,' says Mr. Niebuhr, 'was a venerable old man, who was found by wood-cutters shut up in the middle of a desert and having a book in his hand.' This mysterious origin he was informed of at Mazanderan; 'each sect,' he adds, 'tells ridiculous stories of the others, to bring them into contempt.'

**MOBLA**, an ancient city of Arabia, in the province of Yemen; the capital of a district and seat of a Dola; seated on the brink of a precipice, and containing about 600 houses, of considerable height and of good appearance. Its streets are paved.

**DUAL**, *adj.* Lat. *dualis*, from *duo*; Gr. *δύω*; Lat. *duo*. Expressing two.

Modern languages have only one variation, and so Latin; but the Greek and Hebrew have one to signify two, and another to signify more than two, and one variation the noun is said to be of the *dual* number, and under the other of the plural.

Clarke's Latin Grammar

**DUB**, *v. a. & n. s.* Goth. *dubba*; Sax. *dub*; Fr. *adoubier*. The Northern words mean to make, and have been thought to allude to the mode of making a knight by a slight blow with a sword. To make a knight. To confer any kind of dignity or honor. Butler uses it as a substantive for a blow.

Knight, knight, good mother! Basilisco like,

that I am *dubbed*; I have it on my shoulder.

Shakespeare.

He

thence no instance why thou shouldst do treason, to *dub* thee with the name of traitor.

Id.

The jealous o'erworn widow and herself, or that our brother *dubbed* them gentlewomen, or mighty gossips in this monarchy.

Id. Richard III.

The robes which the kings then allowed to each knight, when he was *dubbed*, of green, or barmet, as they spake in that age, appeareth upon record.

Camden's Remains.

The king stood up under his cloth of state, took the sword from the lord protector, and *dubbed* the lord mayor of London knight. Hayward on Edward VI.

As skilful coopers hoop their tubs

With Lydian and with Phrygian *dubs*. Hudibras.

O poet! thou hadst been discreeter,

Hanging the monarch's hat so high,

If thou hadst *dubbed* thy star a meteor,

That did but blaze, and rove, and die. Prior.

These demoniacs let me *dub*

With the name of legion club. Swift.

A man of wealth is *dubbed* a man of worth;

Venus shall give him form, and Anstis birth.

Pope.

Women commence by Cupid's dart,

As a king hunting *dubs* a hart. Cleaveland.

A plain gentleman, of an ancient family, is of better quality than a new knight, though the reason of his *dubbing* was meritorious. Collier on Pride.

I have on the seat behind me the constitution of Mr. John Probert; a knight-errant, *dubbed* by the noble lord in the blue ribbon, and sent to search for revenues and adventures upon the mountains of Wales.

Burke.

**DUBIOUS**, *adj.*

**DUBIOUSLY**, *n. s.*

**DUBIOUSLY**, *adv.*

**DUBIOUSNESS**, *n. s.*

**DUBITABLE**, *adj.*

**DUBITATION**, *n. s.*

Lat. *dubius*; anciently *dubius*, from *duo*, two, and *via*, a way; drawn two ways; in doubt. Doubtful; uncertain in argument or event; not plain. *Dubitable* is also doubtful, or that may be doubted.

*Dubitation* may be called a negative perception; that is, when I perceive that what I see is not what I would see. Greu.

Men often swallow falsities for truths, *dubiousness* for certainties, feasibilitys for possibilities, and things impossible for possible. Broune's Vulgar Errors.

Authors write often *dubiously*, even in matters wherein is expected a strict definitive truth. Id.

Many of the ancients denied the antipodes; but the experience of our enlarged navigation can now assert them beyond all *dubitation*. Id.

No quick reply to *dubious* questions make.

Denham.

His utmost power with adverse power opposed,

In *dubious* battle, on the plains of heaven. Milton.

Satan with less toil, and now with ease

Wafts on the calmer wave, by *dubious* light. Id.

Yet where truth and knowledge are concerned in the case, I know not what fault it can be to desire the explication of words, whose sense seems *dubious*.

Locke.

She speaks with *dubiousness*, not with the certainty of a goddess. Broome.

Almanack-makers wander in generals, and talk *dubiously*, and leave to the reader the business of interpreting. Swift.

It is a common and just observation, that, when the meaning of any thing is *dubious*, one can no way better judge of the true intent of it, than by considering who is the author, what is his character in general, and his disposition in particular. Pope.

We also call it a *dubious* or doubtful proposition, when there are no arguments on either side.

Watts's Logick.

Now hope exalts the fisher's beating heart;

Now he turns pale, and fears his *dubious* art. Gay.



When a question of orthography is *dubious*, that practice has, in my opinion, a claim to preference, which preserves the greatest number of radical letters, or seems most to comply with the general custom of our language. *Johnson. Plan of Dictionary.*

In clay-formed beds the trickling streams collect, Strain through white sands, through pebbly veins direct;

Or point in rifted rocks their *dubious* way,  
And in each bubbling fountain rise to day. *Darwin.*

Where Reason's meteor-rays, with sickly glow,  
O'er the dun gloom a dreadful glimmering throw;  
Disclosing *dubious* to the' affrighted eye  
O'erwhelming mountains tottering from on high,  
Black billowy deeps in storms perpetual tossed,  
And weary ways in wildering labyrinths lost. *Beattie.*

You'll find there are such shortlives,  
By its rich harvests, new disease, and gold;  
From one-half of the world named a whole new one,  
Because you know no better than the dull  
And *dubious* notice of your eyes and ears. *Byron.*

DUBITZA, a town and fortress in Bosnia, European Turkey, situated on the right bank of the Unna, near its confluence with the Save; and opposite a fortified Austrian town of the same name in Croatia. The Austrians, in the campaign of 1788, twice attempted to take it by storm, and it at last surrendered; but, at the peace of Sistov, it was restored to the Porte. Population 6000. Twelve miles north-east of Kostainitza: the Austrian town has about 1600 inhabitants.

DUBLIN COUNTY, the metropolitan county of Ireland, lies on the east coast of that country, immediately opposed to the Welsh coast: it is between  $53^{\circ} 10'$  and  $53^{\circ} 37'$  N. lat., and  $6^{\circ} 36'$  W. long. from Greenwich. The boundaries are, on the north the county of Meath, on the west parts of Kildare and Meath counties, on the south the county of Wicklow, and on the east the Irish sea. Its sea-front is terminated by the Nanny Water on the north, and by Bray River on the south.

This county contains 240,113 statute acres: seventy-three parishes and fourteen parts of parishes, with 693 townlands; and is divided into eight baronies and one half barony. The surface of that part north of the river Liffey is flat and badly supplied with water, on which account it is less inhabited by gentry but more applied to agriculture: the surface of the southern side is a beautiful inclined plane, ascending gradually from the sea-shore to the foot of the Dublin and Wicklow Mountains. The soil in this part is lighter than the rich loam in the northern baronies, but this disadvantage is not felt, as from the natural beauty of the country south of the Liffey it is almost wholly appropriated to the demesnes of the gentry of Dublin and to marine villas for the summer season.

The entire county may be considered as naturally divided into two parts, by a line drawn from the village of Newcastle to Rathfarnham, where it will form a very obtuse angle with its new direction, which may be represented by a line drawn from Rathfarnham to Booterstown, where the limestone crops out on the strand: all north of this line rests on a base of floetz limestone, except one patch extending from Skerries to Balbriggan, which rests on transition rocks. Fuel

is scarce in the centre of the county, although there are coals at Naul and an extensive field at Gapistown, but the coal vein is not worked. The northern baronies are still in a very wild and uncultivated state, although much benefited by the new Drogheda road by Ashbourne: a place hitherto almost unknown. The tract between the great western road near Rathcoole, and the Blessington road, with the Golden Hill and Ballinscorney, rests on slaty rock. The remainder of the county, with little exception, is of granite formation; the field of granite commencing at Williamstown strand and extending to Brandon Hill in the county of Kilkenny, having an average breadth, in that distance, of eleven miles.

There are few good harbours on the coast of this county; piers have been constructed at Balbriggan, at Howth, &c., and an extensive regular harbour at Kingstown, enclosing 226 acres between two piers of several kants, having a depth of twenty-six feet at low water. The Holyhead and Liverpool mail packets sail from this system, and it is in contemplation to connect it with the Ringsend docks by a ship canal, or else to convey merchandise hence to the city of Dublin by a rail-way: the distance is about six miles and a half. It was here that his majesty George III. embarked in 1821, and a handsome obelisk, bearing an appropriate inscription, is erected on the spot, to commemorate the event. Kingstown harbour is too large, and the pier should have been faced with cut stone down to the foundation.

DUBLIN, the metropolis of Ireland, the second city in his majesty's dominions, is situated in the province of Leinster, and county of Dublin. The river Liffey, which falls into Dublin Bay, immediately below the custom-house, divides the city into two nearly equal parts. Dublin is seventy-two miles west of Holyhead in Wales, 303 south-west of Edinburgh, and 420 south-west of London. Long.  $6^{\circ} 6'$  W., lat.  $53^{\circ} 28' N.$

Dublin is a place of great antiquity; it was anciently confined to the south side of the Liffey. In the tenth century, after the fortifications of Dublin were repaired by the Ostmen, the walls of the city, including those of the castle, did not occupy more than an Irish mile; they extended from Wine-Tavern gate to Andrew's Arch, and were continued thence to Newgate, now Thomas-street; they were continued to Ormond's-gate, or, as it has been since called, Wormwood-gate; thence to the Whitcomb-bridge, and along the banks of the river to Newman's Tower, nearly the present site of the south entrance of Essex-bridge; and, from Newman's Tower, in an oblique direction, to Dame's-gate, at the west end of Dame's-street. From the gate at the south-west angle of the castle, the wall ran to Nicholas-gate, and was continued thence to Newgate. The principal streets without the walls were, on the west, New-row, Francis-street, Thomas-street, and James's street; on the south, Patrick-street, Ballsbridge, and Ship-street; and on the east, Dame's-street, George's-lane, and Stephen-street. This part of ground now occupied by Crane-lane, Temple-bar, Fleet-street, Lazar's-hill, &c., as it is now



ed, Townsend-street, Crampton, Aston's, &c., then overflowed by the Liffey. On the side of the river there were only Church-st, Mary's-lane, Hammond-lane, and Pill, then built but on one side as far as Mary's, which terminated the extent of that part of the town to the east. Grange-gorman, Stoney, now called Manor-street, and Glassman, were then villages at some distance from the city; and, at the latter, the sheriffs have held courts in times of the plague. In 1664 the inhabitants amounted to 2565 men, and 2986 women, Protestants; and 1252 men, and 1406 women, Roman Catholics: in all 8159.

Ptolemy, who flourished about A.D. 140, it was anciently called *Aschled*. In 1550, whose daughter, Auliana, was drowned in the Liffey, changed the name from *Aschled* to *Auliana*. It was afterwards named *Dublana*, Ptolemy calls it *Eblana*. *Dublana*, whence *Linum* and *Dublin*, is evidently derived from *leanna*, the place of the black harbour, or rather the lake of the sea; the Bay of *Lin* being frequently so called. The city had a variety of names. The Irish call it *in-choll-coil*, 'the brow of a hazel wood.' In Eogan, king of Munster, being on a royal paid a visit to this place, which was then called *Atha Cliath Dubh-Line*, 'the passage of lord of hurdles over the black pool.' The name of *Dublin* was likewise known by the name of *Lean-Cliath*, or *Leam-Cliath*, from *leam*, a harbour; and from *Cliath* or *bb*, which literally signifies a hurdle or any made of wicker-work; it also signified in wires formed with hurdles, and placed in nets and bays by the ancient Irish, for the purpose of taking fish; whence any river or wherein these wires were fixed, had the name of *Cliath* or *Cliabb* annexed to it, to signify establishment of a fishery. *Dublin*, therefore, originally built on or near one of these bays, was anciently called *Baly-lean-Cliath*; *is*, the town on the fishing harbour. It is distinguished in the Irish language by the appellations of *Ath-Cliath*, 'the ford of hurdles,' *Ballyath-Cliath*, 'the town of the ford of hurdles,' the inhabitants having formerly had access to the city, over the river, by hurdles laid on low marshy grounds adjoining the water; this name was also extended to the north side of the river, from a temporary bridge of hurdles thrown over the *Anna-Liffey*, a corruption of *Auin Louiffa*, or the swift river, so termed from the rapidity of the mountain floods. The south side was enlarged by *Mac-Turkill*, the first prince; who, notwithstanding, fixed his residence on the south side, and abandoned the northern town; which, from the original name of the invaders, was called *Eastmantown*, *Ostmentown*, since corrupted to *Oxman*.

King Edgar, in the preface to his law, dated 964, mentions Ireland, with its noble city (*nobilissima civitas*) of *Dublin*. The *Fingalians*, it is called *Divelin*, and by the *Nelsh Dinas Dulin*, or the city of *Dulin*.

Christianity by *St. Patrick*. In 498 the *Ostmen*, or *Danes*, having entered the *Liffey*, with a fleet of sixty sail, made themselves masters of *Dublin* and the adjacent country, and soon after environed the city with walls. About 1170 *Dermot M'Murrough*, king of *Leinster*, having quarrelled with the other princes of the kingdom, a confederacy was formed against him by *Roderic O'Connor*, monarch of *Ireland*. *Dermot* applied to *Henry II.*, king of *England*, who sent over a number of English adventurers, by whose assistance he was reinstated in his dominions; in 1171 the descendants of the *Danes* still continuing to hold possession of *Dublin*, it was besieged and taken by a powerful party of the English, under *Raymond-Le-Gros*. *M'Turkill*, the Danish king, escaped to his shipping; but returned soon after, with a strong fleet, to recover the city; he was killed in the attempt, and in him ended the race of *Easterling* princes in *Ireland*. In 1172 *Henry II.* landed at *Waterford*, and obtained from *Richard*, earl *Strongbow*, who married *Eva*, the daughter of *M'Murrough*, and by compact was his successor, a surrender of the city of *Dublin*; where he built a pavilion of wicker-work near *St. Andrew's* church, then situated where *Castlemarket* lately stood, and there entertained several Irish princes, who voluntarily submitted to him, on condition of being governed by the same laws as the people of *England*. *Henry* also held a parliament here. In 1173 he granted his first charter to *Dublin*, and by divers privileges encouraged a colony from *Bristol* to settle in it. In 1210 upwards of twenty Irish princes swore allegiance to king *John* at *Dublin*; engaging to establish the English laws and customs in the kingdom; and in the same year courts of judicature were instituted. In 1216 *Magna Charta* was granted to the Irish by *Henry III.*, an entry of which was made in the red book of the exchequer at *Dublin*. In 1217 the city was granted to the citizens, in fee-farm, at 209 marks per annum; and, in 1227 *Henry* ordained, that the charter granted by king *John* should be kept inviolably. In 1404 the statutes of *Kilkenny* and *Dublin* were confirmed in a parliament, held at the city, under the earl of *Ormond*. The charter of the city of *Dublin* was renewed in 1609 by *James I.* The civil government of the city was anciently under the management of a provost and bailiffs; in 1308 *John le Deceer* was appointed the first provost, *Richard de St. Olave* and *John Stakebold* bailiffs. In 1409 the title of the chief magistrate was changed to that of mayor, when *Thomas Cussac* was appointed to the office, *Richard Bove* and *Thomas Shortall* being bailiffs; the office of bailiffs was changed to sheriffs in 1547. In 1660 *Charles II.* gave a collar of SS. and a company of foot-guards to the mayor; and in 1665 he conferred the title of lord mayor on the chief magistrate, to whom he also granted £500 per annum, in lieu of the foot company. Sir *Daniel Bellingham* was the first lord mayor of *Dublin*; *Charles Lovet* and *John Quelsh* were sheriffs the same year. In 1672 *Arthur*, earl of *Essex*, introduced new rules for the better government of the city; and in 1693 the old *Tholsel* was built by *Inigo*



Jones, for the magistrates to hold their courts, assemblies, &c.

The hospital for lying-in women, founded by Dr. Bartholomew Mosse, and opened in 1757, stands on the north side of Great Britain-street. The building, designed by Cassels, is light and elegant; a beautiful steeple rises in the centre, and the wings are formed by semicircular colonnades on each side. Adjoining the east colonnade is the rotunda, where balls and assemblies are held, and concerts performed for the benefit of the charity. The blue-coat hospital was founded on the west side of Queen-street, by Charles II., in 1670, for educating the children of reduced freemen of the city; but the original building being greatly decayed, was taken down, and the new blue-coat hospital, situated on Oxmantown-green, was begun in 1773. The front is enriched by four three-quarter Ionic columns, supporting a pediment in the centre, over which the steeple rises, embellished with Corinthian and composite columns in an admired taste. Connected with the front by circular walls, ornamented with balustrades and niches, are the school on one side and the church on the other, which form two well-proportioned wings, each crowned with a small turret; the steeple is not yet finished. The royal hospital at Kilmainham, for the support of invalids of the Irish army, was founded by king Charles II., on a plan similar to that of Chelsea. It was completed in 1683, and cost upwards of £23,500. It is situated at the west end of the town, on a rising ground, near the south side of the river, from whence there is an easy ascent to it through a handsome avenue and park. It is of a quadrangular form, enclosing a spacious area, laid out in grass-plots and gravelled walks; an arcade is carried along the lower story in each square, to the entrance of the hall and chapel, which are both curiously decorated; in the former are several whole length portraits of royal personages, and other distinguished characters. Madam Steven's hospital, the foundation of which was laid in 1720, is a quadrangular building, pleasantly situated on the banks of the river, near the west end of James's-street; the hospital for lunatics, in Bow-lane, founded by Dean Swift, and opened in 1757; Sir Patrick Dun's hospital, in which the royal college of physicians hold their meetings and examinations; the Cork-street fever hospital; the new Meath hospital, built by Mr. Pleasants; Mercer's hospital, in Johnson's-place, founded by the amiable Mrs. Mercer; Simpson's hospital, in Great Britain-street, an asylum for blind and gouty men; the house of industry, in Brunswick-street, for the aged and infirm; the hospital for incurables, on the Donnybrook-road; and the charitable infirmary, Jervis-street, are the most conspicuous in alleviating the afflictions of disease, and ministering to the numerous calls of the impoverished. There are several noble institutions also, that derive aid, either wholly, or in part, from parliament; such are the Hibernian school, in Phoenix park for the education of the children of soldiers, and the Royal Marine school, for the maintenance and education of the children of distressed sailors.

Dublin is seated in view of the sea on the east, and a fine country which swells into gently rising eminences on the north and west, while it towers boldly up in lofty mountains, that bound the horizon, on the south. The city itself cannot be seen to full advantage on entering the harbour; but its approach to it exhibits a fine prospect of the country for improvement and cultivation, interspersed with numerous villas, that enliven the delightful scene, which, beginning at the water's edge, is continued all over the coast to the mouth of the bay, as far as the eye can reach, and is finely contrasted by a distant view of the Wicklow mountains on the south, where the conical hills, called the Sugar Loaves, contribute not a little, by the singularity of their appearance, to embellish the landscape, so extensive and picturesque as not on be equalled by any natural scenery in Europe, except the entrance of the Bay of Naples, to which it bears a striking resemblance.

The form of Dublin is rectangular. From the royal hospital at Kilmainham, at the western extremity of the town, to the east end of Townsend-street, the length is two miles and a half, and its greatest breadth two, and it is about ten miles in circumference. It contains about 16,000 houses, whose inhabitants are estimated at 180,000.

The civil government of Dublin is exercised by a lord mayor, recorder, two sheriffs, twenty-four aldermen, and a common-council composed of representatives from the twenty-five parishes of Dublin, being the seat of government, and of the chief courts of justice, has received many charters and ample privileges from the kings of England, since the reign of Henry II. Richard II. erected it into a marquissate in favor of Robert de Vere, earl of Oxford, whom he created duke of Ireland. It is an archiepiscopal see, and sends two members to parliament.

Dublin is remarkable for the breadth and elegance of its leading streets; from the Custom-house bridge, in Baggot-street, along the north side of Stephen's-green, or by Merrion-square into College-street and College-green, thence through Westmoreland-street, Sackville-street, Rutland-square, Gardiner's-row, and so to Mount-squre, is probably the most elegant succession of city avenues to be seen in any European capital; but the back streets are a melancholy contrast, very few of them presenting the appearance either of wealth or comfort. There are five handsome squares in the city, the largest of which, called Stephen's-green, is one mile in circumference, enclosed by iron-railing, mounted on a dwarf wall, outside of which is a broad gravel-walk, protected from the carriage-way by chains and pillars. In the centre of this park level space, stands a fine equestrian statue of Van Nott, of king George II. Merrion-square is a large rectangle, surrounded by noble mansions; those on the north side erected in the basement story, by rustic work in stone; these were built from the designs of John Edwards, who laid out this fine square. Rutland-square is the Grosvenor-square of Dublin; a few of the Irish nobility still remain fixtured here, the noblest of which is Chester-



Considerable improvements are still going on in the avenues of Dublin, under the sanction of the Wide-street commissioners, particularly in the vicinity of St. Patrick's cathedral, formerly the most miserable part of the city or suburbs.

Dublin is divided into four districts, each submitted to the care and protection of a police magistrate, who have an office and court within their respective districts. The head office of the police is in the Castle division; to this belong the peace-officers, and to each of the other,

Police stations are established at convenient distances round the city, and a patrol of police is in constant motion during the part of each night, even to a distance of miles from the city. The old archiepiscopal palace has been converted into the headquarters of the police corps.

The public buildings of Dublin are both numerous and noble: the most architectural is the House of Ireland (formerly the Parliament House) the foundation of which was laid in 1729; it was erected under the instruction of Sir Edward Pearce, after a design by Mr. Cassels. The original building consisted of a grand colonnade in the Ionic order, forming three sides of a square court-yard. The central colonnade was decorated with the two noble porticos, forming the east and west fronts, by circular curtain walls, ornamented with three-quarter columns. These porticos are built from the designs of Messrs. Gandon and Parke. No part of the edifice remains as formerly, except the corridors of the House of Lords, in the last of which is a statue of George III. by Bacon jun. The office stands on the site of the old House of Commons, and is a very spacious, light and airy apartment. The establishment for engraving and printing of bank notes, under the sanction of Mr. Oldham, exhibits a singular specimen of ingenious mechanism; it was visited by the present Majesty during his stay in Ireland in 1811. The General Post Office, established in 1791, stands in Sackville Street at the intersection of four leading streets and adjacent to Nelson's Pillar. The portico in front, of Portland stone, is a remarkably beautiful piece of architecture: the ornaments of the frieze are not copied by any similar designs in the city. This large and convenient building was raised at a comparatively moderate sum of £50,000 at the design of Francis Johnston Esq. The Post Office, in William Street, is also a fine building of cut granite stone raised in the Wick mountains.

Castle of Dublin, now the town residence of the lord-lieutenants who formerly lodged at the Hospital of Kilmainham, may be considered as divided into two parts, called the upper and lower yards. The upper is a quadrangle of buildings, with ornamental stone arches to the windows; the entrance to his excellency's apartments is by a fine colonnade, antecedent grand flight of steps; opposite to the entrance is a handsome building, containing the apartments of the guard of honor and of the household; the basement is an open colonnade surmounted

by a pediment, above which rises an octagonal tower crowned by a tapering dome. This pretty building is terminated as wings, by two lofty archways of rustic-work, on the crowns of which rest statues of Justice and Fortitude. The Castle was built by Henry de Londres, archbishop of Dublin in 1220, but not used as the vice-regal residence until the year 1560, by command of queen Elizabeth, since which time it has received so many additions that it does not present the appearance of any regular edifice, but an assemblage of irregular buildings raised for some immediate necessity. In the state apartments there is a fine room, eighty-two feet in length, called St. Patrick's Hall, having the ceiling ornamented by three characteristic paintings of Waldre's. Here the knights of the noble order of St. Patrick were regaled after their original institution, and here, by annual balls, the birth-day of the great patron saint of Ireland is celebrated. The lower Castle yard contains several offices, the Old Treasury, the ordnance office, &c., beside the very beautiful chapel lately erected after a design by Francis Johnston Esq. the very best specimen of modern pointed architecture in the city. It is built of cut stone, highly enriched with carved heads and Gothic pinnacles. Nor does the interior lose any of that masterly style so conspicuous in the exterior. The regal seat and front panels of all the pews are adorned with armorial bearings in carved oak of a series of viceroys; the great window embellished with stained glass, and the ceiling decorated with highly enriched pendants. The first stone of the chapel was laid by his grace John duke of Bedford, in 1807, and the expense of its erection was about £40,000. The Record Tower, adjoining the chapel, was erected by king John, its walls are fourteen feet thick: here James II. established a mint and secreted a quantity of the royal plate. Birmingham Tower, another of the flankers of the town wall, stands at a little distance from the record tower. The old building of this name having been destroyed by fire, the present unmeaning mass was erected in its stead.

The Royal Exchange contiguous to the castle, is a magnificent pile, erected after a design of Mr. Cooley; the ground plan is simply a circle inscribed in a square. It is wholly built of Portland stone, has three fronts adorned with pillars and pilasters, and contains a noble area within, lighted by a beautiful and spacious dome, for the transaction of commercial business. In the circular ambulatory, fronting the principal entrance door, stands a handsome statue of his late majesty in Roman military costume designed by Van Nott. Besides the royal exchange, which is now almost disused for commercial purposes, there are two other handsome buildings faced with stone appropriated to the accommodation of merchants, the commercial buildings in College Green and the corn exchange on Burgh Quay, in the former of which the chamber of commerce hold their meetings. The Custom House is acknowledged to be one of the noblest buildings in the city; its south front towards the river is built of Portland stone, extends 375 feet, and is adorned with a beautiful portico in the centre, consisting of



four Doric columns supporting an enriched entablature and pediment, the tympanum of the latter decorated with a group of figures in alto relievo, representing Hibernia and Britannia presenting emblems of peace and liberty. A magnificent dome supporting a cupola, on whose apex stands a colossal figure of Hope, rises nobly from the centre of the building to a height of 125 feet. The north front is of equal extent; but, the ornamented parts excepted, is entirely of granite stone, which produces rather a sombre effect. The only handsome apartments within for public use are the Board room, and what is called the Long room. To the custom house are attached large and well designed docks, much too capacious and of too expensive a character for the trade of Dublin. The old dock, which is quite sufficient for the present trade, is 400 feet in length by 200 in breadth; the second dock measures 330 feet by 250, and the third or inner basin is 650 in length by 300 in breadth. Extensive stores have also been erected: the tobacco store is 500 feet long, its breadth being 160. Besides these docks which belong to government, and are leased for about £7000 per annum to private individuals, there are canal docks on both sides of the river which alone would afford abundant accommodation to all the shipping engaged in the Dublin trade; these, of course, are quite unemployed. These seven great basins are faced with limestone of the very best description and in a workmanlike style. The linen hall is a very extensive range of building, not uninteresting in external appearance: a handsome statue of his present majesty has lately been erected there by the trustees; it was executed by Kirk. A most useful building has lately been erected, to be called the National Mart, or Usher's Quay, the object of which is to encourage the small capitalist, who is here to be supplied, not only with an immediate sale for the produce of his labor, but also with a loan, to enable him to bring something more valuable to market as a second venture.

There are two noble buildings appropriated to the accommodation of the legal profession, and to the administration of justice. The principal is the stately edifice called the Four Courts, or Inn's Quay: the first stone was laid in March 1786, by his grace the duke of Rutland, but the whole structure was not completed for fourteen years after. The design which is by Cooley, but executed by Gandor, is truly noble. It consists of a grand central building, with squares on each side, enclosed by ranges of lofty buildings, containing the different offices of records, &c. The front of the centre is adorned with an elegant picture of six Corinthian columns, supporting a frieze and pediment; on the apex of the latter stands a statue of Moses, and at each extremity are allegorical figures of Justice and Mercy. Behind the pediment and statues rises a circular lantern, sixty-four feet in diameter, crowned by a lofty dome. The spacious court yards on each side are enclosed in front by light and beautiful open arcades, in the centre of which are great coach ways, ornamented by groups of allegorical emblems. The four law courts are contained in the central buildings, radiating from a spacious

circular hall of sixty-four feet diameter: all of equal dimensions, rather small, but lofty and well lighted. The rolls court is also in the same building. The extent of the grand front of the four courts, presented to the quay, is 148 feet, and its depth 170. It is built of red granite, the ornamental parts being of Portland stone: the expense is estimated at £300,000.

The inns of court, at the upper end of Fleet Street, occupy a beautiful and singular original building, designed by Mr. Gordon. The front is hewn of granite, the ornamental parts being of Portland stone. The plan consists of a centre and wings, each of the latter being crowned with noble pediments. In the central compartment of the three great subdivisions of the front, beautiful panels are inserted, filled with allegorical representations in alto-relievo, the central of which represents the judicial authorities of Ireland, receiving from Queen Elizabeth a translation of the Bible and a charter of incorporation. The door-ways of the wings are ornamented by caryatides, the only specimen of this description of sculpture in Dublin. In one of the wings is the dining hall of the benchers and students of the inns; and in the other are the Prerogative Court and Consistory Office, &c. A law library is now (1847) being, with a front of cut stone, adjacent to the back entrance to the inns on the site of the prince's old city palace. There are other courts in Dublin and its vicinity. The city court-house or Sessions House, adjacent to Newgate, is an uninteresting building, and rather badly adapted to the purpose of its erection. The Court of Conscience, in Coppinger's Row, where the lord mayor, or his substitute, presides, is held in a miserable apartment in the basement story of the City Assembly Room: besides four Magistrate Courts, only one of which has a suitable new house; and the Insolvent Court, held in a very humble description of building.

The ecclesiastical division of Dublin is into nineteen parishes, to each of which a church is attached. There are also the cathedral of St. Patrick, Christ Church, which is only titular, though called metropolitan; seven assistant chapels to the parish church of St. Peter, besides many private chapels, which are independent of the diocesan, such as those of Kilmalmain Hospital; the Foundling Hospital; the Lying-in Hospital; the Blue-coat Hospital; the Mercers' School; Hibernian School, &c. The Roman Catholic division of parishes does not correspond with that of the established church; and their places of worship are numerous, and the chapels in Anne Street and Exchange Street possessed of much architectural elegance. The Metropolitan Chapel in Marlborough Street, when finished, will be a great ornament to the city. The great aisle is 150 feet in length, and 120 in breadth; the exterior is still in a very unfinished state. The Quakers, Moravians, Methodists, &c., have meeting houses in various parts of the city: the number of Methodist meeting houses is not increasing; on the contrary one of them has been purchased for a Unitarian church, for the Protestant poor; and proposals have been made for the purchase of a second.



## DUBLIN.

The cathedral of St. Patrick is a venerable originally possessing much grace, beauty, and lightness of style. The ground plan is a cross with four side aisles: the nave, 150 feet in length, is adorned with several fine monuments. Here is the simple slab, inscribed with a Latin epitaph written by himself, consecrated to the memory of Swift; and an adjacent column supports a plain tablet, with an inscription, also the pen of dean Swift, to Stella. The monuments of Dr. Marsh, the founder of the public library, called after his name, and Dr. Smyth, founder of the Bethesda, are the most rich and beautiful designs. The south transept has been refitted, and in levelling the floor curiously figured tiles, forming the steps of the ancient altar, were discovered, which, together with the remains of the altar, are left uncovered to the gratification of the public taste in matters of antiquity. The northern transept, lately rebuilt, is used as the parish church of St. Nicholas. The choir of St. Patrick's is strikingly picturesque; it is lighted by five lancet-shaped windows at the summit of the eastern wall, which allow an indefinite and partial light upon the objects beneath. The organ is large and fine: the echo of the chancel most grateful to the ear. The walls and panelled gallery decorated with the helmets, swords, and armor of the knights of St. Patrick; and the canopy stalls adorned with their armorial bearings, emblazoned in golden characters. Near the communion table is the monument of the earl of Cork; opposite is a tablet to duke of Berg; while, amongst the fantastic relics of the past, are preserved the skull of the duke, pierced by a musket ball, and the chain ball by which Lord Lofton was slain at the siege of Limerick. St. Patrick's Cathedral was built upon the site of a church said to have been founded by St. Patrick himself. The steeple added in 1370, and the spire in 1749; the height of which is 223 feet from the level of the sea.

The collegiate church of the Holy Trinity, called also Christ Church, is said to have been built in 1038, by Litricus, the son of Amalanus, an Ostman king of Dublin. Its site had been appropriated to sacred purposes by St. Patrick, who is said to have preached to the people in the precise vaults on which this ancient edifice stands, these being the stores used by the Danes for lodging merchandise. The original building was destroyed almost wholly by fire, with the exception of a fine Norman tower in John's Lane, little either of the architecture, or of any intelligible details discoverable in the present mutilated remains of Christ Church. In this church the old service was first read in Ireland; and also Lambert Simnell was crowned by the king Edward VI. St. Andrew's Church still retains some few traces of Norman architecture, worth the attention of the antiquarian. Several other parish churches are well designed, executed in a masterly style: St. Werburgh's, St. Andrew's, and Catherine's, are not unlike each other in internal arrangements, and are all ancient and venerable. St. Werburgh's had a handsome spire, which the parishioners

removed, from an apprehension that the foundation was sinking. St. Paul's, lately erected, has a low and clumsy spire; St. George's possesses not only a grateful and delicate spire, but also a beautiful Grecian portico, supporting a frieze and pediment; the elevation resembles that of St. Martin's, in London, but is probably less heavy, owing to the omission of the Græco-Italian block ornaments of the latter. The parishioners of St. Michan's are about to rebuild their church, the present being decayed to a perilous extent: underneath the old church are the vaults remarkable for their antiseptic power; bodies deposited here 120 years ago are found as perfectly preserved this moment as if they had undergone the process of embalming.

Amongst the useful institutions of Dublin are,—the Royal Dublin Society, for the encouragement of husbandry and the arts, established in 1731: here public lectures are delivered by the society's professors, in geology, mineralogy, botany, and chemistry: and free-schools are opened for instruction in drawing and sculpture. The Society occupy the noble mansion of the dukes of Leinster, built from Cassel's designs, and perhaps one of the noblest private residences in Europe;—the Royal Hibernian Academy, for the advancement of the arts, built at the sole expense of Francis Johnston, Esq., now president, who bestowed it upon the artists of Ireland, to whom his present majesty had most graciously granted a charter of incorporation (the first exhibition of the Royal Hibernian Academy took place in 1826);—and the Royal Irish Academy situated in Grafton Street, whose Transactions contain many valuable articles; in the library are several valuable MSS. The principal public libraries in Dublin are, those of the college; the Dublin Society, rich in botanical works; the Dublin Library Society, in D'Olier Street; and Marsh's Library, in Kevin Street. Since the erection of the Royal Hibernian Academy, the committee of the Irish Institution have felt themselves called upon to contribute their aid to the advancement of the arts in Ireland, and in consequence erected a handsome gallery in College Street, for the exhibition of the works of the old masters, a situation both central and convenient.

Trinity College was founded by queen Elizabeth, and endowed with many valuable livings by James I. The foundation was laid in 1591, and students were admitted in 1593. By the original charter, the corporation consisted of the provost, three fellows, and three scholars; but it is now enlarged to seven senior fellows, eighteen juniors, and seventy scholars, besides the provost; each of the junior fellows having nearly 100 private pupils to instruct, independent of the delivery of occasional public lectures. The independent members are divided into an equal number of classes, called fellow-commoners, pensioners, and sizars. The provost, fellows, masters, and scholars, return two members to parliament, and the provost and senior fellows alone transact all the 'negotia collegii.' A senior fellowship is supposed to be worth about £1500 per annum. There is a limit placed to the number of pupils permitted to enter under a junior fellow in each class, viz. thirty-six; but this limit is so great



that 144 may thus be intrusted to one lecturer to instruct in the short periods of each year called terms. The scholars have the privilege of voting for representatives to parliament; commons for five years (the duration of a scholarship); chambers at half fire and rent, and £4 per annum. They are also eligible to chapel markerships, and assistant librarianships; but these places are few in number, and neither valuable nor permanent. The independent members merely receive instruction, for which they pay their tutors, the fellow-commoners sixteen guineas, the pensioner eight guineas, per annum (the sizars are exempt from charges), besides some small annual fees. The first class graduate after three years and a half, the second and third not until the expiration of four years. During the collegiate course quarterly examinations are held in the theatre, at a certain number of which every student is obliged to answer in the prescribed course, from which it follows that in this college no pupil can possibly graduate without having obtained a certain quantity of information, while the most distinguished are rewarded by the collegiate honors of premiums and certificates. The number of names on the college books has for some few years amounted nearly to 2000.

The buildings of Dublin College are numerous and elegant. The grand front, presented to College Green, is entirely of cut granite, the ornamental parts being of Portland stone. It measures 300 feet in length, is enriched by a centre beautifully relieved by four noble three-quarter Corinthian columns supporting a pediment, and terminated by two lofty pavilions, surmounted by balustrades, and adorned with graceful coupled pilasters. Within are three large squares, and one smaller, called formerly the quadrangle. The Parliament Square, 316 feet long by 212 in breadth, is enclosed by lofty buildings (four stories in height) of cut stone, terminated by the beautiful porticoes of the chapel and theatre, which correspond while they oppose. The quadrangle contains the dining hall, vice-provost's residence, and a corresponding building (fellows' chambers) beyond the quadrangle in the Library Square, 265 feet in length by 214 in breadth, enclosed on three sides by ancient brick buildings, chiefly inhabited by the students, but, on the fourth, by the college library, the noblest apartment in the city of Dublin. To the north of the Library Square is that usually called Botany Bay, somewhat larger than any of the others, and surrounded by lofty buildings. The College Park, containing about twenty acres, is planted with noble elms. Here are the New Anatomy House, and the Printing House, a beautiful little Doric building. The chapel and theatre have similarly beautiful fronts of Portland stone, consisting of porticoes of four Corinthian pillars supporting a pediment; behind the porticoes, arcades open into a vestibule on each side, and in the centre of which are the entrances to the great hall and chapel. The hall contains an admired monument to provost Baldwin, and several fine portraits of eminent persons, former students, amongst whom are Swift and Burke. The dimensions of the chapel are equal, but the internal arrangement necessarily different from those of the

theatre. The dining hall is a singular design, the front, of cut stone, is adorned with coupled pilasters, and a shallow pediment; the great door opens on a broad terrace, approached by a flight of steps the entire breadth of the building; over the ante-hall, leading to the refectory, is the apartment in which the Historical Society hold their meetings. The library is an unpicturesque, though stately edifice: it is perforated by many windows, that it defied the efforts of the artist to consult beauty of elevation. The chief library room (where his majesty Geo. IV. was received by the corporation) measures 210 feet in length by forty-one in breadth, is beautifully adorned with carved oak pilasters, and an indented frieze; while many fine busts of celebrated persons, standing on tapering pedestals, are ranged along either side: the inner, called the Fagel Library, is fifty-two feet long, and contains the collection of a Dutch family, whose name it bears, of about 20,000 volumes. The manuscript room is over the Fagel Library: here are Persian and Arabic MSS., an autograph of king James II., and a most valuable collection of unpublished MSS. on Irish history and antiquities; to the south of the library is the master's garden, being a continuation of the pleasure ground attached to the provost's house; the latter mentioned building is a very beautiful structure, built entirely of cut stone, from a design by Mr. Burlington. The College Museum does not contain many things of interest: there is here a curious model, by Mr. Bald, of the surface of the county of Mayo. The College Observatory is situated at Dunsink, three miles from the city, and the Botanic Garden at Beggar's Bush, about half a mile from College Green.

The College of Surgeons was endowed with a charter in 1784; the first licentiate was Thomas Wright, author of some valuable works on anatomy. It is a handsome building of red stone; consisting of a rusticated basement story surmounted by a handsome façade, adorned with three-quarter columns, separated by large circular-headed windows: the present elevation is an improvement by Mr. Murray: it stands in a commanding position in Stephen's Green, at the corner of York Street. The School of Anatomy here is highly valued, and much visited by medical students from England and Wales. The College of Physicians hold their meetings in St. Patrick Dunn's Hospital, a noble building in Canal Street, erected at the expense of the magnificent testator whose name it bears. There are several private schools of anatomy in Dublin, in Park Street, Brunswick Street, &c., also well attended by students from various parts of Great Britain. Dublin possesses numerous classical schools, conducted by distinguished scholars of its university.

The river Liffey, which divides the city, is enclosed by magnificent walls of cut stone, from Ringsend to Bloody Bridge, a distance of about two miles, in which length it is crossed by some noble bridges, six of cut stone, and one of cast-iron: an additional bridge of cast iron is about to be thrown across the river, near the entrance of the Phoenix Park, and above the Royal Barracks; and a magnificent arch spans the river



one mile west of Bloody Bridge, called Bridge.

It is encompassed by a circular road, and is between two canals of noble breadth; the canals terminate in docks, communicating with the Liffey, capable of accommodating all the boats that visit the Dublin river, and of harbouring the boats from the interior, which could be employed in transmitting the inland produce to the harbour for exportation: it is very probable that most of the export trade of Ireland will be carried on, by means of these canals, at

the population of Dublin has increased but in the last twenty years, and the number of houses has rather diminished.

**DUNO**, a town of Volhynia, European Russia, on the river Irwa. The great annual fair of Poland, called the Contract, was for many years held here. The population was then considerable; at present it is not above 1000. Great numbers of Jews reside here, who carry on an extensive trade in wood, cattle, and wax, brought from Podolia, the Ukraine, &c. East of the town stands a castle, four miles S. S. E. of Lucko.

**DUNOIS** (John Baptist), a learned and ingenious French author, born at Beauvais in 1670. He finished his studies at Paris, and was intrusted with the management of several importations in Italy, England, and Holland. At Paris, he obtained a prebendary; afterwards had a pension of 2000 livres, and was secretary of Notre Dame at Reims, near Paris. He died at Paris, when perpetual secretary of the French Academy, on the 23d of April 1742. His principal works are, 1. Criticisms on Poetry and Painting, 3 vols.

2. A Critical History of the French Language in Gaul, 2 vols. 4to.

**DUCAL**, *adj.* From duke. Pertaining to a duke, or a ducal coronet.

**BUCCIO FALIERO**. (*reading.*) Decreed by the council, without one dissenting voice, that Michel Steno, by his own confession, should die in the last night of Carnival, and be graven on the ducal chair.

*Byron.* The letters patent granted by the senate of Venice, or written in the name of the senate, to foreign princes: so named because the name of the doge or duke was prefixed to them.

**DU CAREL** (Andrew Coltee), an eminent antiquary, was born at Caen in Normandy; but his father, removing to England, brought him to Eton, and afterwards at Oxford, where he took the degree of doctor of civil law. He became a member of Doctors' Commons, and in 1755 was elected commissary, and had the jurisdiction of the collegiate church of St. Catherine, near the Tower. In 1761 he was appointed librarian of the palace of the Tower; and the following year became commissary of the diocese of Canterbury. He was the first fellow of the society of Antiquaries.

In 1762 he was elected F. R. S.; and in 1763, together with Sir Joseph Banks and Mr. Astle, to methodise the records

in the State Paper office at Whitehall, and in the Augmentation office. Dr. Ducarel died at his house in South Lambeth, in May 1785. His principal works are, Anglo-Norman Antiquities, 1767, folio; a series of above 200 Anglo-Gallic, or Norman and Aquitaine Coins of the ancient Kings of England, &c., 1757, 4to.; the History and Antiquities of the Archbishop's Palace at Lambeth, 4to.; and the History of the Royal Hospital and Collegiate Church of St. Catherine, 4to.

**DUCAS** (Michael), a Greek historian who wrote a history of the empire, from the elder Andronicus to its termination. Though his style is barbarous, he relates facts not elsewhere to be found, and was an attentive observer of what passed. Nothing is known of his life except that he was often engaged in diplomatic employments. His works were printed at the Louvre in 1649, folio; accompanied with a Latin version and notes. This was afterwards translated into French by Cousin, of whose History of Constantinople, printed at Paris, 1672, 4to., and at the Hague, in 1685, 12mo., it concludes the eighth volume.

**DUCAT**, *n. s.* } From duke. Coins struck by the duke. **DUCATOON**, *n. s.* } by dukes. See COINS.

I cannot instantly raise up the gross of full three thousand ducats. *Shakespeare.*

There was one that died in debt: it was reported, where his creditors were, that he was dead: one said, he hath carried five hundred ducats of mine into the other world. *Bacon.*

An ounce of silver, whether in pence, groats, or crown pieces, stivers, or ducatoons, or in bullion, is, and eternally will be, of equal value to any other ounce of silver. *Loche.*

**DUCAT**. See COINS. The origin of ducats is assigned by Procopius to Longinus, governor of Italy; who, revolting against the emperor Justin II., made himself duke of Ravenna, and called himself Exarcha, i. e. without lord or ruler; and, to show his independence, struck pieces of money, of very pure gold, in his own name, and with his own stamp, which were called ducati. After him, the first who struck ducats were the Venetians, who called them zechini or sequins, from Zecca, the place where they first were struck. This was about A. D. 1280, in the time of John Danduli: but we have pretty good evidence, that Roger, king of Sicily, coined ducats as early as 1240. And Du Cange affirms, that the first ducats were struck in the duchy of Apulia. The chief gold ducats are, the single and double ones of Venice, Florence, Genoa, Germany, Hungary, Poland, Sweden, Denmark, Flanders, Holland, and Zurich. The double ducats weigh from five pennyweights seventeen grains, to five pennyweights ten grains; and the single in proportion. The Spaniards have no ducats of gold; and the silver one, with them, is no real species, but only a money of account like our pound. It is equivalent to eleven reals. The silver ducats of Florence serve there for crowns.

**DUCATOON**, a silver coin, struck chiefly in Italy; particularly in Milan, Venice, Florence, Genoa, Lucca, Mantua, and Parma: though there are also Dutch and Flemish ducatoons. See COINS.



DUCE CREEK, called also Cross Roads and Salisbury, a town of the United States, America, in the state of Delaware, standing on Duce Creek, which runs into Delaware Bay. It is a celebrated wheat market, and has a flourishing trade with Philadelphia.

DUZENARIUS, Δυζενάριος, in antiquity, an officer of the Roman army, who had the command of 200 men. The emperors had also duzenarii among the procurators or intendants, called procuratores duzenarii. Some say that these had salaries of 200 sesterces; as in the games of the circus, horses hired for 200 sesterces were called duzenarii. Others hold, that duzenarii were those who levied the 200th penny, the officers appointed to inspect the raising of that tribute. In the inscription at Palmyra, the word occurs very often.

DUCK, *n. s.*, *v. a.*, *v. n.* & } From Dut, *ducken*;  
DUCK'ER, *n. s.* [adj] Swed. *dyka*; Teut.  
DUCK'ING-STOOL, } and Welsh *tuck*;  
DUCK'LEGGED, *adj.* } to dip or dive; from  
DUCK'LING, *n. s.* } Goth. *doggwa*, wa-  
DUCK'WEED, } ter. A bird of the  
*anas* genus; a term of endearment; and, from the common habits of the duck, a stone made to dip in and out of the water in throwing: to dive as a duck, hence to bow; and, as an active verb, to put under water.

The varlet saw, when to the flood he came,  
How without stop or stay he fiercely leapt;  
And deep himself he ducked in the same,  
That in the lake his lofty crest was steep.

*Faerie Queene.*

Let the labouring bark climb hills of seas  
Olympus high, and duck again as low  
As hell's from heaven. *Shakspeare. Othello.*

The learned pate

*Ducks* to the golden fool. *Id. Timon.*

Will you buy any tape or lace for your cap,  
My dainty duck, my dear-a? *Id. Winter's Tale.*

That we call *duckweed* bath a leaf no bigger than a  
thyme leaf, but of a fresher green; and putteth forth  
a little string into the water, far from the bottom.

*Bacon.*

Back, shepherds, back; enough your play  
Till next sunshine holyday;  
Here be without duck or nod,  
Other trippings to be trod,  
Of lighter toes, and such court guise  
As Mercury did first devise. *Milton.*

The ducks, that heard the proclamation cried,  
And feared a prosecution might betide,  
Full twenty mile from town their voyage take,  
Obscure in rushes of the liquid lake. *Dryden.*

Thou art wickedly devout;

In Tiber ducking thrice by break of day. *Id.*

*Ducklegged*, short waisted, such a dwarf she is,  
That she must rise on tiptoes for a kiss.

*Id. Juvenal.*

*Ducklings*, though hatched and led by a hen, if she  
brings them to the brink of a river or pond, presently  
leave her, and in they go. *Ray on the Creation.*

As some raw youth in country bred,  
When at a skirmish first he hears  
The bullets whistling round his ears,  
Will duck his head aside, will start,  
And feel a trembling at his heart. *Swift.*

She in the *duckingstool* should take her seat,  
Drest like herself in a great chair of state.

*Dorset.*

Reclaim the obstinately opprobrious and vicious  
women, and make the *duckingstool* more useful.

*Addison's Fables.*

Every morn

Amid the ducklings let her scatter corn.

*Gay's Fables.*

Neither cross and pile, nor ducks and dials, are  
quite so ancient as handy-dandy.

*Arbuthnot and Pope.*

But still 'tis rural—trees are to be seen  
From every window, and the fields are green;  
*Ducks* paddle in the pond before the door,  
And what could a remoter scene show more!

*Cope.*

The wanton coot the water skims,  
Among the leaves the *ducklings* cry.  
The stately swan majestic swims,  
And every thing is blest but I. *Don.*

The love of offspring's nature's general law,  
From tigresses and cubs to ducks and *ducklings*,  
There's nothing whets the beak or arms the claw  
Like an invasion of their babes and sucklings. *Pope.*

DUCK, in ornithology. See *ANAS* and *DROME*.  
This fowl is furnished with a peculiar structure  
of vessels about the heart, which enables it to  
live a considerable time under water, as is ne-  
cessary for it in diving. This made Mr. Hays  
think it a more proper subject for experiment  
with the air-pump than any other bird. A full  
grown duck being put into the receiver of an air-  
pump, of which she filled one third part, and  
the air exhausted, the creature seemed to bear  
better for the first moments, than a hen or other  
fowl; but, after about a minute, she showed plain  
signs of uneasiness, and in less than two minutes  
her head fell down, and she appeared dying, till  
revived by the letting in of air. A young culver  
duck was afterwards tried in the same manner,  
and with the same issue, it being nearly related  
to death in less than two minutes. But it is ob-  
servable, that both birds swelled very much in  
pumping out the air, so that they appeared greatly  
larger to the spectators, especially about the crop;  
it not being intended that any water fowl should  
live in so exceedingly rarefied air, but only be  
able to continue occasionally some time under  
water. The strongest instance of these creatures  
being calculated to live almost in any situation,  
we have in the accounts of the blind ducks in  
the Czirknitz Zee lake in Carniola; which is sup-  
posed to communicate with another lake under  
ground in the mountain Savornic, and to fill or  
empty itself according to the emptiness or full-  
ness of that lake. See *CZIRKNITZ ZEE*. The ducks  
which always frequent it in great numbers, are  
often carried down along with the water, and  
forced into the subterraneous lake to which a  
retires. In this unnatural habitation, many of  
these creatures undoubtedly perish, but some re-  
main alive. These become blind, and lose their  
feathers; and in the next filling of the lake, both  
they and vast numbers of fish are thrown up by  
the water. In about a fortnight they are said to  
recover their sight and feathers.

DUCKING, plunging in water, a discipline  
anciently practised among the Goths by way of ex-  
ercise; but among the Celts, Franks, and ancient  
Germans, it was a sort of punishment for persons  
of scandalous lives. At Marseilles and Becheux,



the revolution, men and women of scandalous life were condemned to the galleys; i.e. to put up in an iron cage fastened to the yard of a ship, and ducked several times in the river. The same was done at Toulouse to blasphemers. **DUCKING**, a sort of marine punishment, introduced by the French before the revolution, on those who had been convicted of desertion, blasphemy, or sedition. It was thus performed: the criminal was placed astride of a short thick rope, fastened to the end of a rope, which passed through a block hanging at one of the yards of the yard, and the rope being slackened at once, he was plunged into the sea. This was repeated several times conformably to the sentence against the culprit, who had also several cannon-shots fired near to his feet. A gun was also fired to advise the other ships of the fleet, that their crews might become spectators.

**DUCKING** is also a penalty which veterans pretend to have a right to inflict on those who, for the first time, pass the tropic of Cancer, the equator, or the straits of Gibraltar, in consequence of their refusal or incapacity to pay the fine levied on such occasions.

**DUCKING-STOOL**. See **BRANK** and **CUCKING-STOOL**.

**DUCKOY**, *v. a. & n. s.* Mistaken for the decoy being commonly practised upon the fish, produced the error. To entice to a snare; to lay.

The fish hath a slender membranous string, which he draws in at pleasure, as a serpent doth his tongue; with this he *duckoys* little fishes, and upon them.

*Grew.* The surgeons have found it the most compendious way of designs, to lead captive silly women, and to bring them the *duckoys* to their whole family.

**DUCK UP**, is a phrase used at sea by the crew, when the main sail, fore sail, or sprit sail hinders his seeing to steer by a land-mark, upon which he calls out, duck up the tops of these sails, that is, hale the sails up the way. When a shot is made by a piece, if the clew of the sprit sail hinders him, they call out duck up, &c.

**DUCT**, *n. s.* Lat. *ductus*, from *duco*, to lead. Hence; direction: a passage through which a fluid is conducted.

The doctrine, by fastening all our actions by a fatal chain at the foot of God's chair, leaves nothing to us but to obey our fate, to follow the *duct* of the necessity of those iron chains which we are under.

*Hammond.* The duct from each of those cells ran into the root of the tongue, where both joined together, and passed on in one common duct to the tip of it.

*Addison's Spectator.* It was observed that the chyle, in the thoracic duct, retained the original taste of the aliment.

**DUCTILE**, *adj.* } Lat. *ductilis*, from *duco*, to lead.  
**DUCTILENESS**, *n. s.* } *tus*, part. of *duco*, to lead.  
**DUCTILITY**. } Tensile; easy to be drawn out.

Bodies *ductile* and *tensile*, as metals, that will be drawn into wires; wool and tow, that will be drawn into thread; have the appetite of not disjoining strong.

*Bacon.*

I, when I value gold, may think upon  
 The ductileness, the application;  
 The wholesomeness, the ingenuity,  
 From rust, from soil, from fire ever free.

*Donne.*

Thick woods and gloomy night  
 Conceal the happy plant from human sight:  
 One bough it bears; but wond'rous to behold!  
 The ductile rind and leaves of radiant gold.

*Dryden's Æneid.*

Yellow colour and ductility are properties of gold: they belong to all gold, but not only to gold; for saffron is also yellow, and lead is ductile.

*Watts's Logick.*

He generous thoughts instils  
 Of true nobility; forms their ductile minds  
 To human virtues.

*Philips.*

Their designing leaders cannot desire a more ductile and easy people to work upon.

*Addison's Freeholder.*

Hence ductile clays in wide expansion spread,  
 Soft as the cygnet's down, their snow-white bed;  
 With yielding flakes successive forms reveal,  
 And change obedient to the whirling wheel.

*Darwin.*

**DUCTILITY**, in physics, a property possessed by certain solid bodies, which consists in their yielding to percussion or pressure, and in receiving different forms without breaking. Some bodies are ductile both when they are hot and when they are cold, and in all circumstances. Such are metals, particularly gold and silver. Other bodies are ductile only when heated to a sufficient degree; such as wax and other substances of that kind, and glass. Other bodies, particularly some kinds of iron, called by the workmen red-short, brass, and some other metallic mixtures, are ductile only when cold, and brittle when hot. The degrees of heat requisite to produce ductility in bodies of the first kind, vary according to their different natures. In general, the heat of the body must be such as is sufficient to reduce it to a middle state betwixt solidity and perfect fusion. As wax for instance, is fusible with a very small heat, it may be rendered ductile by a still smaller one; and glass, which requires a most violent heat for its perfect fusion, cannot acquire its greatest ductility until it is made perfectly red-hot, and almost ready to fuse. Lastly, some bodies are made ductile by the absorption of a fluid. Such are certain earths, particularly clay. When these earths have absorbed a sufficient quantity of water, to bring them into a middle state betwixt solidity and fluidity, that is to the consistence of a considerably firm paste, they have then acquired their greatest ductility. Water has precisely the same effect upon them in this respect, that fire has upon the bodies above-mentioned.

The ductility of metals is distinguished into three states by professor Chaptal, relative to the manner in which it is modified by various processes: viz. 1. Under the hammer: 2. Through the wire-drawer's plate; and 3. Between the laminating rollers. Metals ductile under the hammer he ranks thus, in the order of their ductility: gold, silver, copper, iron, tin, and lead. Through the wire-drawer's plate they rank in this order: gold, iron, copper, silver, tin, and lead. Some metals that are neither ductile under the hammer, nor through the plate, become very



considerably so, when an equal and gradual pressure is applied. Thus zinc may be reduced into very thin and flexible leaves by being passed between the laminating cylinders.

**DUDGEON.** Anciently *dudgeon*, a diminutive of *dag*; or, says Dr. Johnson, from Germ. *dolch*, a dirk; or *degen*, a sword. A dagger; a quarrel in which daggers are either used, or 'spoken;' ill temper.

It was a serviceable *dudgeon*,  
Either for fighting or for drudging.

*Hudibras.*

Civil *dudgeon* first grew high,  
And men fell out they knew not why. *Id.*  
The cuckoo took this a little in *dudgeon*.  
*L'Estrange.*

**DUDLEY** (Edmund), an eminent lawyer and able statesman in the reign of Henry VII. who, with Sir Richard Empson, assisted in filling that rapacious monarch's coffers, by arbitrary prosecutions of the people, on old penal statutes. They were both beheaded on the accession of Henry VIII. to pacify the clamors of the people for justice.

**DUDLEY** (John), duke of Northumberland, son of the above, a statesman memorable in the English history, for his unsuccessful attempt to place the crown on the head of his daughter-in-law, lady Jane Grey, who fell a victim to his ambition; was born in 1502, and beheaded in 1553. Ambrose his eldest son was a brave, generous and able statesman under queen Elizabeth; and received the appellation of the good earl of Warwick. Henry, his second son, was killed at the siege of St. Quintin. Robert, the third son, a man of bad character, was created earl of Leicester; and was one of queen Elizabeth's favorites. His fourth son, was the unfortunate lord Guildford Dudley, whose only crime was his being the husband of lady Jane Grey, for which he was beheaded in 1554.

**DUDLEY** (Sir Robert), earl of Warwick and duke of Northumberland, was the son of Robert above-mentioned, by the lady Douglas Sheffield; and was born at Sheen in Surrey in 1573, where he was carefully concealed, to prevent the queen's knowledge of the earl's engagements with his mother. He studied at Oxford; when his father dying, left him the bulk of his estate. Having a particular fondness for navigation, he fitted out a small squadron at his own expense, with which he sailed to the river Orinoco, and took and destroyed nine sail of Spanish ships. In 1595 he attended the earl of Essex, and the lord high admiral of England, in their expedition against the Spaniards; when he was knighted for his gallant behaviour at the taking of Cadiz. He now endeavoured to prove the legitimacy of his birth, in order to be entitled to his hereditary honors. But being overpowered by the interest of the countess dowager of Leicester, he applied for a licence to travel; and, being well received at the court of Florence, resolved to continue there, notwithstanding his receiving a letter of recall; on which his whole estate was seized by king James I. and vested in the crown. He discovered at the court of Cosmo II., great duke of Tuscany, those great abilities for which he had been admired in England, and was at length

made chamberlain to his highness's court. He there contrived several methods of improving shipping; introduced new manufactures; and by other services obtained so high reputation, that at the desire of the archduchess, the emperor Ferdinand, in 1620, created him a duke of the holy Roman empire. He afterwards drained a vast tract of morass between Pisa and the sea, and raised Leghorn, which was then a mean, pitiful place, into a large and beautiful town, improving the haven by a mole, which rendered it both safe and commodious; and having engaged his highness to declare it a free port, he, by his influence and correspondence, drew many English merchants to settle and set up houses there, which was of very great service to his country, as well as to the Spaniards. He was also the patron of learned men, and held a high place himself in the republic of letters. His celebrated work is his *Del Arcano del Mare*, 2 vols. folio.

**DUDLEY** (Rev. Sir Henry Bate), was born at Penny Compton, August 25th 1745. His father, Henry Bate, was rector of St. Nicholas in Worcester, and of North Farmbridge, in Essex. The son also was educated for the church, and took his degrees in arts at the University of Cambridge, after which he became curate of Heden in Middlesex. At this period of his life, however, he became entirely a man of pleasure; but exhibited considerable literary talent, and published in succession, the *Morning Post*, and *Morning Herald*, newspapers. He also produced some dramatic pieces, of which the principal were, *The Rival Candidates*, *The Trick of Bacon*, and *The Woodman*. In the year 1781 the advowson of Bradwell juxta Mar, in Essex, was purchased in trust for Mr. Bate, subject to the life of the incumbent; without waiting for whose demise, he commenced those extensive alterations and improvements of the church, parsonage, and glebe, which are said to have cost him upwards of £28,000. But when in 1790 he applied for institution, on the death of the incumbent of the living, the bishop of London refused him on the ground of simony. Shortly afterwards the rectory lapsed to the crown, and Dr. Gamble was presented to it. This was considered an exceedingly hard case, and very much ruined Mr. Dudley, who had now taken this addition to his name in compliance with the will of a relative. In 1804 he was in some degree compensated for his loss, by a presentation to the rectory of Kilscoren in Ireland, and the chancellorship of the cathedral of Ferns; to which three years afterwards, was added the living of Kilglass, in the county of Longford. In 1811 he resigned the two Irish benefices, and was presented to the rectory of Willington in the county of Cambridge; and the same year was created a baronet. In 1816 he obtained a prebend in the cathedral of Ely. Sir Henry was at one time magistrate for seven counties in England and four in Ireland. He died at Old tenham, February 1st, 1824.

**DUDLEY**, a town of England, of the county of Worcester, but insulated in Staffordshire, has a weekly market on Saturday. Most of the inhabitants are employed in manufacturing silk, or



of iron. It has two churches; and east of Birmingham, and 120 north-on. It sends one member to par-

Robert, earl of Leicester), was the he duke of Northumberland, and out 1532. He was knighted when was made gentleman of the bed-Edward VI. Though involved in designs of his father, and included e of attainder passed against him on of Mary, he was pardoned, and that queen. After Elizabeth as-prone, Dudley soon acquired the being her favorite. Offices, honors ere showered on him with an un-

He was appointed master of the of the garter, and privy counsellor; ad grants of the princely domains , Denbigh, and Chirk castle. In h of his wife took place at Cum-Berkshire. This event, according union, as appears from Aubrey, iny in the guilt of murder. If he life of his consort, in the hope of queen, his ambitious views were

Elizabeth, however, encouraged to the hand of Mary of Scotland, him with disdain. In 1564 he was

Denbigh and earl of Leicester, same year elected chancellor of ersity, having previously been same office at Cambridge. About ars to have married the baroness-

field, lady Douglas Howard, by children, but whom he disowned and even compelled her to marry n. In 1575 he gave a princely to the queen, at Kenilworth stivities of which are described in manner, in the celebrated romance , and, in defiance of chronology, th the death of Leicester's first er, in 1578, offended the queen ge with the widow of Walter De- f Essex. He, however, recovered , in 1585, was appointed, through governor of the Netherlands, then acipated from the Spanish yoke.

in this station did not give the queen, or to the states over sided, and he was recalled the r. He returned to his command 7; but he was finally displaced e after, and returned to England. ed of misconduct by lord Buck- bers; but Elizabeth still retained iality for him, that she supported ll his enemies; and, on the pros- Spanish invasion, in 1588, ap- commander of the forces, as- ilbury, for the defence of the icester died, on the fourth of that year, at Cornbury Park, in and was interred in a chapel at e collegiate church of Warwick, tuous monument was erected to his

DUE, *n. s. adj. & v. a.*

DU'EFULL,

DUTY, *n. s.*

DU'TEOUS, *adj.*

DU'TEOUSNESS, *n. s.*

DU'TIFUL, *adj.*

DU'TIFULLY, *adv.*

DU'TIFULNESS, *n. s.*

exact; consequent to. Shakspeare uses it as an active verb; but we have met with no other instance. Duty is also obligation, and reciprocal with right. What one man has a right to claim, another has a duty to yield or give.

When ye shall have done all those things which are commanded you, say, We are unprofitable servants: we have done that which was our duty to do.

Luke xvii. 10.

They both atone,

Did duty to their lady as became.

Faerie Queene.

All which that day in order seemly good  
Did on the Thames attend, and waited well  
To doe their duefull service as to them befell.

Spenser

This is the latest glory of their praise,  
That I thy enemy due thee withal. Shakspeare.

My due from thee is this imperial crown,  
Which, as immediate from thy place and blood,  
Derives itself to me. Id.

Like the Pontick sea,

Whose icy current, and compulsive course,  
Ne'er feels retiring ebb, but keeps due on  
To the Propontick and the Hellespont.

Id. Othello.

My prayers

Are not words duty hallowed, nor my wishes  
More worth than vanities; yet prayers and wishes  
Are all I can return. Id. Henry VIII.

Thou better know'st

Effects of courtesy, dues of gratitude;

Thy half o' th' kingdom thou hast not forgot,

Wherein I thee endowed. Id. King Lear.

Think'st thou that duty shall have dread to speak,  
When power to flattery bows? To plainness honour  
Is bound, when majesty to folly falls. Id.

I know thee well; a serviceable villain!

As duteous to the vices of thy mistress,

As badness would deaire. Id.

There is due from the judge to the advocate some commendation and gracing, where causes are well handled and fair pleaded. There is likewise due to the public a civil reprehension of advocates, where there appeareth cunning, gross neglect, or slight information. Bacon.

The key of this infernal pit by due,

And by command of heaven's all-powerful king,

I keep. Milton. Paradise Lost.

And Eve within, due at her hour prepared

For dinner savoury fruits. Id.

Befriend

Us, thy vowed priests, till outmost end

Of all thy dues be done, and none left out. Id.

Every beast, more duteous at her call,

Than at Circean call the herd disguised. Id.

Some duties we owe to humanity, more to nearness of blood. Bp. Hall. Contemplations.

All our duty is set down in our prayers, because in all our duty we beg the Divine assistance; and remember that you are bound to do all those duties, for the doing of which you have prayed for the Divine assistance. Taylor's Devotion.



Mirth and cheerfulness are but the *due* reward of innocency of life. *More's Divine Dialogues.*

A present blessing upon our fasts is neither originally *due* from God's justice, nor becomes *due* to us from his veracity. *Smatridge's Sermons.*

There is a respect *due* to mankind, which should incline ever the wisest of men to follow innocent customs. *Watts.*

The *duty* of a collator is indeed dull, yet, like other tedious tasks, is very necessary. *Johnson.*

Turn on the prudent and thy heedful eyes,  
Observe her labours, sluggard, and be wise:  
No stern command, no monitory voice,  
Prescribes her *duties*, or directs her choice;  
Yet timely provident, she hastes away,  
To snatch the blessings of the plenteous day.

*Id. Poems.*

Nothing is more common than to say, when a person does not behave with *due* decency towards his superiors, such a one does not understand himself. *Mason.*

Estates are landscapes, gazed upon awhile,  
Then advertised, and auctioneered away.  
The country starves, and they that feed the' o'er-  
charged

And surfeited lewd town with her fair *dues*,  
By a just judgment strip and starve themselves.

*Cowper.*

*Duly* at my time I come,  
Publishing to all aloud—

Soon the grave must be your home,

And your only suit a shroud. *Id.*

'Do as you would be done by,' and 'Love your neighbour as yourself,' include all our *duties* of benevolence and morality; and if sincerely obeyed by all nations, would a thousand-fold multiply the present happiness of mankind. *Darwin.*

Whatever tenderness may be *due* to the errors into which they would inevitably fall in their speculations concerning the present condition of mankind, and the apparent constitution of the moral world, of which, destitute as they were of the light of revelation, they knew neither the beginning nor the end,—the Christian is possessed of a written rule, delivered from on high, which is treated with profane contempt, if reference be not had to it upon all questions of *duty*. *Bp. Horsley.*

Salt, *duty* free, is a great deal cheaper, and (as far as experiments have gone) very superior in power and permanency of effect to lime. *Sir T. Bernard.*

Triumphant Sylla! Thou, who didst subdue  
Thy country's foes ere thou wouldst pause to feel  
The wrath of thy own wrongs, or reap the *due*  
Of hoarded vengeance till thine eagles flew  
O'er prostrate Asia. *Byron.*

Forgive me; there is something at your heart  
More than the mere discharge of public *duties*,  
Which long use, and a talent like to yours,  
Have rendered light, nay, a necessity  
To keep your mind from stagnating. *Id.*

DUEL, *n. s., v. n. & v. a.*

DUELLE, *n. s.*

DUELLIST.

DUEL'LO.

fight or combat between two. Dueller and duellist appear synonymous.

The gentleman will, for his honour's sake, have one bout with you: he cannot by the *duello* avoid it. *Shakespeare.*

In many armies, if the matter should be tried by *duel* between two champions, the victory should go on the one side; and yet, if it be tried by the gross, go on the other side. *Bacon.*

Victory and triumph to the Son of God  
Now entering his great *duel*, not of arms,  
But to vanquish by wisdom, bellicious wiles. *Milton.*

Who single

*Duelled* their armies ranked in proud array,

Himself an army, now unequal match

To save himself against a coward armed,

At one spear's length. *Id. Agamemnon.*

His bought arms Mung not liked; for his *hunting*  
Of bearing them in field, he threw 'em away;  
And hath no honour lost, our *duellists* say. *Ben Jonson.*

'Twas I that wronged you; you my life have  
sought;

No *duel* ever was more justly fought. *Waller.*

Henceforth let poets, ere allowed to win,

Be searched like *duellists* before they fight. *Depla.*

He must at length, poor man! die *dully* at last,  
when here he might so fashionably and graciously have  
been *duelled* or fluxed into another world. *South.*

If the king ends the differences, the case will fall  
out no worse than when two *duellists* enter the lists,  
where the worsted party hath his sword again, with-  
out further hurt. *South.*

I never read of a *duel* among the Romans, and yet  
their nobility used more liberty with their tongues  
than one may now do without being challenged. *Tale.*

They perhaps begin as single *duellers*, but then they  
soon get their troops about them. *Deacy of Flap.*

DUEL, a single combat, at a time and place appointed, in consequence of a challenge. The custom came originally from the northern nations, among whom it was usual to decide all their controversies by arms. Both the accuser and accused gave pledges to the judges on their respective behalf; and the custom prevailed so far amongst the Germans, Danes, and Franks, that none were excused from it but women, old people, cripples, and such as were under twenty-one years of age or above sixty. Even ecclesiastics, priests, and monks, were obliged to find champions to fight in their stead. The punishment of the vanquished was either death by hanging or beheading, or mutilation of members according to the circumstances of the case. *Duels* were at first admitted not only on criminal occasions, but on some civil ones, for the maintenance of rights or estates, and the like: in latter times, however, before they were entirely abolished, they were restrained to these four cases. 1. That the crime should be capital. 2. That it should be certain the crime was perpetrated. 3. The accused must by common fame be supposed guilty. And 4. The matter must not be capable of proof by witnesses.

DUEL, at present, is used for single combat on some private quarrel; and is premeditated; otherwise it is called a *rencontre*. If a person is killed in a *duel*, both the principals and second are guilty, whether the seconds engage or not. See MURDER. It is also a very high offence to challenge a person either by word or letter, or to be the messenger of a challenge. See LAW. The general practice of duelling, in this last sense, took its rise in 1527, at the breaking up of a treaty between the emperor Charles V. and Francis I. The former desired Francis's hand to acquaint his sovereign, that he would have



consider him not only as a base violator of faith, but as a stranger to the honor and of a gentleman. Francis, too highly to bear such an imputation, had recourse to an uncommon expedient to vindicate his character.

He instantly sent back the herald with a defiance, in which he gave the emperor in form, challenging him to single combat, and naming him the time and place of combat, and the weapons with which he chose to fight.

Charles, as he was not inferior to his opponent in spirit or bravery, readily accepted the challenge; but after several messages, concerning the arrangement of all the circumstances relative to the combat, accompanied with mutual respects bordering on the most indecent scurrilous thoughts of this duel, more becoming of a romance than the two greatest monarchs of the age, were entirely laid aside. The combat of two persons so illustrious, drew such attention, and carried with it so much consequence, that it had considerable influence in bringing about an important change in manners all over Europe.

Duels had been long permitted by the laws of all European nations; and, formerly, of their jurisprudence, were authorized by magistrates on many occasions, as the most proper method of terminating questions with respect to property, or of deciding in those which admitted of crimes. But single combats being considered as solemn appeals to the omniscience and of the Supreme Being, they were allowed for public causes, according to the prescription of law, and carried on in a judicial form.

Men accustomed to this manner of proceeding in courts of justice, were naturally led to apply it to personal and private quarrels, which at first could only be appointed by a judge, were fought without the interposition of his authority, and in cases to which the law did not extend. Upon every affront or injury, seemed to touch his honor, a gentleman considered himself entitled to draw his sword, and to challenge his adversary to make reparation.

An opinion, introduced among men of courage and high spirit, and of rude manners, where offence was often given, and revenge always prompt, produced most fatal consequences. Much blood was shed; many useful persons were lost; and, at some periods, war itself had been more destructive than these combats of honor. So powerful, however, is the force of fashion, that neither the terror of laws, nor reverence for religion, nor the prospect of a future state, has yet been able to abolish a practice unknown among the ancients, and not justifiable by any principle of morality.

Its best defence only seals the greater crime on the parties who have recourse to it; and we must ascribe to it, in some degree, the extraordinary gentleness and complaisance of the manners in high life, and that respectation of one man to another, which at present renders the social intercourse of life far more agreeable and decent than among civilised nations of antiquity.

In other words, that gentlemen can only be governed by the weapons of force by which, in fact, the vilest ruffian is at last restrained. Public opinion, however, is not easily controlled by civil institutions; for which reason it may be questioned whether any human regulations can be contrived of sufficient force to suppress or change that false rule of honor, which stigmatises all scruples about duelling with the reproach of cowardice. The inadequate redress which the law of the land affords, for those injuries which chiefly affect a man in his sensibility and reputation, tempts many to redress themselves; and prosecutions for such offences, by the trifling damages that are recovered, serve only to make the sufferer ridiculous. This ought to be remedied. A court of honor might be established, especially for the army, where the point of honor is cultivated with exquisite attention and refinement, with a power of awarding those submissions and acknowledgments, which it is generally the object of a challenge to obtain; and it might grow into a fashion with persons of rank of all professions, to refer their quarrels to the same tribunal. In fact, as the law now stands, duelling can seldom be overtaken by legal punishment. The challenge, appointment, and other previous circumstances, which indicate the intention with which the combatants met, being suppressed, nothing appears to a court of justice but the actual encounter; and if a person be slain when actually fighting with his adversary, the law deems his death nothing more than manslaughter.

**DUE'NNA**, *n. s.* Spanish. An old woman kept to guard a younger.

I felt the ardour of my passion increase as the season advanced, till in the month of July I could no longer contain: I bribed her *duenna*, was admitted to the bath, saw her undressed, and the wonder displayed.

*Arbuthnot and Pope.*

**DUETT**, duetto, in music, a composition expressly written for two voices or instruments, with or without a bass and accompaniments. In good duets the execution is pretty equally distributed between the two parts, and the melodies so dependent on each other, as to lose every effect when separated, but to be perfectly related and concinnous when heard together.

**DUFF'S ISLANDS**, or **DUFF'S GROUP**, a range of islands in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered by captain Wilson, in the course of his missionary voyage in the Duff. They are about eleven in number, and extend fourteen or fifteen miles in a north-west to south-east direction. They are of different sizes; the smallest is apparently barren, but the largest two, which are about six miles in circumference, and situated in the middle of the others, are well wooded. Between these two there is a small islet; and at the end of one on the north-west part of the group rises a remarkable rock in the shape of a pillar. The natives, who are stout and well made, were shy and apprehensive of strangers. A village was seen on the south-west side of Disappointment Island, the largest of this group. They have ornamented canoes about twelve or fourteen feet long, and about fifteen inches broad, which seemed to be made of a single tree. Long. 167° E., lat. 9° 57' S.

**DUFRESNE**, or **DU FRESNE** (Charles), lord of Cange, hence often called Ducange; a man



of letters, who did much for the history of the middle ages, especially as regards his own country, as well as for the Byzantine history. He was born in 1610, at a farm near Amiens, of a respectable family, and studied in the Jesuits' college, at that place, afterwards at Orleans and Paris. At this last place he became parliamentary advocate, in 1631, and, in 1645, royal treasurer at Amiens, from which place he was driven by a pestilence, in 1668, to Paris. Here he devoted himself entirely to literature, and published his great works, viz., his Glossary of the Greek and Latin peculiar to the Middle Ages and the Moderns; his *Historia Byzantina* (Paris, 1680, fol.); the *Annals of Zonaras*; the *Numismatics of the Middle Ages*, and other important and valuable works. He died in the year 1688.

**DUGDALE** (Sir William), an eminent English historian, antiquarian, and herald, born in Warwickshire in 1605. He was introduced into the herald's office by Sir Christopher Hatton; and ascended gradually through all the degrees, until he became garter principal king at arms. His chief work is the *Monasticum Anglicanum*, in 3 vols. folio; containing the charters and descriptions of all the English monasteries, adorned with engravings. Nor are his Antiquities of Warwickshire less esteemed. He wrote likewise the History of St. Paul's Cathedral; a History of Embanking and Draining; a Baronsage of England; and completed the second volume of Sir Henry Spelman's Councils, with a second part of his Glossary. He died in 1686. His son John was Norroy king at arms, and published a Catalogue of English Nobility.

**DUGOMMIER** (M.), a French republican general, a native of Martinique in the West Indies, where, at the beginning of the revolution, he defended Fort St. Pierre against a body of troops sent from France. He was at this time a considerable proprietor, and colonel of the national guards of the island. He afterwards went to France to procure succours for the patriots. In 1793 he rapidly rose to be general of brigade; and then commander in chief of the army in Italy, where he gained many advantages with a very inferior force. He took Toulon December 19th, 1793, as commander in chief of the army of the Eastern Pyrenees, and prosecuted the war against the Spaniards with great success. On the 1st of May, 1794, he gained the battle of Albedes, and seized Montesquieu, taking 200 pieces of cannon, and 2000 prisoners. In August, 1794, he defeated an army of nearly 50,000 men at St. Laurence de la Monga, and was killed November 17th, in an engagement at St. Sebastian. The convention decreed that his name should be inscribed on a column of the Pantheon.

**DUILLIA LEX**, the Duillian law, a Roman law, enacted by M. Duillius, a tribune, A. U. C. 304. It made it a capital crime to leave the Roman people without its tribunes, or to create any new magistrate without a sufficient cause. There was another Duillian law in 392, regulating the interest to be paid for money lent.

**DUILLIUS NEPOS** (Caius), a Roman consul, the first who obtained a victory over the naval

power of Carthage, A. U. C. 492. He took the ships, and was honored with a naval triumph, the first that ever appeared at Rome. The senate rewarded his valor by permitting him to have music playing, and torches lighted, at the public expense, every day while he was a supper. There were some medals struck in commemoration of this victory; and there still exists a column at Rome, which was erected on the occasion.

**DUISBURG**, a town of Prussia, in the duchy of Westphalia, and that part of the former duchy of Cleves which lies on the east, or right bank of the Rhine. It has two churches, three convents. The university founded here for Franciscans, in 1635, was removed to Düsseldorf in 1806. Its chief manufactures are in cloth and iron. It is seated on the Roer, a little below where it falls into the Rhine. Inhabited in 1600. It lies fourteen miles north of Düsseldorf, and thirty-five north-west of Cologne.

**DUKE**, *n. s.* } Fr. *duc*; Span. and Port. *duque*; Ital. *duca*, from Lat. *dux*, *ducis*, à *duco*, to lead. See the article

And thou Bethlehem, the fond of Juda, for of thee a *dugh* schal go out that schal governe thy people Israel.

The duke of Cornwall, and Regan his *duchess* will be here with him this knight.

*Shakespeare. King Lear.*

Her brother found a wife,

Where he himself was lost; Prospero his *duchess*. In a poor isle.

*Id. Tempest.*

Aurmarle, Surrey, and Exeter, must use

The names of *dukes*, their titles, dignities,

And whatsoever profits thereby rise.

*Dan. Civil War.*

The cardinal never resigned his purple in the prospect of giving an heir to the *duchedom* of Tuscany.

*Adams.*

A prince can mak a belted knight,

A marquis, *duke*, and a' that;

But an honest man's aboon his might,

Guid faith he mauna fa' that! *Ben.*

**DUKE**, *dux*, was originally a Roman *dux*, denominated a *duciendo*, leading or commanding. Accordingly, the first *dukes*, *duces*, were *ductores exercituum*, commanders of armies. Under the later emperors, the governors of provinces during war were entitled *duces*. In after times the same denomination was also given to the governors of provinces, in time of peace. The first governor under this name was a duke of the *Marchia Rhaetica*, or *Grisons*, of whom mention is made in *Cassiodorus*; there were afterwards thirteen dukes in the eastern empire, and twelve in the western. The Goths and Vandals, upon their overrunning the provinces of the western empire, abolished the Roman dignities wherever they settled. But the Franks, to please the Gauls, who had long been used to that form of government, made it a point of politics not to change any thing therein; and accordingly they divided all Gaul into *duchies* and counties; and gave the names, sometimes of dukes, and sometimes of counts, comites, to the governors of them. In England, during the time of the Saxons, Camden observes, the officers and commanders of armies were called dukes, *duces*, after the ancient Roman manner.





DIDEROT.



DUGDALE.



SIR F. DRAKE.



DRYDEN.



GERARD DOUW.



DUPIN.



LORD DUNCAN.



DUGDALE.



DUNNING.







but any addition. After the Couqueror in, the title lay dormant till the reign of Edward III., who created his son Edward, first the Black Prince, duke of Cornwall; and has ever since been the peculiar inheritance of the king's eldest son during the life of the father; so that he is *dux natus, non creatus*. To him there were more made, in such manner that their titles descended to their posterity. They were created with much solemnity, *cincturam gladii, cappæque, et circuli in capite impositionem*. However, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, A.D. 1572, the whole became utterly extinct; but it was revived fifty years afterwards by her successor, in the person of George Villiers, duke of Buckingham.

Though the French retained the names in form of the ducal government, yet under the second race of kings there were scarcely any; but all the great lords were counts, or barons; excepting, however, the dukes of Burgundy and Aquitain, and the duke of Normandy, which was a dignity Hugh Capet himself held, corresponding to that of *maire de France*, or king's lieutenant. By the weakness of the kings, the dukes or governors sometimes considered themselves sovereigns of the provinces committed to their administration. This change began chiefly about the time of Hugh Capet, when the lords began to dismember the kingdom, so that that prince found more competitors among them than subjects. It was even with a great deal of difficulty they could be brought to acknowledge him their superior, or to hold of him by homage. By degrees those provinces, duchies and counties, which had been rent from the crown, were again united to it. But the title duke was no longer given to the governors of provinces. From that time it became a title of dignity, annexed to a person and his heirs male, without giving him any domain, territory, or jurisdiction over the place whereof he was duke. All the advantages therefore now lost in the name, and the precedence it had. Modern dukes retain nothing of their former splendor but the coronet on their helmet. It is composed of a rim of gold, encircled with ermine, and mounted with eight strawberry leaves, in continuation from that of an archbishop, which has four strawberry leaves and four pearls.



They are created by patent, cincture of sword, mantle of state, imposition of a coronet of gold upon the head, and a scepter of gold in their hand. The eldest sons of dukes are by the courtesy of England styled marquesses, though they are usually distinguished by their father's second title, whether it be earl or duke; and the younger sons lords. The addition of their Christian name, as James, lord Thomas, &c., and they take the name of viscounts, though not so privileged by law. A duke has the title of grace; and he is styled, in heraldic language, most high, potent,

and noble prince. Dukes of the blood royal are styled most high, most mighty, and illustrious princes. There are also sovereigns who bear the title of duke. The title of **GREAT DUKE** belongs to the heir-apparent of Russia; that of **ARCH-DUKE** to all the sons of the house of Austria, and that of **ARCH-DUCHESS** to all the daughters. See these articles.

**DUKE**, among Hebrew grammarians, is an appellation given to a species of accents answering to our comma.

**DUKE** (Richard), a clergyman and inferior poet of the last century. Dr. Johnson says, 'His poems are not below mediocrity, nor have I found much in them to be praised.' He was a native of Otterton in Devonshire, and educated at Westminster school, and Trinity College, Cambridge, where he obtained a fellowship. He was presented to the living of Blaby in Leicestershire in 1688, and was soon after made a prebend of Gloucester. Just previous to his death, which took place in 1710, he became possessed of the valuable benefice of Witney in Oxfordshire. He was the author of Translations of some of the Odes of Horace, and some detached poems.

**DUKE-DUKE**, a title given in Spain to a grandee of the house of Sylva, on account of his having several duchies, from the uniting of two considerable houses in his person. Don Roderigo de Sylva, eldest son of Don Ruy Gomez de Sylva, and heir of his duchies and principalities, married the eldest daughter of the duke de l'Infantado; by which marriage the present duke de Pastrana, who is descended therefrom, and is grandson of Don Roderigo de Sylva, has added to other titles that of duke-duke, to distinguish himself from the other dukes; some whereof may enjoy several duchies, but none so considerable ones, nor the titles of such eminent families.

**DUKE'S COUNTY**, a county on the south-east coast of the state of Massachusetts, comprehending Martha's Vineyard Island, Chabaquiddick Island, Norman's Island, and the Elizabeth Islands. The chief town is Edganton. Population 3290.

**DUKE OF CLARENCE'S STRAIT** is a channel on the east coast of North America, bounded on the east by the Duke of York's Islands, part of the continent, and the isles of Gravina. To the west the shore is an extensive tract of land, forming an archipelago, to which Vancouver gave the name of the Prince of Wales's Archipelago.

**The DUKE OF GLOUCESTER'S ISLANDS** are two woody islands of the South Pacific Ocean, about five or six leagues asunder. They were visited in 1767 by captain Carteret. The most southern is of a half-moon shape, low, flat, and sandy, with a reef projecting half a mile from the south end, where the sea breaks violently: its appearance is agreeable, but it affords neither vegetables nor water. There seemed also no traces of inhabitants. Many birds were seen on it, however, and they were so tame, that they readily allowed themselves to be taken. Captain Carteret thought these islands were seen by Quiros, the Spanish navigator, in 1606. One lies in lat.



20° 38' S., long. 146° W.; the other in lat. 20° 34' S., long. 146° 15' W.

**DUKE OF YORK'S ISLAND**, an island of the South Pacific Ocean, in St. George's Channel, which divides New Ireland and New Britain. It is situated between Cape Palliser and Cape Stephens, where the strait is about fifteen leagues broad, and has a beautiful aspect, being covered inland with lofty woods, which near the water-side are interspersed with the houses of the natives. Their canoes are very neat. Long. 151° 20' E., lat. 4° 9' S.

**DUKE OF YORK'S ISLAND**, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered in 1765 by commodore Byron. It is low, and about thirty miles in circumference. There is a large lake in the centre, and the whole island is well wooded. The surf breaks violently round the coast. No inhabitants were seen. Long. 187° 30' E., lat. 7° 56' S.

**DUKE OF YORK'S ISLANDS**, a cluster of islands off the north-western coast of America. They were first discovered by Vancouver, from whom they received their present name. They extend about fifty miles in length, and twenty-five in breadth. Long. 227° 15' to 228° 15' E., lat. 55° 50' N.

**DUKER** (Charles Andrew), a celebrated German editor and critic, was born at Unna in Westphalia in 1670. He was educated at the university of Franeker, and appointed professor of ancient history at Utrecht, where he acquired great notice. His works are, *Oratio de Difficultatibus Quibusdam Interpretationis Grammaticæ Veterum Scriptorum Græcorum et Latinorum*; *Sylloge Opusculorum Variorum de Latinitate Jurisconsultorum Veterum*; an edition of *Thucydides*; and an edition of *Florus*, &c. &c. He died at Meyderick, near Duisbourg in 1752.

**DUL'CET**, *adj.* } Fr. *doucet*, from Lat. *dulcis*, sweet. To *dulcify*  
**DUL'CIFY**, *v. a.* } *dulcis*, sweet. To *dulcify*  
**DUL'CIMER**, *n. s.* } or *dulcorate*, is to make  
**DUL'CORATE**, *v. a.* } sweet : *dulcimer*, an in-  
**DUL'CORATION**, *n. s.* } strument remarkable for its sweet tones.

Ye hear the sound of the cornet, flute, harp, sackbut, psaltery, *dulcimer*, and all kinds of musick.

*Daniel* iii. 5.

I sat upon a promontory,  
And heard a mermaid, on a dolphin's back,  
Uttering such *dulcet* and harmonious breath,  
That the rude sea grew civil at her song.

*Shakspeare.*

The ancients, for the *dulcorating* of fruit, do commend swine's dung above all other dung. *Bacon.*

Malt gathereth a sweetness to the taste, which appeareth in the wort : the *dulcoration* of things is worthy to be tried to the full ; for that *dulcoration* importeth a degree to nourishment : and the making of things inalimental to become alimental, may be an experiment of great profit. *Id.*

A decoction of wild gourd, or colocynthis, though somewhat qualified, will not from every hand be *dulcified* into aliment, by an addition of flour or meal.

*Broune.*

A fabrick huge

Rose like an exhalation, with the sound  
Of *dulcet* symphonies, and voices sweet.

*Milton.*

In colcothar, the exactest calcination, below exquisite *dulcification*, does not reduce the body into elementary earth ; for after the sublimation, if the calcination have been too faint, out of the colcothar, the residue is not such a mixt body, rich in medical virtues.

Turbith mineral, as it is sold in the shop, is a rough medicine ; but, being somewhat *dulcorated*, procureth vomiting, and then salivation.

*Wierow's.*

I dressed him with a pledgit, dip't in a tincture of vitriol.

Spirit of wine *dulcifies* spirit of salt ; spirits have other bad effects. *Arbutnotus on.*

They to the dome where smoke with curls

Announced the dinner to the regions n

Summoned the singer blithe, and harper

And aided wine with *dulcet*-streaming

*Dr. Johnson*

High o'er the chequered vault with trans  
Bright lusters dart, as dash the waves below  
And echo's sweet responsive voice prolong  
The *dulcet* tumult of their silver tongues.

So well that thought the' employment  
suit,

Psalttery and sackbut, *dulcimer* and flute.

O fie ! 'tis evangelical and pure :

Observe each face, how sober and demure

**DUL'IA**, *n. s.* *Δουλία*. An inferior adoration.

Paleotus saith, that the same worship which is the prototype may be given to the images of the different degrees of latria and dulia. *S.*

**DULL**, *adj. & v. a.* } Got. *dulla*, a

**DUL'LARD**, *n. s.* } dole ; Swed.

**DULL'-EYED**, *adj.* } *doll* ; Wel. *di*

**DULL'-HEAD**, *n. s.* } *duol* ; Gr. *δουλ*

**DUL'LY**, *adv.* } vant. Tooke

**DULL'NESS**, *n. s.* } the Ang-Sax

to thicken. Heavy, thick ; stupid ; sad ; melancholy ; drowsy : as a verb stupid ; to blunt ; thicken ; weaken ; make heavy. A *dullard*, or *dullhead*, head.

This people's heart is waxed gross, and are *dull* of hearing. *Md.*

For to illumine she said I was to *dull*  
Adaysynge me my penne awaye to pull

Nothing hath more *dulled* the wits, or the will of children from learning, the making of Latin.

This people be fools and *dulheads* to all but subtle, cunning, and bold in any mischief.

Now forced to overflow with blackish  
The troublous noise did *dull* their dainty

*Id.*

O help thou my weak wit, and sharp tongue. *Fern.*

Prayers were short, as if darts thrown sudden quickness, lest that vigilant attention of mind, which in prayer is very should be wasted or *dulled* through continu

Such is their evil hap to play upon men.

He that hath learned no wit by nature may complain of gross breeding, or even *dull* kindred.

Borrowing *dulls* the edge of industry.

This arm of mine hath chafed

The petty rebel, *dulbrained* Buckingham



made a soft and dull-eyed fool,  
 dead, relent, and sigh, and yield  
 mercers. *Id. Merchant of Venice.*  
 'st thou me a dullard in this act?  
 speak to me? *Id. Cymbeline.*

cease more questions;  
 sed to sleep. 'Tis a good dullness,  
 y. *Id. Tempest.*

as) dulleth the spirits, and destroyeth  
 doth an old tree, or as the worm that  
 he kernel of the nut. *Raleigh.*

is so near a dead man, that he is  
 ked in the list of the living; and as  
 uried whilst he is half alive, so he is  
 ployed whilst he is half dead.

*Saville.*  
 and damps all industries, wherein  
 stirring, if it were not for the slug.  
*Bacon.*

f Germany had but a dull fear of the  
 n, upon a general apprehension: now  
 ened and pointed. *Id.*  
 continual use of any thing, groweth  
 dullness either of appetite or working.  
*Id.*

be moist, doth in a degree quench  
 owsoever maketh it burn more dully.  
*Id.*

press weak spirits, and our sense  
 dull; the more the less we see.  
*Donne.*

h Time, Slack thing, said I,  
 dull; whet it, for shame. *Herbert.*

ay reform negligent boys, but not  
 at are insensibly dull. All the whet-  
 l can never set a razor's edge on that  
 steel in it. *Fuller.*

ow like thee! and make thy stream  
 ample, as it is my theme;  
 clear, tho' gentle yet not dull;  
 at rage, without o'erflowing full.

*Denham. Cooper's Hill.*  
 I think those pantomimes,  
 action with the times,  
 ingenious in their art  
 who dully act one part. *Hudibras.*

ven the dullest, is thinking more than  
 it can teach him how to utter.  
*Dryden.*

alous my perfect image bears,  
 dullness from his tender years. *Id.*

ient to imitate nature in every cir-  
 cularly, and meanly; but it becomes  
 what is most beautiful.

*Id. Dufresnoy.*  
 ulled with all, that we could come so  
 er speeches, and yet she not perceive  
 er lamentations. *Sidney.*

ecessary to all conditions of life,  
 to fear it should grow dull for want of  
 cise would make it stronger. *Locke.*

ness of the scholar to extinguish, but  
 e, the charity of the teacher. *South.*

ew, Andrew! cries his brother droll;  
 methinks, is something dull. *Prior.*

s affect the politician's part,  
 nod, and smile, and shrug with art.  
*Congreve.*

has travelled life's dull round,  
 his stages may have bern,  
 a to think he still has found  
 at welcome at an inn. *Shenstone.*

As turns a flock of geese, and, on the green,  
 Poke out their foolish necks in awkward spleen,  
 (Ridiculous in rage)! to hiss, not bite,  
 So war their quills, when sons of Dullness write.  
*Young.*

In England every man may be an author that can  
 write; for they have by law a liberty, not only of say-  
 ing what they please, but of being as dull as they  
 please. *Goldsmith.*

Dullness it is easy to despise, and laughter it is  
 easy to repay. *Johnson. Plan of Dictionary.*

The punch goes round, and they are dull  
 And lumpish still as ever;  
 Like barrels with their bellies full,  
 They only weigh the heavier. *Cowper.*

Could thine art  
 Make them indeed immortal, and impart  
 The purity of heaven to earthly joys,  
 Expel the venom and not blunt the dart—  
 The dull satiety which all destroys—  
 And root from out the soul the deadly weed which  
 cloyes? *Byron.*

DULL, in the manege. The marks of a dull  
 horse, called by the French, *marquis de ladre*,  
 are white spots round the eye and on the tip of  
 the nose, upon any general color whatsoever.

Though some take these spots for signs of stu-  
 pidity, it is certain they are great marks of the  
 goodness of a horse; and the horses that have  
 them are very sensible and quick upon the spur.

DULSE, or DILLS, a kind of esculent sea-  
 weed, eaten by the common people near Edin-  
 burgh. See *FUCUS, PALMATUS*.

DULWICH, a hamlet of Camberwell, five  
 miles from London; celebrated for its college,  
 founded by Alleyn, the actor, in consequence of  
 a supposed apparition of the devil. See *ALLEYN*.

This foundation was endowed for the mainte-  
 nance of six poor men, six poor women, and  
 twelve poor boys; the latter of whom, when  
 they arrive at a proper age, are either sent to the  
 universities, or apprenticed. This establishment  
 is under the direction of a master (who must  
 always be of the name of Allen), a warden, and  
 four fellows, of whom three must be divines,  
 and the fourth an organist. The master is lord  
 of the manor for a considerable extent; but  
 both he and the warden and fellows must con-  
 tinue unmarried, on pain of exclusion. The  
 building was erected after a design of Inigo  
 Jones, and contains the chapel and master's  
 apartments in front; the chambers for the poor  
 men, women, and boys, are in the wings. The  
 beautiful prospects of this village and its neigh-  
 bourhood have made it a favorite residence of  
 many gentry and citizens of London.

DULVERTON, a town in Somersetshire,  
 seated on a branch of the Ex; twenty-four  
 miles east of Barnstaple, and 165 west by south  
 of London. It has a market on Saturday, and  
 a manufacture of coarse woollens and blankets.

There are some lead mines near the town, but  
 the ore is hard and barren. Market on Saturday,  
 the toll of which is annually distributed to the  
 poor.

DUMAS (Louis), an ingenious Frenchman,  
 was the natural son of Montcalm, lord of  
 Candiac, born at Nismes, in 1676. He was bred  
 to the law, but applied himself to mathematical  
 and mechanical studies. He invented an instru-



ment called the Bureau Typographique, to teach children reading and writing mechanically. He also devised another, for instructing them in music. On both these subjects he wrote explanatory treatises, besides a history of the unfortunate Mary, queen of Scots. He died in 1744.

DUMAS (Charles Louis), a French surgeon and anatomist, who suggested considerable improvements in the nomenclature of anatomy. He was professor of the science at Montpellier, where he died in 1814. His works are A Treatise on Mythology, in which is proposed a new mode of classification and denomination of the muscles; and Principes de Physiologie, Paris, 1806, 4 vols. 8vo.

DUMB, *adj.*

DUMB'LY, *adv.*

DUMB'NESS, *n. s.*

DUMB-FOUND, *v. a.*

Goth, *dumbs*; Saxon,

dumb; Dan. *dum*; Belg.

and Germ. *stumm*, from

Heb. *שמר*, he was silent.

Mute; incapable or deprived of speech: hence silent, refusing to speak. To dumbfound, is to strike dumb.

And the angel answerde and seyde to him, for Y am Gabriel that stonde nygh bfore God, and Y am sent to thee to speke and to evangelise to thee these thingis, and lo thou schalt be dumble. *Wiclif.*

It hath pleased himself sometime to unloose the very tongues even of dumb creatures, and to teach them to plead in their own defence, lest the cruelty of man should persist to afflict them. *Hooker.*

They spake not a word;

But like dumb statues or unbreathing stones,

Stared each on other. *Shakespeare. Richard III.*

There was speech in their dumbness, language in their very gesture: they looked as they had heard of a world ransomed or one destroyed.

*Id. Winter's Tale.*

Silence in love bewrays more woe

Than words, tho' ne'er so witty;

A beggar that is dumb, you know,

May challenge double pity. *Raleigh.*

The tenants wonder at their land-lord's sonne,  
And blesse them at so sudden coming on,  
More than who vies his pence to view some trick  
Of strange Morocco's dumbe arithmetike.

*Bp. Hall. Satires, iv. 2.*

His gentle dumb expression turned at length

The eye of Eve to mark his play. *Milton.*

Her humble gestures made the residue plain,

Dumb eloquence persuading more than speech.

*Roscommon.*

'Tis love, said she; and then my downcast eyes,

And guilty dumbness, witnessed my surprize. *Dryden.*

For he who covets gain in such excess

Does by dumb signs himself as much express,

As if in words at length he showed his mind.

*Id. Juvenal.*

They had like to have dumbfounded the justice; but his clerk came in to his assistance. *Spectator.*

Nothing is more common than for lovers to complain, relent, languish, despair, and die in dumb show.

*Addison.*

Some positive terms signify a negative idea; blind implies a privation of sight, dumb a denial of speech.

*Watts's Logic.*

The dumb shall sing, the lame his crutch forego,  
And leap exulting like the bounding roe. *Pope.*

At length our mighty bard's victorious lays  
Fill the loud voice of universal praise;

And baffled spite with hopeless anguish dead  
Yields to renown the centuries to come.

*Johnson.*

Loud when they beg, dumb only when they

Unless an instance has occurred of first having in a disorderly manner, or a dumb barking in consequence of the hydrophobia receive such a phrase could not have been in

And near, the beat of the alarming drum  
Roused up the soldier ere the morning sun  
While thronged the citizens with terror  
Or whispering, with white lips—'The  
come! they come!'

DUMBNESS. The most general, and sole cause of dumbness, is the want of hearing. The use of language is acquired by imitating articulate sound this source of intelligence, deaf people excluded: they cannot acquire articulation by the ear: unless, therefore, articulation communicated to them by some other these unhappy people must for ever be of the use of language. Deafness has been considered as such a total bar to speech or written language, that a to teach the deaf to speak or read was regarded as impracticable, till Dr. W. some others showed that although deaf cannot learn to speak or read by the of the ear, there are other sources of by which the same effect may be The organs of hearing and of speech or no connexion. Persons deprived of mer generally possess the latter in such tion, that nothing further is necessary, to make them articulate, than to teach to use these organs. This indeed is not but experience shows that it is practicable.

The late Mr. Thomas Braidwood, was the first who ever brought this surprising degree of perfection. He began single pupil in 1764; and, since that he taught great numbers of people both speak distinctly; to read, to write, to figures, the principles of religion and &c. and even to make a rapid progress in useful branches of education. Mr. B. principal difficulty, after he had discovered art, was to make the public believe in the capability of it. He advertised in the papers; he exhibited his pupils to many men and gentlemen; still he found the people of mankind unwilling to receive his claim.

The first effort in this method is, to teach pupil to pronounce the simple sounds: vowels and consonants. He would present the sound of a slowly, pointing out the letter at the same time, and making the observe the motion of his mouth and anxiously imitating him all the while, till first at a loss to understand what he would him do. In this manner he proceeded till pupil had learned to pronounce the letters. He went on in the same manner join a vowel and a consonant, till at last pupil was enabled both to speak and read his pupils were taught not only the method



tion, but also to understand the meaning it they read, was easily ascertained by a nation with any of them. Of this Mr. at gives a remarkable instance in a young of about thirteen years of age, who had me time under the care of Mr. Braidwood. ad, she wrote well, says that writer, her g was not by rote. She could clothe the thought in a new set of words, and never om the original sense.

ew and different method, equally laborious successful, was practised by the abbé de e, of Berlin. He began not by endeavour- form the organs of speech to articulate , but communicating ideas to the mind us of signs and characters : to effect this, e down the names of things; and, by a system of signs, established a connexion n these words and the ideas to be excited n. After he had thus furnished his pupils eas, and a medium of communication, he them to articulate and pronounce. In nner he enabled one of his pupils to a Latin oration in public, and another to a thesis against the objections of one of ow-pupils in a scholastic disputation; but not appear that the abbé taught his to understand what was spoken. There aps no word, says the abbé, more difficult ain by signs than the verb croire, 'to . To do this, he wrote the verb with its ations in the following manner:—

*Je dis oui par l'esprit, Je pense que oui.*

*Je dis oui par le coeur, J'aime à penser que oui.*

*Je dis oui par la bouche.*

*Je ne vois pas des yeux.*

teaching these four significations by as signs, he connected them with the verb, ided other signs to express the number, tens, and mood, in which it is used. If four signs, corresponding with the lines mentioned, he added that of a substantive, pil will write the word foi, 'faith;' but, gn, indicating a participle used substan- be adjoined, he will express la croyance, ;' to make him write croyable, 'credible,' r signs of the verb must be accompanied he that indicates an adjective terminating : all these signs are rapidly made, and ately comprehended. M. Linguet, a r of the Royal Academy, having asserted rsons thus instructed could be considered e more than automata, the abbé invited be present at his lessons, and expressed nishment, that M. Linguet should be so ced in favor of the medium by which received the first rudiments of knowledge, onclude that they could not be imparted other; desiring him, at the same time, et, that the connexion between ideas and ulate sounds by which they are excited mind, is not less arbitrary than that be- these ideas and the written characters are made to represent them to the eye. guet complied with the invitation; and be having desired him to fix on some t term, which he would by signs com- te to his pupils, he chose the word un-

intelligibility; which, to his astonishment, was almost instantly written by one of them. The abbé informed him, that to communicate this word he had used five signs, which, though scarcely perceivable to him, were immediately and distinctly apprehended by his scholars: the first of these signs indicated an internal action; the second represented the act of a mind that reads internally, or, in other words, comprehends what is proposed to it; a third signified that such a disposition is possible; these, taken together, form the word intelligible: a fourth sign trans- forms the adjective into the substantive; and a fifth, expressing negation, completes the word required. M. Linguet afterwards proposed this question, What do you understand by metaphysical ideas? which being committed to writing, a young lady immediately answered on paper in the following terms: 'I understand the ideas of things which are independent of our senses, which are beyond the reach of our senses, which make no impression on our senses, which cannot be perceived by our senses.'

In the Ephemerides of the Curious, we have an account of a periodical dumbness, which had continued for more than fifteen years, and had not gone off at the time the account was written. The person was son to an inn-keeper at Jesing, in the duchy of Wirtemberg. He was one night taken so ill after supper, that he could neither stand nor sit. He continued, for about an hour, oppressed with sickness, to such a degree as to be in danger of suffocation. At the expiration of this time he grew better; but, during three months, he was much dejected, melancholy, and, at times, fearful. He was then suddenly struck dumb, and became unable to pronounce the least word, or form the least sound, though he could speak very articulately before. The loss of speech was at first instantaneous, and continued only a few minutes: but the duration of it began to lengthen every day; so that it soon amounted to half an hour, two hours, three hours, and at last to twenty-three hours, yet without any order. And at last the return of speech kept so constant and regular an order, that, for fourteen years together, he could not speak except from noon, during the space of one entire hour, to the precise moment of one o'clock. Every time he lost his speech, he felt something rise from his stomach to his throat. Excepting this loss of speech, he was afflicted with no other disorder of any animal function. Both his internal and external senses continued sound; he heard always perfectly well, and answered the questions proposed to him by gestures or writing. All suspicion of deceit was removed by his keeping exactly the same hour, though he had no access to any instruments by which time can be measured.

Modern researches into this curious and interesting topic, instigated mainly, perhaps, by the efforts of the abbé de l'Épée, have made us better acquainted both with the few historical facts that belong to the subject, and with the actual faculties possessed by the dumb. In this country, in particular, the art of instructing these unhappy persons has been cultivated, of late years, with great success.



Aristotle notices, *Hist. An.* iv. 9, that deafness produces dumbness, but speaks of no remedy for this calamity. Pliny, who quotes the learned Stagirite on this subject, mentions a young painter, Q. Pedius, xxxv. 7, who was born deaf and dumb; but through the care of a kinsman in his education, he attained considerable eminence in his art. The first person who is recorded to have made any systematic attempts to instruct the deaf and dumb, is Pedro de Ponce, a Benedictine monk of Sahagen, in Spain. He died in 1584. The earliest publication on this subject, is a Spanish work of the early part of the seventeenth century, 1620, *Reduction de las Letras, y Arte para enseñar a hablar los Mudos*, written by the then secretary to the constable of Castile, Bonet. A brother of the constable having been born deaf, was likewise dumb, and Bonet was one of his tutors. But Sir Kenelm Digby, who saw the former in the course of his travels, ascribes the faculty he possessed of understanding conversation, to the successful efforts of an ecclesiastic. 'There was a priest,' he says, 'who undertook the teaching him to understand others when they spoke, and to speak himself that others might understand him, for which attempt at first he was laughed at; yet, after some years he was looked upon as if he had wrought a miracle. In a word, after strange patience, constancy, and pains, he brought the young lord to speak as distinctly as any man whatsoever, and to understand so perfectly what others said, that he would not lose a word in a whole day's conversation. I have often discoursed with the priest whilst I waited upon the prince of Wales, now our gracious sovereign, in Spain, and I doubt not but his majesty remembreth all I have said of him, and much more; for his majesty was very curious to observe and inquire into the utmost of it. He could discern in another whether he spoke shrill or low; and he would repeat after any body any hard word whatsoever, which the prince tried often, not only in English, but by making some Welshmen that served his highness, speak words of their language, which he so perfectly echoed, that I confesse I wondred more at that than at all the rest, and his master himself would acknowledge, that the rules of his art reached not to produce that effect with any certainty. And therefore concluded, this in him must spring from other rules he had framed unto himself out of his attentive observation, which the advantages which nature had justly given him in the sharpness of senses to supply the want of this, endowed him with an ability and sagacity to do beyond any other man that had his hearing. He expressed it surely, in a high measure, by his so exact imitation of the Welsh pronunciation, for that tongue, like the Hebrew, employeth much the guttural letters, and the motion of that part which frameth them cannot be seen or judged by the eye, otherwise than by the effect they may happily make by consent, in the other parts of the mouth exposed to view! For the knowledge he had of what they said, sprung from his observing the motions they made, so that he could converse currently in the light, though they he talked with whispered never so softly; and I have seen him, at the dis-

tance of a large chamber's breadth, say words after one, that I, standing close by the speaker, could not hear a syllable of.'

The next writer on the subject was Dr. John Bulwer, 'surnamed,' as he tells us, 'the Orator,' in 1648. His tract was entitled, *Philosophus, or the Deafe and Dumb Man's Friend*, 'exhibiting the philosophical verity of that subtle arte which may inable with an observant eare heare what any man speaks by the moving of his lips. Upon the same ground, with the advantage of an historical exemplification, apparently proving that a man borne deafe and dumb may be taught to heare the sound of words with his eare, and hence learne to speake with his tongue.' This writer was tutor to Sir Edward Gaster of Wellington, in Bedfordshire, and Mr. William Gastwicke his youngest brother, who were both dumb. He also published, in 1644, *Chirologia, or the Natural Language of the Hand; and Chirologia, or the Art of Manuel Rhetorica*. In 1670 Dr. Wallis inserted a Letter to Mr. Boyle on this subject, in the *Philosophical Transactions*; and another in 1698. It is also mentioned by him incidentally in his *Grammatica Linguae Anglicanae*; and a treatise prefixed to a *Loquelia, seu de Sonorum omnium Loquutione Formatione*. In the *Philosophical Transactions* for January, 1668, an account is given of a man published the preceding year by a M. Bledius of Salzburgh, entitled *Alphabetum Naturae*.

Dr. Holder's *Elements of Speech* appeared in 1669, with an appendix expressly concerning persons deaf and dumb, and containing an account of his successful endeavours to teach Mr. A. Popham, a dumb son of colonel Popham, to speak. He was one of those persons who could hear a softer sound when the action of the tympanum was excited by a loud one. Dr. Holder first taught him to write, and then showed him the motion of the lips necessary to pronounce each separate letter. Dr. Wallis had been successful a little earlier in the education of a youth similarly circumstanced, the son of the apothecary Northampton. In the course of a year this youth could read 'a great part of the English Bible, and had attained so much skill as to express himself intelligibly in ordinary affairs; to understand letters written to him, and to write answers to them, though not elegantly, yet so as to be understood.' In the presence of many foreigners, 'who out of curiosity had come to see him, as well as before the court and the royal family, he had 'often not only read English and Latin, but pronounced the most difficult words of that language, even Polish itself, which they could propose to him.' Young Popham was afterwards removed to the care of Dr. Wallis; and this circumstance, together with what Dr. Holder thought an unfair passage in one of Dr. Wallis's publications, produced a controversy between the two writers, to be found in the *Philosophical Transactions*, 1670. In *Transactions*, 1698, p. 118, Dr. Wallis enters fully into his own part of the matter, it is contended by some writers, that no material addition has been since made.

We ought not here, perhaps to omit mention the early and scarce tract of George Delap, a Scottish schoolmaster, entitled *Didacticum, or the Deaf and Dumb Man's Tutor*, which was



In a small volume at Oxford, in 1680, sign he states to be, 'to bring the way of sign a deaf man to read and write, as near as possible to that of teaching young ones to read and understand their mother tongue.' 'In stating this general idea,' says Mr. Dugald Stewart, 'he has treated in one short chapter, of Man's Dictionary; and, in another, of a treatise for Deaf Persons; both of them containing a variety of precious hints, from which practical lights might be derived by those who have any concern in the tuition of the deaf during the first stage of their education.' Mr. Stewart's Account of a Boy born Blind and Deaf, Transactions, Royal Society edition, 1709. II. Dalgarno had, twenty years before, written to the world a very ingenious piece, entitled *Ars Signorum*, from which, says Mr. Stewart, it appears indisputably that he was the precursor of bishop Wilkins in his *Speculation concerning 'a real character, and a philosophical language'*. 'That Dalgarno's suggestions, with respect to the education of the deaf,' adds Mr. Stewart, 'were not altogether unknown to Dr. Wallis, will be readily admitted by those who take the trouble to compare his *De Grammatica* to Mr. Beverly, published eighteen years after Dalgarno's Treatise, with his *Tractatus de Grammatica*, published in 1653. In this letter valuable remarks are to be found on the method of leading the dumb to the signification of words; and yet the name of Dalgarno is not mentioned to his correspondent.'

Several recent professors of this useful art have been Father Vannin and Mons. Perceval of Paris; Mr. Heinrich, of Leipsic; Mr. Braidwood of London; and Mr. Braidwood, of Edinburgh; the abbé de l'Épée; and his successor the abbé Sicard; Dr. Watson, formerly assistant of Mr. Braidwood; and Mr. Young, of Glasgow.

We have noticed the plans of Mr. Braidwood and the abbé de l'Épée. The latter, in the last years of his life, relinquished an object upon which he employed considerable pains at the commencement of his career, viz. teaching the deaf to use articulate sounds: the abbé Sicard, in the year 1815, also abandoned every attempt of this kind.

In England and Scotland this has been a point with professors, and Dr. Watson is decidedly of its utility, as multiplying means of association, whereby the dumb, like other persons, retain and digest ideas. He tells us that he constantly found deaf persons had learnt to articulate, speaking softly to themselves; and rehearsing words or sentences, for the purpose of better remembering or of framing such expressions as would convey their ideas. This appears very important; and we understand that the abbé Sicard, since his visit to England in the year above mentioned, has resumed the abbé de l'Épée's original plan.

This gentleman is at the head of the continental system of employing artificial signs for the expression of ideas, or a set of conventional gestures prescribed by the teacher in the education of the dumb. In his first lessons he endeavours

to teach his pupil the relation between the names of objects and the objects themselves; the analysis of words into the letters of the alphabet; and the particular gesture which he is to attach to each word. He now explains the meaning of collective words, as distinguished from those denoting individual objects or parts of objects. Then he proceeds to general terms, applicable in common to a number of individuals, and to generic names comprehending a number of species; and lastly, to the most general and abstract words, such as being, thing, object. The accidents, modifications, and variations of objects, as denoted by adjectives, are next taught. He first endeavours to make his pupil conceive these qualities as inherent in the objects themselves, and next as being capable of being detached by a mental operation. For instance, taking several pieces of paper, each white on one side, and colored on the other with a common color, he places them on a table, before a black board, with their white sides uppermost. He then proceeds to inscribe some familiar word, like HORSE, on the board, leaving sufficient intervals between the letters for the insertion of other letters. Then turning the sheet painted gray, so that the colored side is now uppermost, he writes the word GRAY between the letters of the former word, but in smaller characters, thus,

## H O R S E .

This is done successively with regard to the other sheets of paper, inserting the name of its respective color between the letters of the word HORSE, which is repeated for that purpose. The gray sheet is again turned down, so that its white side is presented; upon which the smaller letters, composing the word *gray*, are effaced, while the great letters, H, O, R, S, E, are allowed to remain. Thus the pupil is taught to consider the quality as part of the object, or as inherent in it. In like manner, he proceeds with other adjectives, such as round, square, &c., expressing the form of objects; writing them in the intervals of the letters composing the name of the respective objects; effacing them, and substituting others in succession.

To lead the pupil to form the abstraction of the quality thus expressed, that is, to the use of the adjective as a separate word that may be applied to different substantives, he employs the following diagram, the different lines of which he traces before his eyes, in order to point out the steps by which he is to arrive at this notion.

H O R S E .

H O R S E .

G R A Y

H O R S E GRAY

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....



Thus obtaining separately, the two words, he afterwards unites them by a connecting line, thus:

HORSE—GRAY

In order to form this into a sentence, he inserts the word *is*, instead of the line; of which it may accordingly be regarded as the substitute, thus:

HORSE *is* GRAY.

Thus by making his pupils understand the nature of a verb, and afterwards teaching them that the verb can express either an existence or an action, *past, present, or future*, he leads them to the system of conjugation, and to all the shades of tenses. The varieties of significations, and of pronouns, with the corresponding affections of verbs, in regard to number and person, are conveyed by contrivances analogous to the preceding. They proceed upon the principle of connecting together words by lines, denoting the ideas, which are the component parts of other ideas; and writing in the place where the lines unite, or in place of the other words in a similar diagram, the name of the compound idea.

Mr. Sicard also employs a system of cyphers, written on the top of every word or member of a sentence, according to the office it performs in the sentence; by the help of which his pupils are better enabled to analyse it into its parts, distinguishing the name of the object, which is either acting or receiving an action, the verb and its regimen, direct, indirect, or circumstantial; and displaying in a similar way every part of speech.

The mere child, while learning written words, is made to copy them himself, so that, by dwelling upon their forms sufficiently, they make a strong impression on his mind. Then from time to time he is shown the objects, and required to write their names himself: and in these preliminary lessons, much assistance is derived from drawings of the objects. The abbé Sicard has availed himself, with much ingenuity, of this mode of denoting them. He begins, for instance, by tracing the outline of a familiar object, such as a key, on a black board, with a chalk pencil; and placing the object itself before the eye of the pupil, he readily understands the resemblance of the design with what it is meant to represent. He does the same with other objects; and exercises his pupil in pointing out the objects denoted by each drawing, which of course is an amusement to him. He next writes the name of each object within the outline of the figure on the board; and after effacing the outlines, so that nothing but the words remain, signifies to the pupil that he is still to consider what he now sees as the representation of the drawing, that is, of the object denoted. Dr. Watson has had a set of plates engraved, containing delineations of 600 objects most generally met with. These are annexed to his book of Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, in eighty octavo pages, and accompanied by a printed vocabulary, consisting of the names of all the objects represented, as also of most of the words explained in the earlier lessons, before the engravings are had recourse to. The first time of going through this vocabulary, the heads or

generic names under which the objects are classed are not regarded. But, in subsequent lessons, these are particularly attended to, and their relations to the subordinate specific names explained.

It is also found extremely advantageous to instruct the pupil, as soon as he is familiar with the use of letters, in the manual alphabet, as it is called; or the expression of letters by different positions of the fingers. This is not only a very quick and ready means of communication commonly learned at other schools; but easily obtained, or recovered if lost, and it furnishes an excellent substitute for the pencil, or pen and ink, when those materials are not at hand. The dumb, when properly instructed, converse thus together with the utmost rapidity.

Another mode of yet quicker intercourse has also been devised for the dumb. It is that of writing the forms of the letters by the point of the finger in the air, and on various prominent parts of the body, as the back for instance. It must, however, be recollected that, to a spectator who stands before us, writing in the air will appear reversed, if traced in the ordinary manner, and this must be remedied by the letters being written in a reversed form, a method which is said to be easily acquired by practicing before a looking-glass. For the particulars of Dr. Watson's course we must refer to his *Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb*, by Joseph Watson, LL.D., 2 vols. 8vo. London, 1809.

A singular example of a child being born deaf and blind, has recently occurred in the person of James Mitchell, whose history has been narrated by Mr. Dugald Stewart, in a memoir published in the *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh*, Vol. VII. p. 70. The celebrated Mr. Wardrop, performed upon him the operation of couching, and has also given us some valuable and interesting particulars of the case, in a separate work, entitled *History of James Mitchell, a Boy, born Blind and Deaf, with an Account of the Operation performed for the Recovery of his Sight*. Lond. 4to. 1812. In the eighth volume of the *Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh*, are to be found Additional Communications respecting the Blind and Deaf Boy, James Mitchell, by the late Dr. John Gordon; a gentleman who had paid particular attention to the case of Mitchell, and from whom Mr. Stewart acknowledges he received much information. The volume also contains a paper on the Education of James Mitchell, by Dr. Dewar.

An Asylum for Educating the Deaf and Dumb Children of the Poor, was established in the neighbourhood of London, in the year 1792, and is now under the superintendence of Dr. Joseph Watson, to whose work we have alluded. No child is admitted under the age of nine years, and fourteen is the earliest age at which they can be apprenticed.

In a report, issued in July 1820, by the committee appointed for managing this establishment, the subscribers are informed that the amount, on the average, have amounted to between forty and fifty within each year; yet the applications have much increased. At the election, in 18



1820, a list of ninety-five candidates was sent to the governors, out of which they under the painful necessity of electing only five, though all seemed to have powerful, equal, claims to their notice. An examination of this report will show that a defect of organs of hearing is a misfortune of much frequent occurrence than is generally credited. From a statement given by the committee, the public will see that among those who are applied to this charitable institution for relief are to be found twenty-four families, which contain no fewer than eighty-seven children deaf and dumb. We shall extract some of their names.

Sam Coleman, with eleven children, of whom five are deaf and dumb.

John Thomson, with ten children, five deaf and dumb.

John Franklin, with eight children, five deaf and dumb.

John Vokins, with seven children, five deaf and dumb.

Seven families, with three children, in each, of whom one is deaf and dumb.

A greater number of the successful applicants for admission into this asylum are natives of the metropolis, or of the adjoining counties.

Similar institutions have been established at Birmingham and Edinburgh. In the latter, besides the ordinary branches of education, a considerable number of boys are taught the trade of shoemaking; and some profit arises from the sale of articles manufactured by them.

The Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at Paris, under the management of the abbé Sicard, has a list of apprenticeship of such as are designed for the following trades: 1. a printer; 2. an engraver of precious metals; 3. a copper-plate engraver; 4. a drawing master; 5. a turner; 6. a mosaic artist; 7. a cabinet-maker; 8. a shoemaker; 9. a cabinet-maker; 10. a painter. These masters reside in the asylum, receive their board and a regular salary. They give exercises, which the abbé Sicard gives or twice a month, are meant to excite emulation among the pupils, and to make the establishment known.

Institutions formed upon a similar model have been established in Holland, Germany, Russia, and Sweden.

It has been suggested that a very competent system of instruction may be imparted to a deaf and dumb pupil by any teacher who undertakes to do so with the talents and temper of an ordinary schoolmaster, and the art of instructing the deaf and dumb; by John Poncefort Armitage, 8vo. Lond. 1823, offers some considerable encouragement to this attempt. The editor's name, now an artist of considerable merit, was at an early age sent, like other boys, to a common school; with a request, on the part of his father, that he might be treated, in every respect, like the other children. The worthy old father to whom he was sent, exclaimed, 'How can he be taught his letters? He cannot hear.' The boy replied his mother, 'he cannot hear, but

he can see. As you can do nothing with the ear, try what can be done with the eye. If he cannot make out the difference between the sound of *a* and that of *b*, you will acknowledge that he is as competent as any other child to distinguish the form of one from that of the other.' And this expectation was soon proved to be correct, to the astonishment of those who ridiculed the idea; 'for in a very little time he knew the twenty-six letters, large and small, as well as any child in the school.' Then vanished all the difficulty; the dame and her wondering neighbours began to see, as his mother had predicted, that he would 'learn by the window, his eyes, as well as any other child could by the door, his ears.' 'At this school,' proceeds Mr. Arrowsmith, 'every child went up to his governess twice in the morning and afternoon. By constantly going up in the same manner, to look at the letters, he soon observed the difference between himself and the other children, by taking notice of their mouths; so that, at length, when the letters were pointed out to him for observation, he looked up to the governess, as much as to say, what is it? She endeavoured to gratify his curiosity, and called the letters by their names as she pointed to them; and in a few months he learnt to pronounce the alphabet, in his own way, which he does to this day.' The moment he convinced his mother that he knew every letter, she got several sets of alphabetical counters, large and small, with which he was exercised, and taught the name of every thing he could see at home and at school. By these means he constantly gained information from his school-fellows without the knowledge of his mistress.

'To those who are still incredulous, and feel an interest in the subject,' says an able writer in the Quarterly Review, 'we earnestly recommend the account which Mr. Arrowsmith gives of the plan adopted in educating his brother. And to render their conviction more certain—let them try the plan which he details. There are few neighbourhoods in which, unfortunately, a subject may not be found for such a purpose. Let him be regularly sent to any village school with other children. Let him be treated, in all respects, like them, and we venture to predict that it will be even impossible to prevent him from acquiring the knowledge of a medium which may enable him to converse with his youthful associates. The mind is fully as active and vigorous in the one as it is in the other; and the curiosity of a deaf and dumb child, being strongly excited by the objects which attract his attention, he can hardly fail to devise some means of obtaining from his companions the information which he wishes to procure.

'We are perfectly convinced that the deaf and dumb might be admitted, with peculiar advantages, into seminaries in which children who hear and speak receive their instruction. The efforts which would be made by the latter class of pupils to explain their ideas to their less fortunate associates would, in the end, prove highly beneficial even to themselves. It is well known that children frequently acquire a knowledge of words without comprehending the ideas of which they are representatives. A constant association with



the deaf and dumb, would impose upon them the necessity of acquiring a precise conception of the words which they used, for the purpose of making them intelligible to their young companions. The advantages which would, inevitably, result from this admixture would be, therefore, mutual, and would much more than counterbalance any imaginary excess of skill which a teacher who confines himself to the sole instruction of the deaf and dumb may be supposed to possess. The admission of deaf and dumb pupils into establishments now exclusively devoted to the reception of those who can hear and speak, could, by no possibility, retard the progress of the latter, while it would greatly facilitate the instruction of the former. Were the intercourse of the deaf and dumb to be confined, in after-life, to persons laboring under a similar misfortune, separate establishments for their education would be recommended by reasons much more cogent than any which can be urged in their favor, while it is remembered that, when they leave these institutions, they must converse principally, if not exclusively, with persons who hear and speak.

DUMFRIES, or DUMFRIES-SHIRE, a county in the south of Scotland, comprehending the district of Nithsdale, the stewartry of Annandale, and the lordship of Eskdale, extending in length from north-west to south-east about sixty miles, and about thirty miles in breadth where broadest. It is bounded on the south-west by Galloway and part of Kyle: on the north-east by the counties of Roxburgh, Selkirk, and Peebles; on the north-west by Clydesdale; and on the south-east by Solway Frith and the marshes between Scotland and England. A great part of the county is mountainous, overspread with heath, and well stocked with game of all kinds: but the valleys, through which the Esk, the Annan, the Nith, and other smaller rivers run, are extremely pleasant; and some of them well cultivated and very fertile, producing oats, barley, and wheat, in abundance, both for exportation and home consumption; while the mountainous parts afford pasture for innumerable flocks of sheep and herds of black cattle, many thousands of which are annually exported to England. In the valleys are several natural woods and some extensive plantations of different kinds of timber. In Nithsdale, are the rich lead mines of Wanlockhead, the coal mines of Sanquhar and Cairnburn, the inexhaustible lime quarries of Closeburn and Barjarg, and freestone in almost every parish. Annandale has the rich lime quarries of Kellhead and Comtongan, with plenty of free stone near the towns of Annan and Lochmaben: and in the lower part of Eskdale are limestone and coal in abundance. In some places there are indications of iron; copper is wrought; and in Westerkirk is a valuable mine of antimony. Besides the mineral springs of Moffat and Hartfell Spa, there are a great many wells which contain metallic or mineral impregnation. This county contains four royal boroughs, Dumfries, Sanquhar, Annan, and Lochmaben, several small towns and villages, and is divided into forty-two parochial districts, containing in all about 55,000 inhabitants. It sends one member to parliament. The manufactures of Dumfries

are not very extensive. Cotton-wool is carried on at Langholm and Annan, at cotton-weaving at the latter place; a small work has been erected at Kirkcudbright; a mill, two small foundries, and several hay and tan-works at Dumfries, and a carpet factory near Sanquhar. Salt was formerly procured from sleet, in the parishes of Cummaertown, Ruthwell, without paying duty, in consequence of an act of 1671; but the right to this has been lately questioned. In 1809 the imports into this county were 493 vessels, 1339 men, and 18,985 tons; and 207 cleared outwards, with 802 men, and 12,141 tons. Most of the inward vessels are laden with coal, and of the outward with grain. But valuable exports are cattle, sheep, horses, and wool; almost all of which, excepting what is sent out of it by land.

DUMFRIES, the capital of the shire, is a handsome town, situated on a ridge of ground, on the north-east side of the Nith, about nine miles above its junction with the Solway Frith. Its present name appears to have been derived partly from its situation, and partly from the monastery of grey friars, which formerly stood near the head of the town, and was only a corruption of Drum friars, or Drummen of the friary; and accordingly, in the year 1780, these eighty or a hundred years, it was called Drumfries. Besides the pleasant situation, on the side of a beautiful winding river, it is surrounded on all sides with one of the best cultivated sheets of dale country in any where to be met with; and the town from it is terminated, at the distance of about five miles, by a continued chain of hills, altogether one of the grandest natural theatres perhaps in Britain. On the north side of it, at some little distance, are the ruins of a chapel built by king Robert Bruce, which appears to have been erected not long before the middle of the fourteenth century, as a grave-stone was discovered in the year 1780, bearing the date of 1079, and the name of the person buried under it to have been John de Burgh and burgess of the town. And this is a place of consequence in the beginning of the fourteenth century, is evident, from the fact, that Edward II. called the king of Scotland to meet there in 1307. In the mentioned monastery, too, king Robert Bruce killed his rival, Cumming, lord of Galloway, with the assistance of James Lindsay of Kirkpatrick, on the 5th February, 1306. The houses of Dumfries are well built and commodious; the principal street extends to the length of a mile, the whole length of the town in a direction parallel to the Nith; and the streets in general are well paved. It has two churches, an episcopal chapel, a prison, a hospital, an infirmary, and a bridge of nine arches over the river, which has been built by one of the three daughters, co-heiresses of Alan, lord of Galloway, for assizes for the county, and for the lowland and stewartry of Kirkcudbright in the town twice a year. It is also the place for holding the sheriff's and common



sions of the peace, and the courts  
sioners of supply. It is governed  
three bailies, a dean of guild,  
twelve merchant councillors, with  
the incorporations. The corpo-  
d from king James I., in one of  
to England, a small silver tube,  
barrel, called the silver gun, with  
use to shoot for it every year; a  
is still kept up. The town has a  
t on Wednesday, with two fairs in  
September, at which vast numbers  
black cattle are sold. Dumfries  
lies W.N.W. of Carlisle, and  
S.W. of Edinburgh.

a town of the United States, the  
ince William county, in Virginia.  
Entry and post town, and has an  
arch and court house. It lies  
side of Quantico Creek, ten miles  
ter, twenty-eight north by east  
arg, and 185 south-west of Phila-

(John), baron of Carlsroom a  
historical writer, who became a re-  
land on account of religion, and  
priographer to the emperor of Ger-  
ied in 1726, leaving behind him  
valuable for the facts they contain,  
Politiques, pour servir a l'Intelli-  
Paix de Ryswick, 4 vols. 12mo.,  
s en France, en Italie, en Malte, et  
vols. 12mo., 1699; Corps Univer-  
que du Droit des Gens, 8 vols. fol.  
Historiques depuis Janvier 1652

IEZ (Charles Francis Duperier),  
t reduced family, was born in  
mary 25th, 1739. He entered into  
ilitary service at the age of eigh-  
he same duke of Brunswick whom,  
of many years, he compelled to  
France. Having, in his twenty-  
obtained the rank of captain, and  
St. Louis, he went on his travels,  
ther countries visited Portugal, of  
m he published an account in 1767.  
s he was employed in Corsica, with  
colonel. In 1770 he was sent to  
ist the confederates. He was next  
mission to Sweden, but was com-  
3 to the Bastille, from whence he  
on the death of Louis XV. During  
war he was much employed at  
which place he was made com-  
t the commencement of the revolu-  
guished himself as a patriot, was  
rank of lieutenant-general, and  
er of foreign affairs. When the  
0,000 strong, advanced on France,  
them with a very inferior force,  
superiority of his tactics. The  
appe shortly after consolidated his  
l revolutionised Belgium. On his  
ris, he found the trial of the king  
ress; and, becoming suspected of  
o that unfortunate prince by the  
soon retired, and replaced himself  
f his army. He now concluded a

treaty with the prince of Saxe Coburg for the  
evacuation of Belgium, while he himself deter-  
mined to lead his troops to Paris, and re-estab-  
lish the constitution of 1791. Coburg promised,  
if necessary, to furnish an auxiliary force, but  
the design was frustrated by some of the subor-  
dinate generals conveying intelligence of it to  
the convention. Commissioners were sent to  
arrest Dumouriez, when he took the decisive  
step of instantly arresting them, and handing  
them over to the custody of the enemy, as hos-  
tages for the safety of the king and his family.  
Finding insubordination now beginning to show  
itself among his troops, he resolved on quitting  
them, and repaired for refuge to the head-  
quarters of the prince of Coburg, who offered  
him a command, but he declined it, and retired  
to Switzerland. The cantons were however too  
near to France to render that country a safe  
asylum, especially as the sum of 300,000 francs  
was offered for his head. He afterwards retreat-  
ed to Hamburg and to England, where he for  
some time subsisted on a pension of 400 louis,  
granted him by the landgrave of Hesse Cassel.  
He survived the restoration of the Bourbon  
dynasty several years. In 1821 he published  
two memoirs, addressed to the Greeks, and died  
in his eighty-fifth year, at Turville Park, near  
Henley-upon-Thames, March 14th, 1823.

DUMP, *n. s.* } Dutch *dom*; Dan. *dum*;  
DUMPISH, *adj.* } Goth. *domp*; perhaps from  
DUMP'LING, *n. s.* } dumb. Sorrow; sadness:  
DUMP'Y, } hence, first a melancholy  
tune or air; and then any tune. The Scottish  
dumpy, according to Dr. Jamieson, signifies short  
and thick: a dumpling is a dumpy pudding.

New year, forth looking out of Janus' gate,  
Doth seem to promise hope of new delight;  
And bidding the' old adieu his passed date  
Bids all old thoughts to die in *dumpish* spight.  
Spenser.

Sing no more ditties, sing no more  
Of the *dumps* so dull and heavy;  
The frauds of men were ever so,  
Since summer first was leafy.

Shakespeare. Much Ado About Nothing.  
Visit by night your lady's chamber window  
With some sweet consort; to their instruments  
Tune a deploring *dump*: the night's dead silence  
Will well become such sweet complaining grievance.  
Shakespeare.

Funerals with stately pomp  
March slowly on in solemn *dump*. Hudibras.  
Padding and *dumpling* burn to pot. Dryden.  
This shame *dumps* cause to well-bred people, when  
it carries them away from the company. Locke.  
The squire who fought on bloody stumps,  
By future bards bewailed in doleful *dumps*.

Gay's Pastoral.  
The life which I live at this age is not a dead,  
*dumpish*, and sour life; but cheerful, lively, and plea-  
sant.

She, in sooth,  
Possessed an air and grace by no means common:  
Her stature tall—I hate a *dump*y woman. Byron.

DUN, *adj.* Sax. *dun*; Goth. *dauckn*; Welsh  
*duenn*; Belg. *dunker*. A dark tawny color: hence  
dark, gloomy, in a figurative sense.

Come, thick night!  
And pall thee in the *dunest* smoke of hell.  
Shakespeare.



He then surveyed  
Hell and the gulph between, and Satan there  
Coasting the wall of heaven on this side,  
In the *dun* air sublime. *Milton. Paradise Lost.*

The cattle droop, and o'er the furrowed land,  
Fresh from the plough, the *dun*-discoloured flocks  
Untended spreading crop the wholesome root.

*Thomson.*

Oh send them to the sullen mansions *dun*,  
Her baleful eyes where sorrow rolls around;  
Where gloom-enslaved mischief loves to dwell,  
And murder, all blood-boltered, schemes the  
wound. *Dr. Johnson's Poems.*

It changed of course; a heavenly camelion,  
The airy child of vapour and the sun,  
Brought forth in purple, cradled in vermillion,  
Baptized in molten gold, and swathed in *dun*.

*Byron.*

DUN, *v. a. & n. s.* Sax. *ḡunān*, to clamor.  
To claim a debt with vehemence and importunity: a clamorous creditor.

Borrow of thy back, and borrow of thy belly:  
they'll never ask thee again. I shall be *dunning* thee  
every day. *Bacon.*

An university *dun* is a gentleman's follower cheaply  
purchased, for his own money has hired him.

*Bp. Earle.*

When thou *dunnest* their parents, seldom they,  
Without a suit before the tribune pay. *Dryden.*

They are ever talking of new silks, and serve the  
owners in getting them customers, as their common  
*dunners* do in making them pay. *Spectator.*

I remember what she won:

And hath she sent so soon to *dun*? *Swift.*

It grieves my heart to be pulled by the sleeve by  
some rascally *dun*—Sir, remember my bill.

*Arbuthnot's John Bull.*

Secretaries of state, presidents of the council, and  
generals of an army, have crowds of visitants in a  
morning, all soliciting for past promises; which are  
but a civil sort of *duns*, that lay claim to voluntary  
debts. *Congreve.*

DUN, or BURGH, the name of an ancient species  
of buildings, of a circular form, common in  
the Orkney and Shetland isles, the Hebrides, and  
northern parts of Scotland. The latter term  
points out the founders, who at the same time  
bestowed on them their natal name of borg, a  
defence or castle, a Suedo-Gothic word; and  
the Highlanders universally apply to these places  
the Celtic name *dun*, signifying a hill defended  
by a tower, which plainly points out their use.  
They are confined to the countries once subject  
to the crown of Norway. With few exceptions,  
they are built within sight of the sea, and one or  
more within sight of the other; so that on a  
signal by fire, flag, or trumpet, they could give  
notice of approaching danger, and yield a mutual  
succour. In the Shetland and Orkney islands  
they are most frequently called wart or ward-  
hills, which shows that they were garrisoned.  
They had their wardmadher, or watchman, a sort  
of sentinel, who stood on the top and challenged  
all who came in sight. The gackman was an officer  
of the same kind, who not only was on the watch  
against surprise, but was to give notice if he saw  
any ships in distress. He was allowed a large  
horn of generous liquor, which he had always by  
him, to keep up his spirits. Along the Orkney  
and Shetland shores they almost form a chain;  
and by these means not only kept the natives in

subjection, but were situated commodiously for  
covering the landing of their countrymen, who  
were perpetually roving on piratical expeditions.  
These towers vary in their inner structure; but  
externally are universally the same; yet sometimes  
an addition of strength on the outside. The  
burgh of Culswick in Shetland, notwithstanding  
it is built on the top of a hill, is surrounded with  
a dry ditch thirteen feet broad; that of Sandness  
in Unst, has both a wet and a dry ditch; the last  
cut, with great labour, through the rock. The  
burgh of Moura is surrounded by a wall, now  
reduced to a heap of stones, and the inside a  
cylindrical, not taper, as usual with others.

DUNAN AULA, an ancient tumulus in  
Craignish parish, in Argyllshire, where the son  
of Olaus, the son of a king of Denmark, was  
deposited, near the field of battle in which he  
was killed many centuries ago. General Campbell  
converted this mound into a burying-place,  
and erected a neat monument on the top of it,  
in memory of his only son. The tumulus is sup-  
posed to have been raised before the introduction  
of Christianity, as the urn, containing the ashes  
of Olaus, was discovered under a heap of stones  
by the workmen; and the practice of burning the  
dead was discontinued after the conversion of the  
ancient Caledonians.

DUNBAR, a royal borough of Scotland, in  
the county of East Lothian, once remarkable for  
a strong castle, the key of Scotland from the east,  
which gave shelter to Edward II. of England, in  
his flight from Bannockburn, but of which now  
a vestige now remains. This castle was formerly  
defended, in 1336, by Agnes, countess of Mar, the  
sister of Randolph earl of Murray. In the  
absence of her husband, this heroine forced Lord  
Montague to raise the siege and leave the country.  
Here are still preserved some of the Scottish  
pikes, six ells long, and formed for both offence  
and defence. Under the rock, on which the  
castle stands, are two natural arches, through  
which the tide flows. Between the harbour and  
the castle is a stratum of vast basaltic columns  
of red grit-stone. Dunbar is remarkable for the  
defeat of John Baliol's army by earl Warren, in  
1296, and for a victory gained over a party of  
Cromwell over the Scotch in 1650. Dunbar is  
governed by a provost, three bailies, clerk of  
guild, treasurer, and fifteen councillors. It joins  
with Haddington, North Berwick, Leith, and  
Jedburgh, in sending a representative to parlia-  
ment. Within the royalty there is a hamlet  
village, called Belhaven, near which the harbour  
was originally built. The east pier of the pre-  
sent harbour was begun during the protectorship  
of Cromwell, who granted £3000 towards defray-  
ing the expense. But it was still very imperfect,  
and could only receive a few small vessels; and  
even now, though a great deal of labour and  
money have since been expended in improving  
it, the access is difficult and the bottom bad.  
It is defended by a battery of twelve guns of  
nine, twelve, and eighteen pounders; besides  
which, there are a large and convenient dry-dock  
and two considerable rope-walks; ship-building  
is carried on to some extent. Here are a soap-  
work and a cotton manufactory; two iron-  
foundries, and spinning-mills. Its principal



portation of corn and of kelp. It is a valuable trade in the fisheries. It is from Edinburgh and Berwick-upon-Tyne—seven miles from each.

William, a celebrated Scottish poet, was born in East Lothian, in 1465. He wrote good poems for that age; and he has lately styled the Scottish Horace. His poems are The Thistle and the Rose, The Targe, and The Thistle and the Rose, the most admired pieces of his produced about 1530. Sir David Dalrymple published an edition of his poems with

ON, the chief town of Lennox or e, in Scotland, remarkable for its steep rock, rising up in every where inaccessible, except by passage or entry, fortified with a rampart. Within this wall is the lodging for the officers; and a long flight of stone steps ascends to the top of the castle, where there are mounted with cannon, the wall almost round the rock. In the upper part, where the rock divides, are the barracks, with a deep well in which is always plenty of water. Here, the remains of a gateway and high top of which there was a wooden staircase from one rock to another. It was sometimes blocked up during commotions of Scotland, so that different factions possessed different parts of the castle, and each had a gate towards the castle stands in an angle formed by the Clyde and Leven: so that it is surrounded by water, except a narrow passage, and even this is overflowed at every high tide. There is no hill or eminence within a mile of this fortress. It commands the mouth of the Clyde; and, being deemed the strongest place in the western Highlands, is kept in some measure garrisoned with invalids, under the command of a governor and some subaltern officers. The government of it is worth £700 a year. There is a considerable manufactory of glass bottles in the town. It has a good harbour, where the vessels employ seventy seamen and about 2000 tons. Dunbarton was a royal borough by king Alexander III. It contains about 2000 inhabitants, ten miles north-west of Glasgow, west of Edinburgh, and eighty-nine miles from London.

NE, a town in a parish of the same  
ntly seated on the river Allan, thirty  
f Edinburgh. The battle of Dun-  
herriffmuir, was fought near it, in  
eduke of Argyll defeated the rebels  
arl of Marr. It has four fairs; in  
August, and November.

*n.s.* From *Lat. densus*, thick,—Min-  
ian. *tonto*, stupid,—Skinner; still  
a word of reproach introduced by  
against the Scotists, from the name  
otus, as Mr. Tooke and Mr. Todd  
Duns' disciples, dunces.

the best, in streets but scarce allowed  
in thy straw, the stupid crowd. *Dryden.*

Was Epiphanius so great a *dunce* to imagine a thing, indifferent in itself, should be directly opposite to the law of God? *Stillingfleet.*

Till critics blame, and judges praise.

The poet cannot claim his bays.

On me when *dunces* are satiric.

I take it for a panegyric.

Hated by fools, and fools to hate,

Be that my motto, and my fate. *Swift.*

The schools became a scene

Of solemn farce, where Ignorance in stilts,

His cap well lined with logic not his own.

With parrot tongue performed the scholar's part.

Proceeding soon a graduated dunce, Cowper.

DUNCOMBE (William), a laborious author, born in London in 1690. He published a Translation of Racine's *Athalie*, which was well received by the public, and has gone through many editions. In 1724 he was editor of the works of Mr. Needler; in 1735, of the poems of his deceased brother-in-law, Mr. Hughes, 2 vols. 12mo.; in 1737 of the miscellanies of his younger brother Mr. Jabez Hughes, for the benefit of his widow, in 1 vol. 8vo.; and in, 1745, of the works of the Rev. Mr. Samuel Say, in 1 vol. 4to. In 1726 he married the only sister of John Hughes, Esq. whom he long survived. In 1734 his tragedy of *Lucius Junius Brutus* was acted at Drury-lane theatre. It was published in 1735, and again in 1747. The works of Horace, in English verse, by several hands, were edited by him in 2 vols. 8vo., with notes, &c. in 1757. A second edition, in 4 vols, 12mo. with many imitations, was published in 1762. In 1763 he collected and republished *Seven Sermons* by Archbishop Herring, on Public Occasions; with a Biographical Preface. He died Feb. 26, 1769, aged seventy-nine.

DUNCAN (Adam), lord viscount, a gallant British admiral, born at Dundee, in Scotland, in 1731, of an ancient and respectable family. Being a younger son, he was brought up to the sea, and after the usual gradations was appointed a lieutenant in the navy on the 10th of January, 1755; and about four years after he became a commander. He received his naval education, it is said, under the auspices of lord Keppel, through whom he was appointed captain of the *Valiant* of seventy-four guns. He was likewise on the court-martial of that distinguished veteran. In 1778 he was appointed to the *Monarch*, of seventy-four guns, one of the ships employed on the home station. About the end of December he was ordered, with Sir George Rodney, to Gibraltar, and greatly distinguished himself in the encounter with the Spanish squadron under Don Juan de Langara. Not long after this captain Duncan quitted the *Monarch*, and in 1782 was appointed to the *Blenheim* of ninety guns. He continued in this ship during the remainder of the war, being constantly attached to the channel fleet, then commanded by lord viscount Howe, and consequently proceeded with his lordship to Gibraltar in September. When peace was settled, captain Duncan was appointed to the *Edgar* of seventy-four guns, and continued in that command the three succeeding years. On the 14th of September, 1787 he was made rear-admiral of the blue; of the white on the 22d of September 1790; and



In 1793 he became vice-admiral; thus rising progressively till the 1st of June 1795, when he obtained the rank of admiral of the blue. Upon this last advancement he hoisted his flag on board the Venerable of seventy-four guns, and was appointed to the command of the squadron stationed in the North Sea, and particularly destined to act against the Dutch, who had then a considerable naval force lying ready for service in the Texel. The mutinous spirit which, about this time, had broken out among the British seamen in different quarters, having spread itself to the squadron under admiral Duncan, occasioned a slackening of the blockade of the Texel; and the enemy, acquainted with his situation, prepared for sea, and in his absence, early in October, slipped out, but he soon gained intelligence of their motions, and on the 11th of October, about nine in the morning, a signal was given of having discovered the enemy: after a pursuit of three hours, the British fleet came up with the Dutch; the action commenced at about forty minutes past twelve o'clock, at which time every ship of the British had broken the enemy's line, and cut them off from getting into the Texel, the land being then distant about seven miles. While the rear was attacked by the larboard division under vice-admiral Onslow, admiral Duncan directed all his attention to the enemy's van, and his own ship, the Venerable, was in close action for nearly two hours and a half, when he observed all the masts of the Dutch admiral's ship (*Vryheid*) go by the board; she was, however defended for some time after in a most gallant manner; but was at last obliged to strike to the Venerable, admiral de Winter himself being the only man left on the quarter deck, who was not either killed or wounded. The Dutch lost also their vice-admiral, in the ship *Jupiter*, and seven other ships of the line; the remainder having escaped with the greatest difficulty. The attack, on the part of the British admiral, was considered one of the most daring, and the issue of the contest one of the most important, during the war; indeed it afterwards appeared that the Dutch fleet was designed to assist the French in their intended invasion of this country. In consequence of this very brilliant success, the gallant admiral was, on the 1st of the same month, created viscount Duncan of Camperdown, and baron Duncan of Lundie, in the shire of Perth. A pension also of £2000 per annum was granted to him, and the two next heirs of the peerage. He died in 1804. Lord Duncan was married to Miss Dundas, daughter of Robert Dundas, Esq. lord president of the court of session in Scotland, June 6th 1777, by whom he had several children. His first son, Mr. Henry Duncan, died at Edinburgh on the 23d December, 1787; and his second son, Robert, born in 1785, succeeded to the estate and honors.

DUNCAN (Daniel), an eminent physician, born at Montauban, Languedoc, in 1649. He received his education at Montpellier, where he took his degree. He resided at Paris till the death of Colbert, who was his patron, after which he removed to his paternal estate at Montauban; but during the persecution of the Protestants, in 1690, he went to Geneva. He afterwards became successively physician to the

prince of Hesse Cassel and the king of Prussia. He died in London in 1735. He wrote an *Explanation of the Animal Functions*; *Natural Chemistry*; *Salutary Advice against the Abuse of Hot Liquors*, particularly coffee, chocolate, and tea.

DUNDAS (Henry), viscount Melville, son of lord Arniston, was born in 1740, and educated at the University of Edinburgh. He was admitted in 1763, a member of the faculty of advocates; in 1773 became solicitor-general; in 1775 lord advocate; and in 1777 joint keeper of the great seal for Scotland. In 1782 he was sworn of the privy council, and made treasurer of the navy; but did not continue long in office, the coalition between lord North and Mr. Fox having displaced his party. On their return to power, he resumed office under the ministry of Mr. Pitt, to which he firmly attached himself during their joint lives. On the passing of the act for regulating the affairs of the East India Company, Mr. Dundas was appointed president of the board of control; in 1791 he was made secretary of state for the home department; and in 1796 secretary at war. On the resignation of Mr. Fox, in 1801, he also retired, and was created viscount Melville. When the former resumed the helm of affairs, he was appointed first lord of the admiralty. In 1805 lord Melville was impeached before the house of lords, of high crimes and misdemeanors in his office of treasurer of the navy. But the evidence adduced did not directly implicate him in the transactions of his deputy Mr. Trotter. He was accordingly acquitted. But he never afterwards held any public situation, except that of privy councillor. His death took place in May 1811.

DUNDALK, a barony in the county of Louth, province of Leinster, in which is a borough, market, post, fair, and sea-port town of the same name on a bay of the Irish channel, bearing its name. It lies above twenty-one miles five furlongs west of Drogheda, and fifty-two miles from Dublin. Lat. 53° 57', long. 6° 42'. A handsome bridge was thrown over the Castletown River in 1822, at the end of the town. It is the usual port, and has some trade; it consists of one wide street near a mile long, and some cross avenues; but a very good market-house, a court-house, a beautiful specimen of Grecian architecture, and the design of the Temple of Theseus; and also on a manufacture called Dundalk cambrics. It has been fortified (though now dismantled), as may be seen by the ruins of the walls, and the castle destroyed in 1641. In the reign of Edward II. it was a royal city, and is the last where a monarch of Ireland was actually crowned and resided. It is very advantageously situated for an inland trade, and the port is very safe for shipping. The bay, which is nine miles across and nine inland, has good moorings at all tides in four to upwards of eight fathoms water, with very good land-marks either for bringing up, or making the harbour, and in crossing the bar of high water in ordinary neap tides, this is but fifteen to eighteen feet water; besides many other good qualities, the bay abounds with all kinds of fish customary in the channel. A pier might be built for about £3000 at a place called



which would shelter vessels waiting at the bar, and enable the inhabitants to have fuel at a cheap rate, while at the same time supply is turf from a bog ten miles distant.

Here are a charter-school of 100 scholars; a school of 264 children on the site of the town's foundation, and an endowed school of high character; a Protestant and a Roman Catholic chapels, and two for the Presbyterians, the other for the Catholics.

Exports, corn, live cattle, beef, mutton, salt, soap, and leather; here is a great trade.

Dundee is a royal borough of Scotland, in the county of Fife, situated on the north-side of the Firth of Tay, five miles from its mouth, forty miles from Perth, and twenty-three east of Perth. Its commerce is very advantageous. It is one of the largest burghs in Scotland, and the largest burden can get into the town, and on the quay there are very commodious warehouses, as well as good buildings, which is carried on to the quay.

The houses are built of stone, and are four stories high. The market-place is in the middle of the town is a long square, from whence branch principal streets, which, with a number of streets, are well paved. On the south side of the market-place stands the town house; a large building, with a very handsome front, and a neat spire over it 140 feet high. This building was finished in 1734, and is the guild-hall, the court-room, the repository for the records, and the prison, which is in the upper story, and is a place of the taste and humanity of the town. Under whose auspices it was constructed, well aired commodious rooms, at the top of the building, which are very strong and secure. The old shambles, which were formerly in the High street, were removed, and was erected by the nine incorporated companies at the east end of the above large building, with a large and elegant ground floor of which is a very commodious room, and several merchants' shops; over the ground floor are public rooms for each company, and a common hall fifty feet long, and twenty-five feet high; and a square decorated with a pediment. St. Andrew's Church, also built by the companies, stands on a rising ground from the Cowgate-street; and has a steeple 130 feet high, with a peal of bells. Dundee has also four other churches, in which were originally four hundred and thirty, had been a very magnificent building, a large square Gothic tower or steeple high, on the west end of the town, in the form of a cross, erected by the earl of Huntingdon, brother to William Douglas, and was dedicated to the Virgin Mary. He did on his return from the continent, in which, with 500 of his countrymen, accompanied Richard I. of England, in gratitude for his deliverance from the dangers, and particularly from

shipwreck, by which he had nearly perished when in sight of this town. At the same time he changed its name from Alectum to Dei Donum, whence its present name is thought by many to be derived; while others maintain that its name was Duntay, or the Hill of Tay. A hill rises on the north of the town to a great height, and is called The Law of Dundee. On its top, there are evidently the remains of a camp, said to have been first erected by Edward I. of England, and last repaired by general Monk. Dundee had an old castle which was demolished by the celebrated Scotch governor Sir William Wallace, who was educated in this town, which so exasperated Edward I. that, taking the town by storm, he set fire to the churches; and a number of the inhabitants, having taken sanctuary there, with their most valuable effects, were all burnt along with them. The desolation he brought on the church continued till the year 1787, when a noble edifice began to be built on the site of the one that was burnt down, in which the ancient Gothic of the outside is excellently united with internal modern architecture, making one of the largest and neatest churches in the kingdom, and again completing the superb superstructure, as erected at the first by the earl of Huntingdon. Besides the public grammar-school, and the English schools, there is an academy, or rather college, for mathematics, the French and Italian languages, and the polite arts, with proper professors in the different branches, and a large apparatus for natural and experimental philosophy. This town suffered greatly last century during the civil war, being sometimes under the command of one party, and at others of another. In 1645 the marquis of Montrose took it by storm; and in 1651, under the command of its provost major-general Lumsden, it vigorously opposed general Monk, who carried it by storm, September 1st, and put all in arms to the sword. And so great were the riches of Dundee, all the neighbouring gentlemen having retired to it with their best effects, as a place of safety, that every private soldier in Monk's army had nearly £60 sterling to his share of the plunder, there being above sixty merchant vessels in the harbour at that time; and the like number of vessels sailed for England loaded with the spoils of the unfortunate inhabitants. The magistrates have been at great expense in enlarging and fitting up the harbour, so as to render it of easy access, safe and commodious; and have made the passage over the Tay, where there is a great resort, so convenient, that travellers with their horses can get over it at any time of tide; a sufficient number of boats properly manned being always ready. The river Tay before Dundee is about three miles broad; and, being sheltered by high lands on both sides, is a safe road for ships of the greatest burden. The piers are extensive, broad, and well adapted for the purposes of loading and discharging vessels; and the harbour is equal to any in Scotland. There are upwards of 160 ships of different denominations belonging to the port, which employ upwards of 1300 seamen in the Greenock fishery, and the Baltic and the London trades. A wet-dock has been constructed on a



very extensive scale, and on the quay are several new ranges of warehouses. The principal manufacture here is of linen, particularly osnaburghs, canvas, bagging, &c., for exportation, and the Dundee colored thread has long been in high repute. Two sugar-houses are also established here. Till 1745 the town had only drawwells; but since that period, it is most amply supplied from a large fountain of excellent water, conveyed into the town in leaden pipes, and discharged by good wells at proper distances. The salmon fishing in the Tay is of much importance; and the town is well supplied with fish of various kinds, though much raised in price of late years, on account of the quantities sent to London. Dundee was the birth-place of the celebrated Hector Boethius. It possesses the privilege, separately, of returning one representative to the British parliament.

**DUNDONALD CASTLE**, an ancient royal castle, seated on an eminence near a village of the same name, where Robert II. the first monarch of the house of Stuart, resided much and at last died in 1390.

**DUNFERMLINE**, a royal borough of Fifeshire, Scotland, fourteen miles west of Kirkcaldy, and fifteen north-west of Edinburgh. The greatest part of the town is situate on a hill which commands a view of the surrounding country. Here are the remains of a magnificent abbey and palace of the kings of Scotland, in which the princess Elizabeth, daughter of king James I. was born. In the inn of this town was the marriage bed of James VI. and his queen; it is still entire, and is now in the possession of the earl of Elgin. This place is noted for a manufactory of figured diapers. It is governed by a provost, two bailies, dean of guild, and eighteen counsellors, among whom are the eight deacons of incorporations. The houses of Dunfermline are well built, and the size of the town is rapidly increasing. A large suburb, connected by the bridge, and road over the glen on the west, opposite to the principal street, add much to the elegant appearance of the town. This bridge is of a peculiar structure. An arch 297 feet long, twelve broad, and fifteen feet five inches high, was thrown over the burn in the bottom of the glen; and the remaining hollow filled up by a mound of earth, sixty-eight feet six inches thick at the centre, having a gradual slope on both sides to the extremity of the stone arch below. On the top is the road, enclosed on both sides by houses forming a very neat street. On the slopes of the mound, and at the back of the houses, are very convenient hanging gardens. The church of Dunfermline was the burial place of several of our Scottish monarchs; particularly of Malcolm III. with his queen St. Margaret; Edgar; Alexander I. with his queen Sibilla; David I. and his two queens; Malcolm IV.; Alexander III. with his queen Margaret; and Robert I. with his queen Isabel; besides many other princes and nobles. About 85,000 tons of limestone are quarried in the neighbourhood; and about 200,000 bolls of limeshells, and 35,000 chaldrons of lime, are sold annually; 90,000 tons of coals are also raised, of which 60,000 are exported. A beautiful specimen of the art of

weaving is preserved in the chest of the incorporation. It is a man's shirt wrought in the loom, about 100 years ago, by a weaver of the name of Ingles. The shirt is without seam, and was finished by the ingenious artisan, without the least assistance from the needle. *Dunfermline* has eight annual fairs and a market on Friday.

**DUNG**, *n. s. & v. a.* *Sax.* *dung*;  *Goth.* *dung*;  *Swed.* *dunge*;  *DUNG-FORK*, *n. s.* *dung*;  *DUNG-HILL*, from *Teut.* *haga*, a till land. *Excrement* or other matter used to fatten land. To manure with dung. *Dung* is base, mean, vile.

He raiseth the poor out of the dust, and lifteth up the beggar from the *dung-hill*, to set them among princes. *Bible.* 2 Sam. 6. 1.

The poor he raiseth from the dust, Even from the *dunghill* lifts the just. *Script.* His *dunghill* thoughts, which do themselves raise To dirty dross, no higher dare aspire.

*Ejusdem in Len.* Out, *dunghill*! dar'st thou brave a nobleman? *Shakespeare.*

I, his brother, gain nothing under him but grief, for the which his animals on his *dunghill* are as much bound to him as I. *Id.* *As You Like It.*

We need no grave to bury honesty; There's not a grain of it, the face to *swart* Of the whole *dungy* earth. *Id.* *Winter's Tale.* For *dung*, all excrements are the refuse and purifications of nourishment. *Bacon's Natural History.*

It was received of old, that *dunging* of grass when the west wind bloweth, and in the decrease of the moon, doth greatly help.

*Bacon's Natural History.* For when from herbs the pure part must be won, From gross by 'stilling, this is better done By despised *dung* than by the fire or sun. *Dun.*

There cannot be a more evident, palpable, gross manifestation, of poor, degenerate, *dunghilly* blood and breeding, than a rude, unpolished, *discontented*, and slovenly outside. *Manners.*

There as his dream foretold, a cart he found, That carried compost forth to *dung* the ground. *Dryden.*

Perhaps a thousand other worlds, that lie Remote from us, and latent in the sky, Are lightened by his beams, and kindly nurt, Of which our earthly *dunghill* is the worst. *A.* Two cocks fought a duel for the mastery of a *hay-hill*. *L'Estrange.*

Never enter into a league of friendship with an ingrateful person; that is, plant not thy friendship upon a *dunghill*: it is too noble a plant for so bad a soil. *Such.*

He soon would learn to think like me, And bless his ravished eyes to see Such order from confusion sprung, Such gaudy tulips raised from *dung*. *Southey.* *Dungforks* and paddles are common every where. *Horne.*

Any manner of vegetables cast into the *dunghill*. *Id.*

They are not hawks or kites; they are only mean, able fowls whose flight is not above their *dunghill* or henroost. *Dryden.*

Aye, as the *dunghill* may conceal a gem Which is now set in gold, as jewels should be. *Id.*

**DUNGANNON**, a barony in county Tyrone, province of Ulster, having in it a *barony*, and



A post town of the same name; situated fourteen miles north of Armagh, one and a half north-west of Dublin. Long.  $7^{\circ} 18'$ . It returns one member. The town belongs to lord who has a handsome seat there. Fair on Thursday in February; second Thursday; second Monday in May; first July; third Tuesday in August; O. S. in October; last Tuesday in November. This town was made remarkable for the legation of volunteers on the 15th of June. There is a part of the town called the houses of which in general are

Its chief business is the linen. It produces about £2000 per week was expended in that market on the present article. Here is a poor school the lady Northland, and a free school Charles I., and endowed with 1000 acres, producing about £800 per acre is a good house here, and glebe

In this parish are the coal mines, leased by the primate to the Hibernian Company for £300 per annum: they have already expended £2000 in the steam engines and other necessary for working the mines.

mans, in husbandry, places where soils are mixed and digested together. Most of pits, prepared at the bottom of mud clay, that they may hold water, are of the dung. They ought to be that the sinks and drips of the houses may run into them. Into these are fodder, litter, dung, weeds, &c., mixed and rot together, till the farmer for them.

DUN, n. s. Anciently donjon, the tower of a castle, from Cel. and Brit. in which towers usually stood. A

took the slumbered senseless corse,  
could out of his swoon awake,  
castle brought with hasty force,  
dungeon deep him threw without remorse.

Spenser.

How marvel how that tyrant blinded his  
he hears that he brought them im-  
a dark dungeon, into rooms that were  
and glorious.

Bp. Hall. Contemplations.  
not that the king of heaven hath doomed  
dungeon; not our safe retreat  
tent arm.

Milton's Paradise Lost.  
only can such thieves make fast  
though in a dungeon.

Marvell.  
tion, a man in a dungeon is capable of  
himself with scenes and landscapes, more  
any that can be found in the whole  
ture.

adorn the marble tomb  
, rhymes, and 'scutcheons of renown,  
dungeon of some Gothic dome,  
and desolation ever frown. Beattie.  
e of most transparent light,  
lost made the dungeon bright. Byron.

CE, HILLS OF, two artificial mounts  
of the same name in Stirlingshire

said to be of great antiquity. Each of them covers about an acre of ground. The whole structure of these mounts is of earth; but they are not both of the same form and dimensions. The more easterly one is perfectly round, resembling an oven, and upwards of fifty feet in height. The other bears no resemblance to the eastern one either in shape or size. At the foundation it is nearly of a triangular form; but the superstructure is quite irregular; nor does the height thereof bear any proportion to the extent of its base. These mounts are now planted with firs, which, with the parish church of Dunipace standing in the middle between them; and the river running hard by, give this valley a very romantic appearance. The common account given of them is, that they were erected as monuments of a peace concluded in that place between the Romans and the Caledonians, and that their name partakes of the language of both people; dun signifying a hill in the old language of this island; and pax, peace, in the language of Rome. And we find in history, that no less than three treaties of peace were, at different periods, entered into between the Romans and Caledonians: the first, by Severus, about A.D. 210; the second, soon after, by his son Caracalla; and the third, by Carausius, about 280; but of which of those treaties Dunipace is a monument, we cannot pretend to determine.

DUNKELD, a town of Scotland, in Perthshire, seated on the north side of the river Tay, in a situation truly romantic, among high and almost inaccessible crags, partly naked and partly wooded. It is the chief market town of the Highlands, and has been greatly improved with buildings by the dukes of Athol. It was the capital of ancient Caledonia. About the dawn of Christianity, a Pictish king made it the seat of religion, by erecting a monastery of Culdees there; which king David I., in 1130, converted into a cathedral: it ranked as the first in Scotland. The entire shell of the cathedral still remains, the east end serving for a parish church, on the north side of which is the burial place of the dukes of Athol. The architecture is simple and elegant, the pillars are round. The monument of one of its bishops remains in the south aisle of the nave, with that of Alexander Stuart, earl of Buchan, third son of Robert II., called, for his cruelty, The Wolf of Badenoch. The tower at the west end, with a singular crack down one of its sides, adds to the picturesque appearance which the whole makes, among the venerable pines at the end of the duke's garden. His grace's seat is a neat modern building, with pleasant gardens, and a fine cascade on the water of Bran, which, in its way from the western hills, forms a fall of 150 feet, called the Rumbling Brig, from a narrow bridge made by the fall of two rocks across the stream. Dunkeld has four fairs, January 21, February 3, March 8, and second Tuesday in November. Besides the tanning of leather, the linen manufacture has been carried on to considerable extent, for a number of years, and the manufacture of cotton goods is now also introduced. Dunkeld is fifteen miles north-west from Perth.



**DUNKIRK**, from *dun*, Celt. a hill, and *kirk*, Flem. a church; a maritime town of France, in the department of the north, and ci-devant province of French Flanders. It is the most easterly harbour on that side of France which is next to Great Britain, and was originally a mean hamlet, consisting only of a few fishermen's huts. Baldwin, ea. of Flanders, about A.D. 960, thinking the situation convenient, enlarged it into a town, and surrounded it with a wall. In the year 1322 Robert, earl of Flanders, who held it as an appendage, built a castle for its defence, which was afterwards demolished by the revolt of Flanders. Robert of Bar erected a fortification round it, the remains of which are visible on the side next the harbour. The emperor Charles V., who held it as part of Flanders, built another castle to defend the harbour, but this was also demolished soon afterwards. In 1558 the French, under marshal de Thermes, took Dunkirk by storm, and almost ruined the place; the Spaniards recovered it again in about a fortnight, and put all the French to the sword. During a peace procured for the inhabitants by Philip II. of Spain, they rebuilt their town with greater splendor than before, and flourished for some time by privateering against the Dutch; at length they fortified their town and harbour, and fitted out fifteen ships of war at their own charge. In 1634 the inhabitants agreed with those of Bergues to dig a canal, at their joint expense, for a communication between the two towns; which was some time afterwards effected. By this time Dunkirk was become the best harbour the Spaniards possessed in Flanders, which induced many foreigners to settle there; and, it being necessary to enlarge the town, a new fortified wall was built at a considerable distance from the former. In 1646 it was besieged and taken by the prince of Condé. In 1652 it was retaken by the archduke Leopold, then governor of the Netherlands. France entering into a treaty with England, in 1655, the Dunkirkers, with views of pecuniary advantage, fitted out privateers against both these powers; the consequence of which was, that the French, assisted by Cromwell, attacked and took it, and it was left in the hands of the English. It was even then of great importance to us; for, during the war in which it was taken, the Dunkirkers had made prizes of no less than 250 English vessels, many of which were of great value. The fortifications were now, therefore, improved, and a citadel built; yet the English kept it only four years; for in 1662, two years after the Restoration, Charles II. sold this valuable acquisition to France, for the paltry sum of £500,000. It was accordingly taken possession of, for Louis XIV., by the count d'Estrades, on the 29th November, 1662. The celebrated engineer, Monsieur Vauban, now erected an arsenal here, large enough to contain all the stores necessary for fitting out and maintaining a large fleet; the fortifications on the land side were constructed in a manner that was thought to render them impregnable; and, towards the sea, the entrance of the harbour was strongly fortified. These works were completed in 1683; and, in 1685, the whole circumference

of the basin was faced with masonry, and the quays completely formed. In 1689 the fort, called the Cornichon, and some other works, were added. Upwards of thirty years were employed in improving the fortifications. At the treaty of Utrecht, it having been made appear that the privateers of Dunkirk had, during the war then closing, taken from the English no less than 1614 prizes, valued at £1,334,375 sterling, it was stipulated, that the fortifications of the town and port of Dunkirk should be entirely demolished, and the harbour filled up; and queen Anne deputed colonels Armstrong and Clayton to inspect the execution of this part of the treaty. A large bar was now built across the mouth of the harbour, between the jetties and the town, by which all communication between it and the canal, which formed its entrance, was entirely cut off. The sluices were also broken up, and the materials of them broken to pieces. This was scarcely accomplished, when Louis XIV. ordered 30,000 men to construct the new canal of Marais, which in a short time they accomplished; and thus the harbour was rendered almost as commodious as ever; but in 1717 this likewise was rendered unserviceable. In 1720, during a great storm, the sea broke up the bar, and restored the harbour in a very considerable degree. When, in 1740, Great Britain was engaged in a war with Spain, Louis XV. set about improving the advantage which Dunkirk had derived from the storm in 1720, by restoring the works and repairing the harbour. He rebuilt the jetties and erected new forts in the place of those which had been destroyed; and soon afterwards espoused the cause of Spain, and became a principal in the war. But at the peace of Sil-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was stipulated, that all the works towards the sea should be demolished a second time; yet, in 1756, the place was again in a good state of defence. At the peace of 1763 it was once more stipulated that a British commissary should reside at Dunkirk, to see to the destruction of this harbour. But by the peace of 1783 he was withdrawn, and the French were left to resume their works. The British, under his late royal highness the duke of York, laid siege to this town in 1794, but were soon obliged to abandon it.

Dunkirk is, on the whole, a well-built town; the houses are chiefly of white brick; but some consist of more than two stories. It is a place of brisk trade in fish, corn, colonial produce, and home manufactures. Its chief inconvenience is a scarcity of fresh water. The barracks are extensive and elegant; and the churches contain some beautiful paintings. The town is approached by a canal of a mile and a half in length, the port and basin being in the middle of the town; the roadstead is at the extremity of the canal, and formed by a sand-bank running parallel to the shore. A mound of ditch surround the town. Dunkirk was restored to the privilege of a free port by a royal ordinance of the 22d April, 1816. Population about 20,000. It is twenty-five miles north-east of Calais, and forty north-west of Lisle.

**DUNMORE**, East, a post town in the county of Waterford, eighty-four Irish miles from the



a Waterford city, lat.  $50^{\circ} 8' 17''$ , is remarkable for a pier built as a packet station to ply between Milford Haven, from which it is eight nautical miles. This great work was undertaken at the expense of government as a step in the desirable object of facilitating communication between Ireland in 1814, from a moor, Esq. and has been executed for £80,000. The piers formerly were on the river to Cheek Point, the river and Barrow rivers; and at not unfrequently wind-bound, it is immediately upon the Atlantic, being carried into five fathoms at low water at all times, and may be blown off at all winds. The pier is of conglomerate rock, which has rubble stone consumed in its construction, carried in a N. N. E. direction 1000 feet, having a base of 250 feet back, being exposed to the Atlantic, is paved with enorment. The inside of the pier is a wall, forty-five feet in height, sand-stone; the foundations of the pier are of the aid of the diving-bell in of water. On the quay is an vaulted apartments, containing residence, coals for the steam stores. The platform over these is a promenade, and has a light-emity, the design of which is a mn, copied from the pillars of stum: the lantern exhibits red and bright towards Waterford a slip constructed on the inside ling a safe and convenient place mbarking at all times. On the e harbour is a small rock-formed perforated by natural arches; his rock, below water, is marked on, connected to the island by a ridge of very simple construction. This island divides the space into an outer and inner ter of which, a surface of six tely sheltered from the awful ntic by the judicious position of e outer might be so enlarged s to admit line of battle ships. fully realised expectation; the ed in its construction is very l, during the period of the erec- tle or no damage was sustained that were necessitated to seek

LITTLE, a village in Essex. It had d is still famous for the custom reign of Henry III., by Robert d now the tenure of the manor: atever married couple will go to wear, kneeling upon two sharp- n the church, that they had not pented of their marriage, within after it took place, shall receive f the manor a fitch of bacon. ds mention several that have

claimed and received it. It has been actually received so lately as since the year 1750, by a weaver and his wife, of Coggeshall in Essex. It has been demanded more recently still; but the ceremony being attended with considerable expense to the lord of the manor, the demand is now evaded. See BACON, SERVICE OF THE.

DUNN (Samuel), an English mathematician, born at Crediton in Devonshire. He opened a school in his native town, where he gained considerable reputation as a teacher, and where he continued for several years. He afterwards removed to Chelsea, where he kept an academy, and became mathematical examiner for the East India service. He published an Atlas, folio; Treatises on Book-keeping, Navigation, &c. He died in 1792, and left his property towards founding a mathematical school at Crediton.

DUNNEMARLE CASTLE, i.e. the castle near the sea, an ancient fort of the Macduffs, thanes of Fife, now in ruins; said to have been their utmost boundary to the west. It was here that lady Macduff and her children were murdered by the tyrant Macbeth. It was seated on the banks of the Forth, in a fine situation, now called Castle-hill.

DUNNING (John), an eminent English lawyer, born at Ashburton in Devonshire, in 1731, where his father practised as an attorney, and where he began the studies connected with his profession. But after continuing some time with his father, he entered of the Temple, and was called to the bar, where he soon distinguished himself as an able lawyer and a powerful orator. He likewise obtained a seat in parliament, where he was particularly noticed on the side of the opposition. He afterwards became solicitor-general and recorder of Bristol, and chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster. In 1782 he was created lord Ashburton, but died the year following, leaving an infant son to inherit the title. His lordship was an upright lawyer, and it is recorded of him, much to his honor, that he often pleaded the cause of the poor unsolicited, and without a fee.

DUNNOTAR CASTLE, an ancient fortress, now in ruins, built in the reign of Edward I. by an ancestor of the Marischal family. In 1661 the regalia of Scotland were lodged in it, to preserve them from the English army, and a garrison, with ammunition and provisions, obtained for their defence by E. Marischal, the proprietor; who, upon joining the king's forces in England, appointed George Ogilvy, of Barras, lieutenant-governor of the fort. This trust he maintained with the greatest heroism. For though besieged and summoned to surrender by general Lambert, so early as November 1651, he held out obstinately for six months, till May 1652; when, the siege being turned into a blockade, and provisions and ammunition all spent, the garrison began to mutiny, and he at last capitulated upon honorable terms; but not till he had privately conveyed the regalia to the clergymen of Kinneff. The English not finding the regalia, shut up the governor and his wife close prisoners for years, using every means of severity and allurements to produce a discovery, but in vain. Mr. Ogilvy continued faithful to his trust till the Restoration, when he



returned the regalia to E. Marischal; but to the disgrace of Charles II.'s administration, received no other reward for all his fidelity, sufferings, and losses, but the title of baronet, and a new coat of arms! In 1685 Dunnottar castle was employed as a prison for 167 Presbyterians, who had been seized in the west of Scotland, during the persecution, and were here treated with the greatest cruelty; the whole number of men and women being confined during the warmest season of the year, in one vault, which is still to be seen entire, and hence called the Whigs' Vault. A list of their names is on record in the sheriff court office of the county; and a grave-stone in the church-yard of Dunnottar, placed upon those who died under the confinement, narrates the fact.

DUNSE, a market town of Scotland, in the county of Merse, containing about 2100 inhabitants. It is situated on a rising ground in the middle of the county, and has a weekly market for cattle. Dunse has four fairs, in March, June, August, and November, for horses, sheep, and black cattle.

DUNSINNAN, a hill of Scotland in Perthshire, celebrated in dramatic story by the immortal Shakspeare. It lies partly in the parish of Collace and partly in that of Abernethy. The ruins of Macbeth's castle are still to be seen on that part of the hill which lies in Collace. 'The site of it,' says Mr. Adamson, 'was admirably chosen for a place of defence, being a conical rising on the west end of the hill, almost inaccessible except on one side. The excellence of its situation had before pointed it out to Kenneth III. and other kings, as a secure place of residence. Upon the top of king's seat, there is the ruin of a circular enclosure, similar to Macbeth's castle, but much smaller. This, as it commanded a more extensive prospect than the castle, taking in a vast extent of country, great part of the sea-coast, from the mouth of the Frith of Forth, to the south Esk, probably was a watch-tower, or outpost; and from this circumstance had received its name.'

DUNS SCOTUS (John), a Franciscan friar, commonly called Doctor Subtilis, was born in 1274; but whether in England, Scotland, or Ireland, has long been a matter of dispute among the learned of each nation. When a boy, he became accidentally known to two Franciscan friars; who, finding him to be a youth of extraordinary capacity, took him to their convent at Newcastle. From thence he was sent to Oxford, where he was made fellow of Merton College and professor of divinity; and Mackenzie says, that not less than 30,000 students came to Oxford to hear his lectures. His fame was now become so universal, that the general of his order sent him to Paris, in 1304, where he was honored first with the degree of B.D. then of D.D. and in 1307 was appointed regent of the divinity schools. During his residence here, the famous controversy about the immaculate conception of the virgin Mary arose. Albertus Magnus maintained that she was born in original sin. Scotus advanced 200 arguments in support of the contrary opinion, and convinced the university, that she was really conceived immaculate. This important nonsense continued to be disputed till 1496, after the

council of Basil, when the University of Paris made a decree, that no student who did not believe the immaculate conception, should be admitted to a degree. Our author had not been above a year at Paris, when his general sent him to Cologne; where he was received with great pomp and ceremony by the magistrates and nobles of that city, and where he died of an apoplexy soon after his arrival, in 1308, in the thirty-fourth year of his age. Paul Jovius and others have reported, that Scotus was buried in an apopleptic fit; and that, upon removing his bones, he appeared to have turned himself in his coffin. He was doubtless one of the first wranglers of his time, admirably well versed in scholastic divinity, and a most indefatigable writer; and, if all his huge volumes hardly contain a page now worth perusal, it was the fault of the age. He was the author of a new sect of schoolmen called Scotists, who opposed the opinions of the Thomists. He was a most voluminous writer; his works making 12 vols. folio; as published at Lyons by Lais Wadding, in 1629.

DUNSTABLE, a town in Bedfordshire was a market on Wednesdays; was made a borough and market town by Henry I. who had a royal palace near the church, called Kingsbury. He also built a priory here, of which there now remains only a part. The front of the church is singular; the great door is under a semi-circular arch, richly ornamented with various grotesque sculptures; the tower stands at the north-west angle of the building. The town is seated on a chalky hill. It has several good inns, is here a great thoroughfare on the northern road. It consists of four streets, intersecting each other at right angles; and in the centre stood one of the beautiful crosses of queen Eleanor, but was destroyed by the enthusiasts in the time of the civil wars. Here is an extensive manufacture of various articles of use and ornament in some particularly hats, known by the name of Dunstable, all over the kingdom; and which employ a great number of women and girls. It is seventeen miles south of Bedford, and thence north-west of London.

DUNSTAFFNAGE, an ancient castle and royal palace of Scotland, in the county of Argyll and Lorne. It was a chief seat of the Scottish kings before the conquest of the Picts by Kenneth II., A.D. 843. In this place was long preserved the famous stone, the palladium of Calanais, brought, says the legend, out of Spain, where it was first used as a seat of justice by Gathelus, the son of Cecrops, contemporary with Moses. It continued here as the coronation chair till the reign of Kenneth II. who removed it to Scone. Some of the ancient regalia were preserved here, but the late keeper's servants, during his infirm years, embezzled them for the silver ornaments; and left only a battle-axe, nine feet long, of beautiful workmanship, and ornamented with silver. The castle is square; the inside only eighty-seven feet; partly ruinous, partly habitable. At three of the corners are round towers; one of them projects very little. The entrance is towards the sea at present by a stair-case, in old times probably by a drawbridge, which led from a little gateway. The masonry appears



ancient; the tops battlemented. This pile stood on a rock at the mouth of Loch Eive, the waters expand within to a beautiful bay, in which ships may safely ride in all weathers. Of the building, the founder of which is unknown, remains except the outer walls, which, though roofless, are still in good order; and in which some buildings have been erected, to serve as the residence of the laird. The office of Argyll is hereditary keeper under the king.—At a small distance from the castle is a chapel, once an elegant building; and at the end of an enclosure, a family cemetery. Opposite to these is a high precipice, ending abruptly and turning suddenly towards the south.

A person concealed in the recess of the castle a little beyond the angle, surprises friends who stand at some distance beneath the precipice by a very remarkable echo of any word, or sentence, he pronounces; which reaches the ear in a last distinct and unbroken. The repetition is single, but remarkably clear. In 1307 the castle was possessed by Alexander Macdougall, a friend to the English; but that year reduced by Robert Bruce, when Douglas sued for peace with that prince, and received into favor. About 1455 it was the residence of the lords of the Isles; for here, the last earl of Douglas, after his defeat in the battle of Ardsay, fled to Donald, the regulus of the Isles, and prevailed on him to take arms and wage a predatory war against his sovereign, James II.

DUNSTAN (St.), an Anglo-Saxon divine and saint of the tenth century, whose history comes down to us sufficiently adorned with details. He appears to have been born about 925, and to have been educated at Glassey by Irish ecclesiastics. In addition to a knowledge of the Latin tongue, and the usual acquirements of his profession, he acquired in his youth a considerable skill in music, metallurgy, and the arts of painting and carving. He composed an organ of brass pipes, and filled with bellows; and there is preserved in the library of the cathedral a drawing made by him of himself kneeling at his feet. He excelled, like a modern statesman and prince, in preparing ladies' robes, to be afterwards embroidered (MS. Cleop. b. 13.). Thus accomplished, he was early introduced to the notice of king Athelstan, by his uncle Athelm, bishop of Canterbury. But some indiscretion, or jealousy of the courtiers, compelled him to retire from this hopeful scene; and the disappointment of his prospects produced a serious illness. He now took the vows at Glassey, and devoted himself with ardor to the discipline of St. Benedict. It is said that he stood between the church and the poor at this time, a valuable estate bequeathed to him by a Saxon lady, as well as his paternal inheritance. To this period of his life is also attached the memorable legend of his conflicts with the spirit of darkness, who is said to have led him often in his cell; till he one day hit the demon by the nose with a red-hot iron pincers, after which he no more molested him.

On the accession of Edmund, the brother

and successor of Athelstan, he was again invited to court, and the rich abbey of Glastonbury was bestowed on him. He advanced still higher in the confidence of Edred, the next monarch, who made him his prime minister.

At the coronation feast of his successor, Edwy, this lordly ecclesiastic distinguished himself by a remarkable outrage on the person of the king. 'The popular account of this affair is, that the young prince had espoused a beautiful young lady of the royal blood, Elgiva, who was pronounced by the monks to be within the canonical degrees of affinity. Before his accession, therefore, she had been a source of dispute between the dignified ecclesiastics and the king. On the coronation-day he did not obtrude her claims upon the people; nor, on the contrary, would he forego his private comforts in her society. When the barons were indulging themselves in the pleasures of the feast, Edwy retired to his domestic apartments, and, in the company of Elgiva and her mother, laid aside his crown and regal state. Dunstan surmised the cause of his retreat; and taking with him his creature Odo, the nominal primate, penetrated into the interior of the palace, upbraided the prince with this untimely indulgence of his passions, and after branding his consort with the most opprobrious name of woman, brought him back with considerable violence into the hall. Mr. Turner, our able Anglo-Saxon historian, regards the transaction as a bold attempt of Dunstan to subdue the regal power to his ambition. He represents the nobility as evincing some displeasure at the king's early departure, and the anxiety of Odo to communicate the state of their minds to Edwy. That the persons he first addressed excused themselves from undertaking this errand: and the commission devolved by a sort of general wish on Dunstan, and Cynesius, a bishop, his relative. 'But with the delivery of the message,' he observes, 'his commission must have terminated; and on the king's refusal [if he did refuse] it was his duty to have retired. As an ecclesiastic, he should not have compelled him to a scene of inebriety; as a subject, it was treasonable to offer violence to his prince.'

'The latest, and not least able of our English historians, however, would place these events in a different light. He insists, somewhat in the spirit of the monkish writers, on this amour being highly disgraceful to the king; and while he represents it as 'the scandal of the age' (whose sources, in the king's disputes with the ecclesiastics, Mr. Lingard in any other instance would have readily traced), he states it as not altogether incredible that both Ethelgiva, the mother, and her daughter, whom he does not name, had sacrificed their honor to the equivocal ambition of one of them becoming queen. The nobles, he adds, accompanied their demand for the king's return with an injunction in the name of the whole assembly, for Ethelgiva to leave the court. The rest of his account does not materially differ from that of former historians. But with all the unfeigned respect for his impartiality, with which the perusal of this writer's volumes has inspired us, we cannot hold him successful



in this attempt to disengage the character of Dunstan and his associates from the imputation of great indecorum.

Were the lady the king's mistress, and not his wife, was a dignified ecclesiastic justified in following him into her apartments? and, had the amour been ever so unbecoming, was this a species of conduct likely to detach him from it? But the story of the wife and daughter together speculating upon his affections is surely improbable in the highest degree: we know that the monkish writers, who furnish the only account we have of the transaction, would call a wife, espoused in opposition to the will of the church, a mistress; and the sufferings of the young monarch from this interference with his affections, should teach us to exercise the judgment of charity on his memory.

Dunstan was now compelled to retire to Flanders, and this was a severe blow to the monks, who were expelled from several monasteries: but their sufferings were not of long continuance. For Edgar, the younger brother of Edwy, having raised a successful rebellion against the latter, and usurped his dominions north of the Thames, recalled Dunstan, and gave him the bishopric of Worcester, A.D. 957. From this time he was the chief confidant and prime minister of king Edgar, who became A.D. 959 sole monarch of England. In 960 Dunstan was raised to be archbishop of Canterbury; and being thus possessed of the primacy, and assured of the royal support and assistance, he prepared to execute the grand design which he had long meditated, of compelling the secular canons to put away their wives, and become monks; or of driving them out, and introducing Benedictine monks in their room. With this view, he procured the promotion of Oswald to the see of Worcester, and of Ethelwald to that of Winchester: two prelates who were monks themselves, and animated with the most ardent zeal for the advancement of their order. These confederates, by their arts and intrigues, in the course of a few years, filled no fewer than forty-eight monasteries with Benedictines. But on the death of Edgar in 975 they received a check. The sufferings of the persecuted canons had excited much compassion; and many of the nobility, who had been overawed by the power and zeal of the late king, now espoused their cause, and promoted their restoration. Elfric, duke of Mercia, drove the monks by force out of all the monasteries in that extensive province, and brought back the canons, with their wives and children; while Elfwin duke of East Anglia, and Brithnot duke of Essex, raised their troops to protect the monks in these countries. To allay these commotions several councils were held: in which Dunstan was so hard pressed by the secular canons and their friends, that he was obliged to have recourse to miracles, we are told, to overcome their opposition. St. Dunstan died A.D. 988, in the sixty-fourth year of his age, having held the bishopric of London, together with the archbishopric of Canterbury, about twenty-seven years.

DUNWICH, a town in Suffolk, most of

which is destroyed by the encroachment of the sea, and not one church left of eight hundred years; until 1832 it sent 10 members to parliament. The walls of the town are close seven acres, and the remains of it are yet visible. It is thirty miles north of Ipswich, twenty-four south of Yarmouth, ninety-nine north-east of London.

DUO, in music, a song or composition performed in two parts only, one sung, one played on an instrument, or by two voices when two voices sing different parts accompanied with a third, which is a bass. It is seldom that unisons are used in duos, except at the beginning.

DUODECUPLE, *adj.* Lat. *duo* and *consisting of twelve.*

Grisebadius, a learned Polander, endeavored to establish the duodecuple proportion among the comparing some passages of Scripture together.

DU PAN (James Mallet), a modern writer, was born at Geneva in 1749, appointed through the interest of Voltaire, professor of belles lettres at Cassel, and went to Paris. During the three years of the first French assembly he published an able analysis of their debates. Being sent in 1792 on a confidential mission from XVI. to his brothers, his estate, together with the whole of his personal property, was confiscated. He after this wrote at Brussels on the French Revolution, which was eulogised by Mr. Burke. He finally resided on a journal in London, entitled *le Courrier Britannique*. His death took place in 1800.

DUPE, *v. a. & n. s.* Dr. Johnson defines *Fr. duppe*, a foolish bird, easily caught; verb, to dupe, is probably the root, and derived from Lat. *duplex*, double. The trick: one easily tricked or imposed upon.

An usurping populace is its own dupe, a workman, and a purchaser in trust for an unscrupulous tyrant.

First slave to words, then vassal to a man;  
Then dupe to party; child and man the same.

The throne a bigot keeps, a genius quits;  
Faithless through piety, and duped through

For, believe me, you will find, that in the world there is not a fairer subject for satire and ridicule, than a knave become the dupe of his own art.

I have not been thy dupe, nor art thy prey  
But was my own destroyer, and will be  
My own hereafter.—Back, ye baffled fools!  
The hand of death is on me—but not yours.

DUPIN (Lewis Eltis), a learned doctor of Sorbonne, and one of the greatest critics in ecclesiastical matters, was born in 1657. When he published the first of his *Bibliothèque Universelle des Sciences ecclésiastiques*, in 1686, the liberty, which he treated some ecclesiastical writers, gave offence, that M. de Harlay, archbishop of Paris, obliged Dupin to retract many propositions, and suppressed the work. He was never









E. EDWARDS.



DUFFA.



G. EDWARDS.



EDGEWORTH.



EGERTON.



ELLIOTT.



E. HARD.



ANDURER.



EDLINCK.



ed to continue it, by altering the title from *liothèque Universelle*, to *Bibliothèque Nouvelle*. This great undertaking, continued in several successive volumes, though sufficient to supply the life of an ordinary man, did not deter M. Dupin from publishing several other works. He was professor of philosophy in the college; but was banished some time from his chair to Chatelheraut, on account of the famous *Cas de Conscience*, but was restored, and died in 1719.

**DUPPLICATE**, *v. a., n. s. & adj.* } French  
**DUPPLICATION**, *n. s.* } *duplicata*,  
**DUPPLICATION**. } from Lat.

*lex, duplicis*, i. e. *duo*, two, and *plicatus*, from *plere*, to fold; twice folded; double. To make double, or enlarge by doubling; to fold; the same thing or number so added: for the arithmetical use of the adjective, see the example. *Duplicature* is synonymous with duplicate.

had some alterations in the brain duplicate that which is but a single object to our undisturbed senses.

*Glennville.*

What great pains hath been taken concerning the duplication of a circle, and the duplication of a cube, and some other mathematical problems.

*Hale's Origin of Mankind.*

The lymphducts, either dilacerated or obstructed, separate themselves into the foldings, or between the duplicatures of the membranes.

*Ray on the Creation.*

*Duplicate* proportion is the proportion of squares. As, in a rank of geometrical proportions, the first to the third is said to be in a duplicate ratio of the second; so in 2, 4, 8, 16, the ratio of 2 to 8 is a duplicate of that of 2 to 4, or as the square of 2 to the square of 4.

*Phillips, Harris, Bailey.*

It has been found, that the attraction is almost reciprocally in a duplicate proportion of the distance of the middle of the drop from the concourse of the axes.

*Newton.*

Nothing is more needful for perfecting the natural body of bodies, than the subjecting them to the fire; which end I have reserved duplicates of the most considerable.

*Woodward.*

The peritonæum is a strong membrane, every where double; in the duplications of which all the organs of the abdomen are hid.

*Wiseeman's Surgery.*

Will you give me leave to illustrate this affair of wit and judgment, by the two knobs on the back of the chair? Here stands wit—and there stands judgment. You see they are the highest and most ornamental parts of its frame—as wit and judgment are ours, and like them too, indubitably both made and used to go together,—in order, as we say in all such cases of duplicated embellishments—to answer one another.

*Sterne.*

Land-sea marriage. This kind of sea-weed is dyed up by bladders of air, which are formed in the duplicatures of its leaves, and forms immense float-fields of vegetation; the young ones, branching from the larger ones, and borne on similar little vessels.

*Darwin.*

**DUPPLICATE**, in law, used for the second letters sent, granted by the lord chancellor, in a case wherein he had before done the same; which were therefore thought void. But it is more commonly a copy or transcript of any deed or writing, account, &c., or a second letter, written to the same party and purpose as a

former, or a copy of despatches, for fear of a miscarriage of the first, or for other reasons.—4 *Car.* 2. c. 10.

**DUPPLICITY**, *n. s.* Lat. *duplicis*. Double-ness; the number of two.

This duplicity was ill contrived to place one head at both extremes, and it had been more tolerable to have set three or four at one. *Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

Do not affect duplicities nor triplicities, nor any certain number of parts, in your division of things.

*Watts's Logic.*

**DUPONDIIUS**, in antiquity, a weight of two pounds, or a money of the value of two asses. See *As*. As the *as* at first weighed a just pondo, or libra, the dupondius then weighed two; and hence the name. And though the weight of the *as* was afterwards diminished, and of consequence that of the dupondius also, yet they still retained the denomination. See *LIBRA*.

**DUPORT** (James), a learned English divine, was born in 1606, in Jesus' College, Cambridge, of which his father was master. He was educated at Westminster School, and at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he obtained a fellowship. In 1632 he was appointed regius professor of Greek; and, in 1641, made prebendary of Lincoln and archdeacon of Stow. He was deprived, in 1656, of his professorship for refusing the engagement, but recovered it at the Restoration, and resigned it again the same year in favor of Dr. Barrow. In 1664 he became D. D., and was promoted to the deanery of Peterborough. In 1668 he was elected master of Magdalen College. He died in 1679. His works are—1. *Gnomologia Homerica*. 2. *Tres Libri Solomonis, Græco Carmine donati*, 12mo. 3. *Metaphrasis Psalmorum versibus Græcis contexta cum versione Lat.* 4to. 4. *Musæ Subsecivæ seu Poemata Stromata*, 8vo. In 1712 some of his lectures were printed by Needham. His father was one of the translators of the Bible.

**DUPORT** (Marguerite Louis Francis du Tertre), was an advocate at Paris. In 1790 he was appointed minister of justice on the recommendation of La Fayette, and vainly endeavoured to adhere to the constitution which had been established. On the departure of Louis XVI. for Varennes, Duport went to the National Assembly, according to the king's directions, to deliver up the great seal; and when the representatives enjoined him to resume it, and seal the order for the arrest of that prince, being denounced anew, he gave in his resignation. He was however involved in the proscription of the 10th of August, 1792, and, being sent to Orleans, was condemned and executed in November, 1793, as an enemy to the liberty of the press. On hearing his sentence, he exclaimed, 'Revolutions destroy men; posterity will judge them.' Duport published, in conjunction with Kerverseau, the first eight volumes of a work, entitled *L'Histoire de la Révolution, par deux Amis de la Liberté*.

**DUPPA** (Brian), a learned English bishop, born in 1589, at Lewisham, in Kent, of which place his father was then vicar. In 1634 he was instituted chancellor of the church at Sarum, and soon after made chaplain to Charles I. He was appointed tutor to Charles, prince of Wales, and his brother James, duke of York; was made



bishop of Chichester; and, in 1641, translated to Salisbury, though the confusion that followed deprived him of all benefit from his promotion. Charles I. held him in high esteem, and he is said to have assisted the king in composing the Eikon Basiliké. On the Restoration he was made bishop of Winchester, and lord high almoner; but died in 1662. He bequeathed large sums to charitable purposes: and published a few sermons, with other religious pieces.

**DURA MATER**, from *durus*, hard, and *mater*, a mother; called *dura* from its comparative hardness with the *pia mater*, and *mater* from its being supposed to be the source of all the other membranes. *Dura meninx*, *Dermatodes*. A thick and somewhat insensible membrane, formed of two layers, that surrounds and defends the brain, and adheres strongly to the internal surface of the cranium. It has three considerable processes, the falciiform, the tentorium, and the septum cerebelli; and several sinuses, of which the longitudinal, lateral, and inferior longitudinal, are the principal. See **ANATOMY**.

**DURANGO**, a town of Spain, in Biscay, famous for its manufacture of sword-blades and steel articles. Population 2800. Fifteen miles east of Bilbao.

**DURANGO**, or New Biscay, an intendancy of Mexico, extending from south to north from the mines of Guariamey to the mountains of Carcay, north-west of the Presidio de Yanos, 232 leagues. Its breadth is unequal: near Párras it is scarcely fifty-eight leagues; but is taken on an average at sixty-three leagues. It does not appear to contain above 160,000 inhabitants, but, in this country, except through the details furnished by Humboldt in his *New Spain*, we are very little acquainted with this region. It is bounded on the south by New Galicia, or by the two intendancies of Zacatecas and Guadalupe, on the south-east by a small part of the intendancy of San Luis Potosí, and on the west by the intendancy of Sonora. North and east it is bounded by an uncultivated country, inhabited by warlike and independent Indians. But since the end of the last century these troublesome neighbours have been on the decline. The intendancy comprehends the northern extremity of the great table land of Anahuac, which declines to the north-east towards the banks of the Rio del Norte. The ground around the city of Durango is about 1500 feet above the level of the sea. The extent of surface at this intendancy is 16,873 square leagues.

**DURANGO**, a town of Mexico, the chief city of the intendancy of that name, is situated in the southern part of New Biscay, 170 leagues north-west from the city of Mexico, and 298 from the town of Santa Fe. It is the residence of the intendancy and of a bishop. The height of the ground on which the town is built is 6845 feet above the level of the sea. There are frequent falls of snow, and the thermometer sometimes descends to 14° of Fahrenheit. The population is estimated at 12,000. The surrounding country is fertile in corn and fruits, and the fine pastures abound with cattle.

**DURANTA**, in botany, a genus of the angiospermia order and didynamia class of plants; natural order fortieth, personatæ: **CAL.** quin-

quefid, superior: **BER.** tetraspermous: localur. Species, three; natives of the W and South America.

**DURANTE ABSENTIA** (during absence), in law, is an administration granted when the tutor is out of the realm, to continue until his return.

**DURE**, *v. n.*

**DUR'ABLE**, *adj.*

**DUR'ABLENESS**, *n. s.*

**DUR'ABLY**, *adv.*

**DURA'TION**, *n. s.*

**DURE'FUL**, *adj.*

**DURE'LESS**, *adj.*

**DUR'ING**, *prep.*

**DUR'ITY**, *n. s.*

Fr. *dur*  
and *Port.*  
Lat. *dura*  
*duras*; I  
hard. To  
tinne: *dur*  
ing; perm  
is *dureful*  
is the oppos

Duration and durability express a state of or permanence: during is while any

For the things that ben seien ben but a schort tyme, but the things that ben a euer lasyng.

The *dureful* oak, whose sap is not yet d  
Is long ere it conceive the kindling fire;  
But when it once doth burn, it doth de  
Great heat, and makes his flames to heave

Stones, though in dignity of nature o  
plants, yet exceed them in firmness of st  
rability of being.

No less *durable* and mighty is the seed  
his children regenerate, than the seed of  
in the unregenerate, to move and rule the  
accordingly. *MS. Note of Bradford*

Wit is brushwood, judgment timber: the  
the greatest flame, the other yields the fuel  
and both meeting make the best fire.

The bones of his body we may compare  
rocks and stones, and therefore strong and  
Raleigh

Our times upon the earth have neither  
*durability*.

Yet were that aptitude natural, more in  
fellow and embrace the false and *durien* of  
this stage-play world, than to become the  
God.

Ancients did burn fragments of marble  
time became marble again, at least of  
*durity*, as appeareth in the standing throne.

With pins of adamant,  
And chains, they made all fast; too fast to  
And *durable*!

Time, though in eternity, applied  
To motion, measures all things *durable*  
By present, past, and future.

There indeed he found his *same* fast  
monuments engraved in marble, and yet not  
in men's memories.

Such a constitution as this would make  
Leviathan of a shorter *duration*, than the  
creatures, and not let it outlast the day of w

If *during* his childhood he be constantly  
rously kept from drinking cold liquor whilst  
forbearance grows into a habit.

Aristotle, by greatness of action, does  
mean it should be great in its nature, but  
*duration*; that it should have a *dus* length.

A bad poet, if he cannot become himself  
goodness of his verse, may by the *durable*  
metal that supports it. *Id. On Anac*



to consistence and *durableness* of the they consist, are more or less.

*Woodward.*  
circumstance so essential to happiness, eived it possible for the joys of heaven rom us in an instant, we should find uch concerned for the attainment of

*Rogers.*  
of her majesty's reign ought to be re- more *durable* than brass, and such as ay read a thousand years hence.

*Swift.*  
lative and sprightly tempers seem in- a great enjoyment. There is too ted in the mere transition from one er. No room for those deep impres- re made alone by the *duration* of an

*Shenstone.*  
may sometimes prolong their *duration*, ive them perpetuity.

*Johnson. Plan of Dictionary.*  
y, madam, do you speak as to *duration* you mean that the story is tediously

*Sheridan.*  
OF ACTION, according to Aristotle, a natural day in tragedy; but the ding to the same critic, has no fixed

OLTRY.  
E, } Fr. *duress*, hardship, from  
} Lat. *durus*, hard. See Du-  
plied particularly to constraint;

and Helen of thy noble thoughts,  
urance and contagious prison;  
er by mechanick dirty hands.

*Shakespeare.*  
e's neither iron bar nor gate,  
lis, chain, nor bolt, nor grate;  
st men *durance* there abide,  
geons scarce three inches wide.

*Hudibras.*  
at that instant trembled round,  
urth sighed as she felt the wound;  
urance was this new made state;  
mighty than heaven's love, her hate!

*Dryden.*  
ocent, forlorn stranger, languishing in  
the false accusations of a lying, insolent,  
n.

*South.*  
ding the warning and example before  
myself to lasting *durance*.

*Congreve's Old Bachelor.*  
plea used, by way of exception, by him  
t into prison at a man's suit, or other-  
t, beating, &c., hardly used, seals any  
uring his restraint. This the law holds  
d supposes to be constrained. *Cowell.*

in men's breath, our lives upon  
r breath; our *durance* upon days;  
easons; our whole being on  
ich is not us!

*Byron.*  
(David), a learned divine and critic,  
land of Jersey, in 1728. He re-  
ucation at Pembroke College, Ox-  
he took his degrees in arts, but  
ecame fellow of Hertford College,  
was appointed principal in 1757.  
the degree of D.D. in 1764, and  
ears after a prebendal stall in the  
anterbury. He died in 1775. He  
1. The Hebrew Text of the Pa-  
cies of Jacob and Moses, relating

to the Twelve Tribes, with a Translation and  
Notes, &c. 4to. 2. Critical Remarks on the  
books of Job, Psalms, Ecclesiastes, and Cauti-  
cles, 4to.: which is frequently referred to by  
bishop Horne, in his Commentary on the Psalms.

DÜRER (Albert), one of the first engravers  
and painters of his age, was descended of an  
Hungarian family, and born at Nuremberg, in  
1471. He was also a man of letters and a phi-  
losopher; and was an intimate friend of Eras-  
mus, who revised some of his works. He was  
one of the first improvers of the art of engraving.  
In many of those prints which he executed  
on copper, the engraving is elegant to a great  
degree. His 'hell scene,' in particular, which  
was engraved in 1513, is as highly finished a  
print as ever was engraved, and as happily ex-  
ecuted. This artist understood the principles of  
design; his composition, too, is often pleasing;  
and his drawing generally good. But he knew  
very little of the management of light; and still  
less of grace: yet his ideas are purer than could  
well be expected from the awkward archetypes  
which his country and education afforded. In a  
word, he was a man of very extensive genius;  
and, as Vasari remarks, would have been an ex-  
traordinary artist, if he had had an Italian in-  
stead of a German education. His prints are  
very numerous. They were much admired in  
his own life-time, and eagerly bought up; which  
made his wife urge him to spend more time upon  
engraving than he was inclined to do. But he  
was rich; and chose rather to practise his art as  
an amusement than as a business. He died in  
1527.

DURESS, durities, constraint, in English  
law, is more particularly applied to whatever is  
done by man to save either life or limb. If a  
man through fear of death or mayhem, is pre-  
vailed upon to execute a deed, or do any other  
legal act, though accompanied with all other re-  
quisite solemnities, it may be afterwards avoided.  
And the same is a sufficient excuse for the com-  
mission of many misdemeanours. There are two  
sorts of duress: duress of imprisonment, where  
a man actually loses his liberty; and duress per  
minas (by threats), where the hardship is only  
threatened and impending.

A man who was under duress of imprison-  
ment, being an illegal restraint of liberty, until  
he seals a bond or the like, may allege this du-  
ress, and avoid the extorted bond. But if a man  
be lawfully imprisoned, and either to procure his  
discharge, or on any other fair account, seals a  
bond or deed, this is not by duress of imprison-  
ment, and he is not at liberty to avoid it. 2  
*Inst.* 482.

Duress per minas, is either for fear of loss of  
life, or else for fear of mayhem or loss of limb.  
And this fear must be upon sufficient reason:  
non suspicio cuiuslibet vani et meticulosi hominis,  
sed talis qui possit cadere in virum constantem.  
Bract. l. 2. c. 5. A fear of battery (or being  
beaten) though never so well grounded, is no  
duress; neither is the fear of having one's house  
burned, or one's goods taken away and destroyed;  
because in these cases, should the threat be per-  
formed, a man may have satisfaction, by re-  
covering equivalent damages; but no suitable



atonement can be made for the loss of life or limb. 2 *Inst.* 483.

D'URFEY (Thomas), an eminent English satirist and songster, whose name is well known, but of whose life few particulars are to be collected. He was born in Devonshire; but when, where, or of what family, are uncertain. He was bred to the law, which he forsook for the more agreeable employment of writing plays and songs; and the latter he had so happy a talent both of writing and singing, that he received many favors from persons of quality on that account. The writer of the *Guardian*, No. 67, tells us, he remembered to have seen Charles II. leaning on Tom D'Urfeys's shoulder more than once, humming over a song with him. This indeed was not extraordinary in so merry a monarch; but even the phlegmatic king William could relax his muscles on hearing him sing. D'Urfeys grew poor as he grew old, and prevailing on the managers of the playhouse to act his comedy of the *Plotting Sisters*, for his benefit, Addison wrote the above-mentioned paper in the *Guardian*, with another, No. 82, representing him in a good humored light, to procure him a full house. He died very old, in 1723.

DURHAM, a maritime county of England, is situated between the rivers Tees and Derwent, and along the German Ocean. It is bounded on the north by Northumberland, from which it is separated by the rivers Derwent and Tyne; on the east by the German Ocean; on the south by the river Tees, which divides it from Yorkshire; and on the west by Cumberland and Northumberland. Its form is triangular, extending forty-five miles in length, from its most western extremity, near the village of Kelhope, to Hartlepool on the east; and thirty-six in breadth, from the village of Stockburn in the south, to South Shields in the north. Though only a small part of the county is either of this length or breadth, it is nearly 180 miles in circumference. Its superficial area includes about 610,000 acres, containing four wards, one city, 120 parishes, ten market towns, and 230 villages. It is in the diocese of its own name, and is included in the northern circuit. Durham is divided into wards, and the archdeaconry comprehends four deaneries.

Before the Roman invasion Durham was inhabited by the Brigantes, but, after the conquest of this kingdom, it became part of the Roman province called *Maxima Caesariensis*. The Anglo-Saxons included it in the kingdom of Northumberland. The etymology of the present name of this county appears to be derived, according to Bede, from *dun* a hill, and *holm* an island. It is usually called the bishopric of Durham, from the great power which the bishop of the diocese formerly possessed. It is, however, a palatine county, deriving its privileges from a grant made by Egfrid, king of Northumberland, in the year 685, of all the land betwixt the rivers Wear and Tyne, to St. Cuthbert, the apostle of the north, and to the ministers of his church for ever.

Speed remarks, that the air is sharp and very piercing, and would be more so, were it not that the vapors from the German Ocean help much to dissolve the ice and snow; yet the air is generally deemed healthy. It is milder and more

pleasant towards the sea than in other parts. The general aspect is mountainous. A ridge of hills crossing the western angle has been denominated the English Appennines. They are not, however, extremely elevated. Of the soils of this county Granger says: near the river Tees, and in some spots bordering the other rivers and brooks in this county, the soil is loamy or a rich clay; at further distance from these rivers and brooks the soil is of a poorer nature, commonly termed watershaken, with here and there spots of gravel interspersed; but these are of small extent, the middle of none of them being half a mile from clay. The hills between the sea and an imaginary line drawn from Barnard Castle on the Tees, to Alansford on the Derwent, are for the most part covered with a dry loam, the fertility of which varies in proportion to its depth: to the westward of this line, the summits as well as the sides of the hills are moorish wastes. Mr. Baily, in his *Agricultural Report*, remarks that the soils of this county vary in such insensible degrees, that it would be difficult to describe them and their varieties. The principal distinctions, or heads of classification, may be taken as clay, loam, and peat. The south-east part of the county, from the Tees mouth to a few miles west of Stockton, and from thence by Redbank, Walviston, Elwich, and as far north as Hartlepool, consists of a strong fertile clayey loam. To the westward of this, as far as Sedgefield, Trillick, and Eppleton, and northward to near Sunderland, the soil is principally a poor stubborn water-shaken clay. Of the loamy soils there are different varieties, as is the case with the clayey soils mentioned. The deep, mellow, tenacious, and fertile, loams are in general found in the valleys of rivers. The limestone district, extending from near Sunderland by Houghton-le-Spring, Kelling, Coxhoe, Ferryhill, and to Merrington, is usually a dry but not a productive loam. The peaty soils are most prevalent in the western parts, the greatest portion of the moors that have been enclosed being of this description.

Hartlepool, situated on a promontory nearly encompassed by the German Ocean, which forms a capacious bay on the south side of the town, is advantageously placed for the reception of vessels, and landing of troops from the Continent. South Shields, also, sends out many vessels, and Stockton-upon-Tees is well situated for commerce.

The chief rivers which communicate with the sea are the Tyne, the Wear, and the Tees. The Tees rises in those vast moors which separate Yorkshire from Durham, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Northumberland. Its course is at first rather inclined to the south-east, but below Darlington it turns abruptly to the north-west, and falls into the sea below Stockton in the county, which may be called its port. The Wear rises in the same wild moors, but considerably to the north of the Tees. Its course is almost parallel with it, bearing at first to the south-west, and at Bishop's Auckland turning to the north-east; after nearly surrounding the city of Durham, it flows northward to Chilton-le-Strid, and then inclines a little towards the east, to reach its port of Sunderland. The *Wear*, Mr. Skrine calls the miniature of the Tees, and



bling that river in character, though greatly inferior in width and rapidity. The Tyne, speaking, belongs to Northumberland, but it has its source in the Durham Moors. Fish in these rivers are salmon, trout, eels, pike, and spartings in the Tees. The salt springs near Birtley, and the spas at Butterby and Wolsdale, are also deserving of notice. Near Water-gate, at the south side of the town of Hartlepool, is a chalybeate spring, covered every day by the sea, and slightly impregnated with iron.

The mineral productions of Durham are various and valuable.—The coal districts, in particular, are extensive in various parts of the county. Mr. Bailey has enumerated thirty-four collieries, which he calls Watersale Collieries, and five which he calls Landsale Collieries.

From these lists it appears that the quantity of coal obtained in this county annually is 180,080 chaldrons of thirty-six bushels; 60 men are employed. In the year 1809 there were eighty-six lead-mines working in this county. Of these, twenty-three belonged to the county of Durham; forty-seven, being all the mines in the county, except one, to the earl of Darlington. Coal is found in abundance in the western part of the coal district. The county, also, produces various kinds of excellent stone for chimneys, ornaments, mill-stones, grind-stones, &c.; also fire-stone for ovens, furnaces, &c., and one for building; as also gray slates for roofs, &c. The cattle of Durham are in much esteem; as for form, weight, produce of milk and butter, and quickness of fattening, they are equal to any in England.

Durham sends ten members to parliament, viz. two for the county, two for the city of Durham, and six for other places. This county was the birthplace of Sir John de Baliol, founder of the Scottish monarchy.

College, Oxford, born at Barnard castle, the venerable Bede, born at Wearmouth, died probably at Iscomb, 672, died 735; Dr. Samuel Garth; Joseph Reed, a dramatic writer; Rev. W. Romaine, a Calvinistic clergyman of the established church; Dr. Richard Owen, author of *Memoria Technica*, and many works on theology, &c.

In this county are manufactures of all kinds of iron, foundries for casting iron and brass, glass-houses, potteries, salt, copperas, saltpetre, coal tar, woollen, cotton, and linen; silk ribbon, and paper-mills. It abounds in gentlemen's and gentlemen's seats.

There are, likewise, several natural and artificial curiosities worth the notice of travellers: as, black halls, near Hartlepool, consisting of masses of rocks, formed by the force and concussion of the waves of the sea, which have several fine pointed archways and vast caverns, resembling those of a cathedral. At Hartlepool are some of those curious cavities called hell-kettles; the diameter of the largest is 100 feet, and that of the least seventy-five feet.

A pier hospital, near Durham, founded in 1790, has only part of the gateway standing, a good and handsome piece of masonry with several arches. Remains of several monastic buildings occur near the church at Monk Wear-

mouth; that of Jarrow may still be traced in its ruins on the summit of an elevated ridge near the church; and the ruins of a monastery for grey friars may be seen at Hartlepool. On the east side of the main street of Gateshead are the ruins of St. Edmund's monastery, established, according to Bede, before the middle of the seventh century; and Finchall priory, once beautifully situated in a vale on the banks of the Wear, covers with its ruins an extensive plot of ground. The principal existing ecclesiastical buildings are—Sedgefield church, in the Saxon style; Bishop Wearmouth church, supposed to have been founded by Athelstan; the parish church of Brancepeth, an ancient structure of the conventual form; and the cathedral of Durham, begun in 1093, in the Saxon and Norman style.

Durham is also rich in civil architecture and remains: amongst the most conspicuous are Hilton castle, an ancient baronial residence of a family of that name, situated on the north side of the Wear, about three miles from Wearmouth; its form is an oblong square, the interior consisting of five stories. Ravensworth castle, which seems anciently to have formed a quadrangle, having four square towers, connected by a curtain wall; two of the towers are built up, and the others are in ruins. Brancepeth castle, an irregular stately pile, erected about Stephen's reign. Lumley castle, about a mile to the east of Chester-le-Street, a seat of the earl of Scarborough; it is a quadrangle, with an area in the centre, and at each angle are projecting turrets of an octangular form. Bishop Auckland's castle, standing on the north angle of the town, and covering with its courts and offices about five acres of ground. Raby castle, the magnificent seat of the earl of Darlington, enlarged on the basis of a more ancient castle which stood here prior to the year 1379. Barnard castle, situated on the southern acclivity of an eminence, rising with a steep ascent from the river Tees. And the castle of the county town. See DURHAM, the city.

Roman coins have been dug up at Gateshead, on Fulwell Hill, and at South Shields, which was clearly the *ad finem* of Richard of Cirencester's Itinerary. Binschester, the seat and manor of the Wren family, is the site of the Roman station *Vinovium*; and Eboracaster is supposed to be the *Vindomara* of Antoninus, many Roman inscriptions, and an urn of uncommon form, having been found here. The latter was nearly a yard high and seven inches wide, having in the centre a small cup. Chester-le-Street has been supposed to be the *Condercum* of the Romans. It is situated on the military way leading to Newcastle. Glanibanta, near Lanchester, is another, and remarkably distinct Roman station. It is of an oblong figure, 174 paces from north to south, and 160 from east to west, within the vallum, which occupies a beautiful eminence. In some parts, the wall remains perfect; the outside is perpendicular, twelve feet in height, built of ashler work in regular courses, each stone being about nine inches thick, and twelve long. The site of the *Pretorium* is very distinctly to be traced.

Three miles west of the city of Durham, and to the right of the road, is Brandon, a village



situated in the vicinity of a high hill. On the summit is a remarkable tumulus, of an oblong form, 120 paces in circumference at the base, and about twenty-four feet in perpendicular height; but it does not appear that this tumulus was ever opened. It is now covered with a thick plantation of fir, and seems a relic of British antiquity. Near Eggleston is an ancient structure, called the Standing Stones, also of this class: it originally consisted of a cairn in the centre, surrounded by a trench, and encompassed by a circular arrangement of rough stones; many of which have been removed and broken to repair the roads.

Durham is termed a county palatine (*à palatio*) because the owners thereof had, in this county, the authority to use the royal prerogative as fully as the king had in his palace. Its privileges are thought to have been originally granted to the county, on account of its bordering so near upon Scotland, in order that the inhabitants, having justice administered at home, might not be obliged to go out of their county and leave it open to the enemy. The bishopric of Durham was dissolved, and the king to have all the lands, &c., by a statute (7 Ed. VI.) not printed. But this act was afterwards repealed (1 Mary, stat. 3, c. 3), and the bishopric newly erected, with all jurisdiction ecclesiastical and temporal annexed to the county palatine. The justices of the county palatine of Durham may levy fines of lands in the county; and writs upon proclamation, &c., are to be directed to the bishop. (Stats. 5 Eliz. c. 27, 31 Eliz. c. 2). Writs to elect members of Parliament in the county palatine of Durham, also go to the bishop or his chancellor, to be returned by the sheriff, &c. There is also a distinct court of chancery in this county; and the bishop is at the head of the whole administration of justice.

DURHAM, a principal city of England, the capital of the foregoing county, is sixteen miles south from Newcastle, and 259 north from London. This city was founded in 995, on the monks of Landisfarne removing to this spot, and making it the sacred depository of the relics of St. Cuthbert. It is nearly surrounded by the river Wear. Its situation, and the venerable appearance of its public buildings, strike the eye very agreeably at the southern entrance of the city. Altogether it is about a mile square, and is well paved, watched, and lighted. The municipal government is vested in a mayor, recorder, twelve aldermen, twenty-four common-council-men, who are chosen from twelve chartered trading companies, and an indefinite number of freemen: the corporation and freemen amounting in the whole to about 1000 electors, who return two members to parliament.

The cathedral and castle occupy the crown of an eminence, eighty feet perpendicular from the river, and enclosed by the remains of the old city walls. At the bottom flows the Wear. The slope of the hill is decorated with hanging gardens and rich meadows, and the opposite banks are clothed with wood and fruit trees. The cathedral is itself 411 feet long, the length of the nave 200 feet, and the width seventy-four; the great cross-aisle has an aisle towards the

east, at both ends, 170 feet in length, and the seven wide; the middle tower is 214 feet high. It is divided into five aisles by four rows of pillars. The pillars are vast cylinders, some three feet in circumference, and, with the walls of the interior, are adorned with carvings exhibiting fine specimens of the early Norman style. Near the west end is the font, an elegant stone basin, ornamented with carved red-ox. To the oak-skreen at the entrance of the choir, as well as the bishop's throne, and the stalls for the bishop, dean, and prebendary, are finished in magnificent style. The founder's tomb is on the south side of the throne. The beautiful unadorned screen, on the eastern side of the choir, was the gift of John lord Neville. Behind the high altar stood the shrine of St. Cuthbert, once the richest in England. The north aisle of the cathedral is now used as a register-office for wills. In 1782 several parts of this structure being found in a ruinous condition, they were raised with considerable taste. The Gallies, or St. Mary's chapel, at the west end of the cathedral, is said to have been built as a place of worship for those females who were not allowed to enter the cathedral. The old Frater House is converted into an elegant library. The College is an oblong square, containing the dormitory and prebendal houses. The kitchen here is common, and at the upper end of it is a beautiful hall. On the north side of the church-yard is the grammar-school, and the master's house.

Durham has six other churches, namely St. Oswald's, an ancient structure, with a curious vaulted roof of wood, and some fine painted glass: St. Nicholas, an ancient but plain edifice, at which the corporation attend divine service. St. Mary-le-bow, built of hewn stone, is 1000 here the bishop and archdeacon's visitation is held: and St. Margaret's, St. Giles's, and Last St. Mary's. In the city are two Roman Catholic chapels, a quakers', presbyterian, methodist, and other meeting-houses.

On the Palace-Green stands the castle, erected by William the Conqueror, and part of which has been repaired, and made the residence of the bishop occasionally. The great tower stands upon an artificial mount, and is of a regular octagonal form, sixty-three feet in diameter. It formerly contained four tiers of apartments, but nothing now remains of it except the vaults, and part of the keep. Round the walls are three delightful terraces.

The market-place is large and spacious; in the centre is an excellent fountain, from which the inhabitants are supplied with water. A spacious piazza has been built, where the market for corn, provisions, &c., is held. Near it is the Guildhall, where the public meetings are convened. Among the recent improvements are a new gaol, house of correction, courts, and governor's house. There are four stone bridges in this city. The New bridge was finished in 1777, at the expense of the town chapter. Framwellgate bridge consists of six elliptic arches, and crosses the canal. The bridge is at the southern entrance to the city. Between the New bridge and St. Oswald's church are the public walks called the Rainton



afford an agreeable retreat in fine weather. Extensive cloth and carpet manufactory has been established, from funds bequeathed by a Smith, which affords employment to a great number of men and boys. A county infirmary is well supported. In the town are many charities, a subscription library, and several other literary and useful institutions. A little theatre was erected in 1791, and races are held in July.

Durham market on Saturday is well supplied with corn and all kinds of provisions. Sea fish brought from Hartlepool and Sunderland. Fairs are held on the 31st of March, for cattle; on Tuesday, for sheep and swine; and on the 1st of September, for horses; they each continue three days.

About half a mile eastward are the remains of a fortification called Old Durham and Maiden; and two miles and a half east stands Barnard Castle, an hospital founded by bishop Hugh, for a master and sixty-five lepers; in which are now maintained fifteen in-brethren, having a separate room, good diet, a suit of clothes annually, and 40s. in money: there are fifteen out-brethren. In a deep vale, near which are the ruins of Finchall Abbey, founded in 966 for Benedictines. On the west of the town is an old cross, erected by Ralph, lord Neville, in memory of a battle between the English and Scots, wherein the latter were defeated with the loss of 15,000 men, and their king David II. was taken prisoner.

DURHAM, a township of Connecticut, in New-Haven county, settled from Guilford, in 1698, and incorporated in 1708. It is about twenty miles south-west of Hartford, and eighteen miles east of New-Haven. It was called Canagwaug, by the Indians; which name a small stream chiefly rises here still bears.

DURHAM, a township of the United States, in Cumberland county, district of Maine, on the west bank of the Androscoggin, which separates it from Bowdoin on the north-east. It is 3 miles north-east of Boston.

DURHAM, a post town of New Hampshire, in Rockingham county, seated on Oyster river, near which it joins the Piscataqua; twelve miles west of Portsmouth. It was incorporated in 1633.

DURHAM, formerly a part of Dover, which adjoins to the north, and was called Oyster River.

DURHAM, a county of East Australia, bounded to the east by William's River and the church to the north by Manning River and the Hunter, on the west and south by the Hunter.

DURIO, in botany, a genus of the polyandria and polyadelphia class of plants: CAL. a perianth: COR. petals five growing calyx; stamina conjoined in five bodies; roundish; style bristly, the length of the fruit: FRUIT a roundish apple every where cultivated: SEED containing mucous orilla. It is one only, a native of the East Indies.

DURLACH, a well built town of Germany, formerly the capital of the margraviate of Baden, now of the circle of the Pfalz and Enz, grand duchy of Baden. It is situated on the Enz, at the foot of a long and lofty range

of mountains called the Thurmberg. It was burnt down in 1689, and, though rebuilt at the peace, never regained its prosperity. It contains 4000 inhabitants, for the most part Lutherans. Here is the ducal castle of Carlsburg, an elegant church, and an academy; but the seat of government has been removed to Carlsruhe. It is remarkable for its manufactory of porcelain. A considerable trade is also carried on in corn, madder, and tobacco. Durlach is five miles east of Carlsruhe, fifteen north-east of Rastadt, and thirty-two N.N.W. of Stuttgart.

DUROBRIVÆ, in ancient geography, a town of the Catyechlani, in Britain, now in ruins; which lies on the Nen, between Castor and Dornford, in Northamptonshire, on the borders of Huntingdonshire.

DUROBRIVÆ, or DUROCORIVÆ, a town of the Trinobantes, in Britain; whose ruins are situated between Flamstead and Redburn, in Hertfordshire. See CATTI.

DUROBRIVIS, an ancient town of Britain, twenty-five miles west of Durovernum, or Canterbury; now called Rochester, which, in the charter of the foundation of the church, is styled Durobrevis.

DUROC (Marshal), duke of Friuli, was born at Pont-a-Mousson in 1772, and studied in the military school of that place. His father, who was a notary, intended him for that employment; but in 1792 he became a lieutenant of artillery, and soon after emigrated into Germany. Returning home, we find him aid-de-camp to general Lespinasse, and engaged in that capacity, in his first revolutionary campaigns. In 1796 he was appointed aid-de-camp to Buonaparte, in Italy, and distinguished himself at the passage of the Isonzo. He was also in the expedition to Egypt; and being wounded by a cannon-ball, at the siege of Acre, returned with Buonaparte to France. Duroc after this had several important missions to Berlin, Stockholm, Vienna, and St. Petersburg; in which he is said to have been remarkably successful. He was a great favorite with Napoleon, and an adroit diplomatist; but he never acquired much military renown. He was killed by a cannon-ball at Wartschen, May 22d, 1813.—*Biog. Univ.*

DUROA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order and hexandria class of plants: CAL. cylindrical and lobed above; the border six-parted; there are no filaments; FRUIT a hispid apple. Species one only, a Surinam tree.

DUROTRIGES, an ancient British nation, scattered in that part of the country which is now called Dorsetshire. Their name is derived from the two British words dur, water, and trigo, to dwell; and they got it from the situation of their country, which lies along the sea coast. It is not certain whether the Durotriges formed an independent state under a prince of their own, or were united with their neighbours the Damnonii; as they were reduced by Vespasian under the dominion of the Romans, at the same time, and with the same ease, and never revolted. Dorchester, its present capital, seems to have been a Roman city of some consideration, though our antiquaries are not agreed about its Roman name. It is most probable, that it was the Dur-



novaria, in the twelfth Iter of Antoninus. Many Roman coins have been found at Dorchester; the military way called Jenning Street passed through it; and some vestiges of the ancient stone wall with which it was surrounded, and of the amphitheatre with which it was adorned, are still visible. The country of the Durotriges was included in the Roman province called Flavia Cæsariensis, and governed by the president of that province, as long as the Romans kept any footing in these parts.

DURY (John), usually called Duræus, a learned and sanguine divine of the seventeenth century, who, conceiving the project of a union of the reformed churches, obtained leave to travel from place to place in order to bring about this event. He was a native of Scotland, and obtained the countenance of archbishop Laud, and the prelates Bedell and Hall; but, although he met with encouragement in various parts of the continent, it is needless to say that he failed in his plans. And after this he undertook an explanation of the Apocalypse, which was to reunite every order of Christians. He died in 1675.

DUSK, *adj.*, *n. s.*, *v. a.* & *v. n.* } Sued.-Goth.  
DUSK'ILY, *adv.* } *dyster*; Goth.  
DUSK'ISH, *adj.* } *daucks*; Dut.  
DUSK'ISILY, *adv.* } *dugster*; Teut.  
DUSK'Y, *adj.* } *dus*; Gr. *δασυς*,  
from *δασυς*, thick, and *σκια*, shadow. Dark;  
gloomy in color or general appearance; tendency  
to darkness; to make or grow dark.

*Dushed* his eyes too, and failed his breath.

Chaucer.

From his infernal furnace forth he threw  
Huge flames, that dimmed all the heaven's light,  
Enrolled in *dusky* smoke, and brimstone blue.

Spenser.

Here lies the *dusky* torch of Mortimer,  
Choked with ambition of the meaner sort.

Shakespeare.

It is not green, but of a *dusky* brown colour.

Bacon.

The sawdust burned fair, till part of the candle  
consumed: the dust gathering about the snout, made  
the snout to burn *dusky*.

Id. Natural History.

Sight is not contented with sudden departments  
from one extreme to another; therefore rather a  
*dusky* tincture than an absolute black.

Wotton's Architecture.

Only, may the Good Spirit of the Almighty speedily  
dispell all those *dusky* prejudices from the minds of  
men, which may hinder them from discerning so clear  
a light.

Bp. Hall. Letter from the Tower.

The hills, to their supply,

Vapour and exhalation, *dusky* and moist,

Sent up amain.

Milton's Paradise Lost.

Some sprinkled freckles on his face were seen,  
Whose *dusky* set off the whiteness of the skin.

Dryden.

There fierce winds o'er *dusky* valleys blow,  
Whose every puff bears empty shades away. Id.  
I will wait on you in the *dusk* of the evening with  
my show upon my back.

Spectator.

Through the plains of one continual day,  
Six shining months pursue their even way;  
And six succeeding urge their *dusky* flight,  
Obscured with vapours and o'erwhelmed in night.

Prior.

The surface is of a *dusky* yellow colour.

Woodward.

While he continues in life, this *dusky* scene of  
mour, this melancholy prospect of final perdition, will  
frequently occur to his fancy. Bentley's Sermon.

Umbriel, a *dusky*, melancholy spirit,

As ever sullied the fair face of light.

Down to the central earth, his proper seat,

Repairs to search the gloomy cave of Spleen.

For.

By mixing such powders, we are not to expect  
strong and full white, such as is that of paper, but  
some *dusky* obscure one, such as might arise from a  
mixture of light and darkness, or from white and  
black; that is, a grey, or dun, or russet brown.

Newman's Optics.

Less bold, Leander at the *dusky* hour

Eyed, as he swam, the far love-lighted tower;

Breasted with struggling arms the tossing wave,

And sunk benighted in the watery grave. Den.

Hark! through the silence of the cold, dull night,  
The hum of armies gathering rank on rank!

Lo! *dusky* masses steal in dubious sight

Along the leaguered wall and bristling bank

Of the armed river, while with straggling light

The stars peep through the vapours dim and dark.

Which curl in curious wreaths. Byron.

DUSSARA, a fortified town of Hindostan, in  
the province of Gujerat. It is surrounded with  
twelve villages, and is the property of a Mo-  
hommedan zemindar, of Arabian descent. One  
of his ancestors who was put to death about  
A. D. 1209, by the rajah of Hulwad, for having  
committed gowhattia (cow-killing), is held in  
great veneration as a saint, by the adjacent Mo-  
hommedan inhabitants. His tomb is on the  
banks of a large tank in the neighbourhood,  
which is well cultivated. A force of about 1000  
excellent cavalry is maintained here.

DUSSAULX (John), a French writer, born at  
Chartres in 1728. He was a military man in  
early life, but quitted the army for literary pur-  
suits. At the beginning of the revolution he  
became a member of the convention; and of the  
council of ancients. He died in 1799. His  
works are, 1. A Translation of Juvenal, 2  
2. De la Passion de Jeu, 8vo. 3. Sur la Sup-  
pression des Jeux de Hazard. 4. Essai sur  
l'Abbé Blanchés. 5. Memoire sur les Sages  
Latins. 6. Voyage à Barrege, et dans les  
Pyrennées, 8vo. 7. Mes rapports avec J. J.  
Rousseau, 8vo.

DUSSELDORF, or DUSSELDORP, a city of  
Westphalia, now belonging to Prussia, in the  
duchy of Berg, situated on the river Rhine,  
near its confluence with the Rhine. It is an  
ancient and well built, the elector palatine having  
in the early part of the eighteenth century exempted  
from taxes for thirty years whoever should build  
a house within its walls. It was taken by the  
French in September 1795, when the town  
was greatly damaged; but it has since been re-  
paired, and contains a celebrated gallery of paint-  
ings, which after being removed, and for some  
time kept at Munich, was brought back here. It  
is said to comprise the chef d'œuvres of Rubens,  
Vandyk, Vanderwerf, and the Flemish masters.  
Here are also several elegant churches, an ex-  
cellent market-place, extensive barracks, and  
pleasant public walks. Dusseldorf has the  
academy removed hither from Duisburg in 1805,  
and a school for painting: it has also a collection



physical cabinet, and a mechanographical cabinet. Corn, and the local manufacture of cloth, paper-hangings, glass, and its chief articles of trade. Population, 19,000. The fortifications were after the peace of Luneville in 1801. In 1806, the residence of the grand duke, and the seat of his government; but, was made over with the rest of that duchy, and is now the capital of a grand-duchy of 364,000 inhabitants. Twenty miles from Cologne, thirty north-east of Aix-la-Chapelle, and sixty-two south-west of Munster. *u. s. & v. a.* } Goth. and Sax. *dust* ;  
*n. s.* } Dan. *dyst* ; Belg. *doust* ;  
*adj.* } Erse, *duist*. Earth, or  
 ter; hence a mean, low state; the  
 catter, and to free from, dust.

One then crieden and kessen awei her  
 threuen *dust* into the eir, the tribune  
 e him to be led into the castels and to  
 e scourgis. *Wiclif. Dedis. 22.*

I up the poor out of the *dust*, to set them  
 up. *I Sam. ii. 8.*

Our yesterdays have lighted fools  
 to the *dusty* death. *Shakespeare.*  
 sceptre, learning, physick, must  
 bow this, and come to *dust*.

*Id. Cymbeline.*  
 With the fruitfulness of trees, inasmuch as  
 set upon them: that powdering, when a  
 with, maketh a soiling to the tree, being  
 after finely laid on.

*Bacon's Natural History.*  
 Dust will rather lie in the *dust*, than rise  
 up. *Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

Thou  
 ground wast taken, know thy birth;  
 thou art, and shalt to *dust* return. *Milton.*  
 claim the truth, say what is man!  
 y from the *dust* began;  
 ten a few short years are o'er,  
 smilng fabric is no more.

*Cotton. Visions in Verse.*  
 And the *dusty* fields I less admire,  
 I strangely in some new desire. *Dryden.*  
 fore I am no more troubled and disturbed  
*dust* that is raised against it, than I  
 see from the top of a high steeple, where  
 air and sunshine, a company of great  
 boys (for it is all one) throw up the *dust*  
 which reached not me, but fell down in  
 res. *Locke.*

retch, suppress thy knowing pride,  
 thy learned lust:  
 thy thoughts while thou thyself art *dust*.

*Prior.*  
 A man's cart offends thy clothes and eyes,  
 ough the street a cloud of ashes flies.

*Gay.*  
 Even Drudgery himself,  
 t the car he sweats, or *dusty* hews  
 palace stone, looks gay.

*Thomson's Summer.*  
 etched in *dust* her gasping panthers lie,  
 l in foamy folds her serpents die.

*Darwin.*  
 dier!—you're a walking block, fit only to  
 many's regimentals on! *Sheridan.*

So revolves the scene;  
 ordains, who rolls the things of pride  
 t again to *dust*! *Byron.*

DUTCHESS, Fr. *duchesse*; Ital. *ducessa*;  
 from the low Latin formation (*ducissa*) of *dux*,  
*ducis*, a general. The lady of a duke.

For certes, lord, ther n' is non of us alle  
 That she n' hath ben a *duchesse* or a queene;  
 Now be we caitives, as it is wel sene.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*  
 The duke of Cornwall, and Regan his *dutchess*, will  
 be here. *Shakespeare. King Lear.*

The duke was to command the army, and the *dut-*  
*chess*, by the favor she possessed, to be near her ma-  
 jesty. *Swift.*

The gen'rous god who wit and gold refines,  
 And ripens spirits as he ripens mines,  
 Kept dross for *dutchesses*, the world shall know it,  
 To you gave sense, good humour, and a poet. *Pope.*

DUTCHESS COUNTY, a county of New York,  
 on the east side of Hudson River. It has the  
 state of Connecticut on the east, West Chester  
 on the south, and Colombia county on the north.  
 It is about forty-eight miles long and twenty-  
 three broad, and contains fifteen town-ships, of  
 which Poughkeepsie and Fish-Kill are the chief.  
 Dutchess county sends seven representatives to  
 the assembly of the state. In 1792 a remarkable  
 cavern was discovered in the county, at a place  
 called by the Indians Sepascot, at Rhynbeck.  
 The northern part is mountainous, and the eastern  
 hilly, with occasional lofty summits, while the  
 remainder presents a surface much broken. Its  
 agriculture is in the most improved state, and in  
 manufactures it has also made considerable pro-  
 gress. Iron ore abounds, and some ores of  
 copper, zinc, tin, lead, and silver, have been found.

DUTCHY, *n. s.* Fr. *duché*. The territory of  
 a duke.

Different states border on it: the kingdom of  
 France, the *dutchy* of Savoy, and the canton of  
 Bern. *Addison on Italy.*

France might have swallowed up his whole *dutchy*.  
*Swift.*

DUTENS (Louis), was born in France in  
 1729, and obtained orders in the church of  
 England; he was appointed chaplain to the  
 embassy at Turin, where he also held for some  
 time the situation of chargé des affaires. In  
 1766 he published at Paris his *Recherches sur*  
*l'Origine des Decouvertes*, of which a translation  
 soon appeared in London. The same year he  
 was presented to the rectory of Elsdon in North-  
 umberland. In 1768 he travelled with lord  
 Algernon Percy; and while abroad published  
 an edition of Leibnitz, in 6 vols. 4to. He died  
 in 1812. He published besides the above: 1. *Ex-*  
*PLICATIONS des quelques Medailles des Grecques*  
*et Pheniciennes*, 4to. 2. *Journal d'un Voyage*  
*aux Villes Principales de l'Europe*. 3. *Histoire*  
*de ce qui s'est passe pour etablissement d'une*  
*Regence en Angleterre*, 8vo. 4. *Recherches sur*  
*le tems reculé de l'usage des Voûtes chez les*  
*Anciens*. 5. *Memoires d'un Voyageur*, 5 vols.:  
 this he likewise published in English. He also  
 wrote the French text of the second volume of  
 the *Marlborough Gems*.

DUTTAR, a district of the Seik territories,  
 Hindostan, in the province of Lahore, situated  
 between the thirty-first and thirty-second degrees  
 of north latitude. The chief towns are Begwa-  
 rah, Horizpoor, and Malpoorah.



**DUTY**, in the military art, is the exercise of those functions that belong to a soldier; with this distinction, that mounting guard and, the like, where there is no enemy directly to be engaged, is called duty; but marching to meet and fight an enemy is called going on service.

**DUTY**, in polity and commerce, signifies the impost laid on merchandises, at importation or exportation, commonly called the duties of customs; also the taxes of excise, stamp-duties, &c. Peculiar duties once laid upon aliens are now repealed. See **CUSTOMS**.

**DUVAL** (Valentine Jamerai), a person of uncommon natural talents and singular fortune, born in the province of Champagne, in 1695. After serving a farmer and shepherd several years, when about eighteen years of age he became keeper of the cattle belonging to hermits of St. Anne, near Luneville. Here he took every opportunity of purchasing books, with what money he received, and attending to the instructions of these brothers, under whom he made a rapid progress in his studies. In this situation, he was accidentally discovered by two noblemen, while he was studying geography, under a tree, and they were so pleased with his conversation, that they introduced him to the duke of Lorraine, who placed him in the college of Pont a Mousson. The duke afterwards appointed him his librarian, and gave him the professorship of history in the academy of Luneville. He now gratefully remembered his original benefactors by rebuilding the hermitage of St. Anne, and adding a chapel and some ground to it. In 1738 he followed the grand duke Francis to Florence, and on the marriage of that prince, with the heiress of the house of Austria, he accompanied him to Vienna, where the emperor took a great delight in his conversation, and made him keeper of his cabinet of medals. He died in 1775.

**DUUMVIRATE**, the office or dignity of the duumviri. See the next article. The duumvirate lasted till A. U. C. 388, when it was changed into a decemvirate. See **DECEMVIRI**.

**DUUMVIRI**, in Roman antiquity, a general appellation given to magistrates, commissioners, and officers, where two were joined together in the same functions: such as, 1. Duumviri capitales, the judges in criminal causes. From their sentence it was lawful to appeal to the people, who alone had the power of condemning a citizen to death. These were taken from the body of the decuriones; they had great power and authority, were members of the public council, and had two lictors to walk before them. 2. Duumviri municipales, two magistrates in some cities of the empire, answering to what the consuls were at Rome. They were chosen out of the body of the decuriones; their office lasted commonly five years, upon which account they were frequently termed quinquennales magistratus. Their jurisdiction was of great extent; they had officers who walked before them, carrying a small switch in their hands; and some of them assumed the privilege of having lictors, carrying axes and the fasces, or bundles of rods, before them. 3. Duumviri navales, two commissaries of the fleet, first created at the request of M. Decius, tribune of the people, in the time of the war

with the Samnites. Their duty consisted in giving order for the fitting out of ships, granting commissions to marine officers, &c. 4. Duumviri sacrorum, two magistrates created by Tarquin II. for performing the sacrifices, and keeping the Sibyls' books. They were chosen from among the patricians, and held their office for life; they were exempted from serving in wars, and from the offices imposed on the citizens; and without them the oracles of the Sibyls could not be consulted.

**DUXBOROUGH**, a town of Massachusetts in Plymouth county, with a harbour for small vessels, and a light-house at the south extremity of the beach. It is situated south by east of Plymouth, three miles across Plymouth Bay.

**DUYVELAND**, **DUYVELAND**, or **DIVELAND**, an island of the late Batavian republic, in the department of the Meuse, and ci-devant province of Zealand, lying south-east of Schonen, from which it is separated by a narrow channel. It is nine miles long from west to east, and as broad.

**DWARACA** (the gate), a town and criminal temple in the province of Gujrat, Hindostan, situated at the south-west extremity of the Peninsula. It has twenty-one dependent villages belonging to Dwaraca, containing 2560 houses and a population of about 10,240 souls subject to it. This place is, at present, possessed by Mooloo Manick, who is more powerful than any other of the Oacka chieftains. The sanctities of the place attracts a rich and numerous population, and presents a safe asylum from danger. By an agreement of the 14th of December, 1800, Mooloo Manick Sumyane, of Dwaraca, engaged with the British government not to permit, abet, or connive at any act of piracy committed by any person under his authority; and also to abstain from plundering vessels in distress. On their part, the British engaged to afford the temple at Dwaraca every suitable protection and encouragement; a free and open commerce to be permitted to vessels paying the regular duties.

'The original and most sacred spot in the quarter of India,' says Mr. Hamilton, 'is Dwaraca; but, about 600 years ago, the valued image of their god Runchor (an incarnation of Krishna), by a manœuvre of the brahmins, was removed to Daccor, in Gujrat, where it still remains. After much trouble, the brahmins at Daccor substituted another in its stead, which, unfortunately, also took a flight across a narrow arm of the sea, to the island of Bate, or Shunkabont, about 130 years ago, and another new one was placed in the temple here.

'Dwaraca is also designated by the name of the island; and, having been long the residence of Krishna, the favorite Hindoo deity, is a celebrated place of pilgrimage for the sectaries of that religion. In performing this pilgrimage, the following ceremonies take place:—On the arrival of the pilgrim at Dwaraca he bathes in a sacred stream named the Goomty, from its washings; for permission to do which he pays the Dwaraca chief four rupees and a quarter; the brahmins pay only three and a half. After the purification a visit is made to the temple, where



is presented, according to the circumstance of the devotee, and a certain number of are fed.

The pilgrim next proceeds to Aramra, where the stamp from the hands of a brahmin is made with an iron instrument, on an engraved shell, the ring, and the mark, which are the insignia of the gods. The stamp is made hot, and impressed on the body, but generally on the arms; it being over-heated, generally leaves a mark on the spot. It is frequently impressed on young infants; and a pilgrim may have only his own stamp, but also stamps for any absent friend. This stamp is made in half an hour.

The pilgrim next embarks for the island of Dwarka, on his arrival, he must pay a tax of five hundred to the chief, present liberal offerings, and dress him in rich clothes and ornaments. The chief of Bate, who is a holy person, in charge of the present, and retails it to the pilgrims at a reasonable rate, who again to the deity, and it performs a duty. The average number of pilgrims visiting annually to Dwarka has been to exceed 15,000, and the revenues of the temples a lack of rupees.

Regarding this existing place of pilgrimage most authentic Hindoo annals assert, that it was swallowed up by the sea after the decease of Krishna. This is the place where Vishnu spent much of his time at both before and after his expulsion, by the king of Mathura, on the banks of the river Yamuna in the province of Delhi, which would have greater intercourse between these districts, than could have been expected at so early a period. The chalk with which the mark on their foreheads comes from this place it is said to have been deposited there; and from hence, by merchants, is carried over India. (M. Murdo, &c.)

*Dwarf*, n. s. & v. a. } Sax. *dwerg*; Dut. *dwerg*, adj. } Dan. and Scotch, *dis*-  
*dwerg*, n. s. } *dwerg*, or *dwerg*; Ger. *dwerg*, crooked. A small and generally person; often, in ancient times and in fable, a supernatural being, of no small size, or elf or fairy. The verb means to make dwarfish.

The champion stout,  
Dismounted from his courser brave,  
Dwarf awhile his needless spear he gave.  
Spenser.

Her farro away a *dwerg* did lag,  
Seemed, in ever being last. Id. Sonnets.  
At you gone, you *dwerg*!  
As, of hind'ring knot-grass made.

Shakespeare.  
Heard sauciness, and boyish troops,  
Which smile at; and is well prepared  
For a *dwerg* war, these pigmy arms,  
The circle of his territories. Id. King John.

It is noted that a good strong canvas, spread  
Grafted low, soon after it putteth forth,  
It, and make it spread.

Bacon's Natural History.  
Under that science hath not outgrown the

*dwarfishness* of its pristine stature, and that the intellectual world is such a microcosm.

Glennville's *Scepais*.

They, but now who seemed  
In bigness to surpass earth's giant sons,  
Now less than smallest *dwarfs*, in narrow room  
Throng numberless. Milton's *Paradise Lost*.

In a delicate plantation of trees, all well grown,  
Fair, and smooth, one *dwarf* was knotty and crooked,  
And the rest had it in derision. L'Estrange.

We should have lost oaks and cedars, and the other  
tall and lofty sons of the forest, and have found no-  
thing but *dwarfish* shrubs, and creeping moss, and des-  
picable mushrooms. Bentley.

The whole sex is in a manner *dwarfed*, and shrunk  
into a race of beauties, that seem almost another spe-  
cies. Addison.

Saw off the stock in a smooth place; and, for *dwarf*  
trees, graft them within four fingers of the ground.

Mortimer.

Other dramatists can only gain attention by hy-  
perbolic or aggravated characters, by fabulous and  
unexampled excellence or depravity, as writers of  
barbarous romances invigorated the reader by a giant  
and a *dwarf*. Johnson.

From giant oaks, that wave their branches dark,  
To the *dwarf* moss that clings upon their bark,  
What beaux and beauties crowd the gaudy groves,  
And woo and win their vegetable loves. Darwin.

This massy portal stood at the wide close  
Of a huge hall, and on its either side  
Two little *dwarfs*, the least you could suppose,

Were sate, like ugly imps, as if allied  
In mockery to the enormous gate, which rose  
O'er them in almost pyramidal pride. Byron.

**DWARFS.** The Romans were passionately fond of dwarfs, whom they called *nani*, or *nanæ*, inso-  
much that they often used artificial methods to  
prevent the growth of boys designed for dwarfs,  
by enclosing them in boxes, or by the use of tight  
bandages. Augustus's niece, Julia, was extremely  
fond of a dwarf called Sonopas, who was only  
two feet and an hand-breadth high. We have  
many other accounts of human dwarfs, but most  
of them deformed in some way or other, besides  
the smallness of their size. Many relations, also,  
concerning dwarfs we must consider as fabulous,  
as well as those concerning giants. 1. Jeffery  
Hudson, the famous English dwarf, was born at  
Oakham in Rutlandshire, in 1619; and about  
the age of seven or eight, being then only eigh-  
teen inches high, was retained in the service of  
the duke of Buckingham who resided at Burleigh  
on the hill. Soon after the marriage of Charles  
I., the king and queen being entertained at Bur-  
leigh, little Jeffery was served up to table in a  
cold pye, and presented by the duchess to the queen  
who kept him as her dwarf. From seven years  
till thirty he never grew taller; but after thirty  
he shot up to three feet nine inches, and there  
fixed. Jeffery became a considerable part of the  
entertainment of the court. Sir William Daven-  
ant wrote a poem called *Jeffreidos*, on a battle  
between him and a turkey cock; and in 1638  
was published a very small book called *The New  
Year's Gift*, presented at court by the lady Par-  
vula to the lord Minimus (commonly called Lit-  
tle Jeffery), her majesty's servant, written by  
Microphilus, with a little print of Jeffery prefixed.  
Before this period, Jeffery was sent to France  
to fetch a midwife for the queen; and, on his



return with this gentlewoman and her majesty's dancing master, he was taken by the Dunkirkers. Jeffery had borne, with little temper, the teasing of the courtiers and domestics, and, at last, being provoked by Mr. Crofts, a young gentleman of family, a challenge ensued: and Mr. Crofts, coming to the rendezvous armed only with a squirt, the little creature was so enraged, that a real duel ensued; and the appointment being on horseback with pistols, to put them more on a level, Jeffery, at the first fire, shot his antagonist dead. This happened in France, whither he had attended his mistress during the troubles. He was again taken prisoner by a Turkish rover, and sold into Barbary. He probably did not remain long in slavery, for, at the beginning of the civil war, he was made a captain in the royal army and in 1644, attended the queen to France, where he remained till the Restoration. At last, upon suspicion of his being privy to the popish plot, he was taken up in 1682, and confined in the Gatehouse of Westminster, where he ended his life in the sixty-third year of his age. 2. In the Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences, a relation is given by count de Tressau, of a dwarf called Bebe, kept by Stanislaus III. king of Poland, who died in 1764, aged twenty-three, when he measured only thirty-three inches. At his birth he measured only between eight and nine inches.

DWELL, *v. n. & v. a.* Saxon, dwelian, DWEL'LEK, *n. s.* dwolian; Goth. *dwol* (delay); *duala*, old Teut., is to stay or delay. To remain; continue: hence to be in fixed attention on a person or thing; to continue speaking: as an active verb, to inhabit.

And he gede out and myghte not speke to hem . and thei knewen that he hadde seyn a visioun in the temple, and he bekenide to hem: and he *dwellede* stille doumbe. *Wiclif.*

If thy brother that *dwelleth* by thee be waxen poor, and be sold unto thee, thou shalt not compel him to serve as a bond servant. *Lev. xxv. 39.*

Hazor shall be a *dwelling* for dragons, and a desolation for ever. *Jer. xlix. 33.*

You lovers axe I now this question,  
Who hath the worse, Arcite or Palamon?  
That on may see his lady day by day,  
But in prison moste he *dwelleth* alway:  
That other wher him lust may ride or go,  
But sen his lady shall he never mo.

*Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

He in great passion all this while did *dwell*;  
More busying his quick eyes her face to view,  
Than his dull ears to hear what she did tell.

*Spenser.*

People do often change their *dwelling-places*, and some must die, whilst other some do grow up into strength. *Id.*

The seed of God, which *dwelleth* in them that are born of God, neither will nor can, nor never will nor can, trespass or sin against God; by reason whereof, they that are born of God have great cause to rejoice, seeing in themselves, through God's goodness, not only a friend, but friendliness itself towards and with God.

*MS. Note of Bradford the Martyr, in Coverdale's Bible.*

'Tis safer to be that which we *desire*,  
Than by destruction *dwell* in doubtful joy.

*Shakespeare.*

The houses being kept up did of necessity *raise* a *dweller*; and the proportion of land for *tenants* being kept up, did of necessity enforce that *dweller* not to be beggar or cottager, but a man of some substance. *Bacon's Henry III.*

Why are you vexed, lady? Why do you frown?  
Here *dwell* no frowns, no anger; from these eyes  
Sorrow flies far. *Milton.*

All *dwellings* else

Flood overwhelmed, and them with all their pomp  
Deep under water roll'd; sea covered sea,  
Sea without shore! *Id. Paradise Lost.*

I saw and heard; for we sometimes  
Who *dwell* this wild, constrained by want come here  
To town or village nigh. *Id. Paradise Regain'd.*

Their cries soon waken all the *dwelling* men;  
Now murmuring noises rise in every street. *Dryden.*

He preached the joys of heaven, and pains of hell,  
And warned the sinner with becoming zeal;  
But on eternal mercy loved to *dwell*.

*Id. Good Fears.*

The force of fire ascended first on high,  
And took its *dwelling* in the vaulted sky. *Id. Oil.*

We have *dwelt* pretty long on the consideration of  
space and duration. *Locke.*

Such was that face, on which I *dwell* with joy,  
Ere Greece assembled stem'd the tide to Troy. *Pope.*

A person ought always to be cited at the place of his *dwelling-house*, which he has in respect of his habitation and usual residence; and not at the house which he has in respect of his estate, or the place of his birth. *Ayliffe's Parerg.*

And the soft quiet hamlet where he *dwell*  
Is one of that complexion which seems made  
For those who their mortality have felt,  
And sought a refuge from their hopes decayed  
In the deep umbrage of a green hill's shade. *Spenser.*

The Scipios' tomb contains no ashes now;  
The very sepulchres lie tenantless  
Of their heroic *dwelling*: dost thou flow,  
Old Tiber! through a marble wilderness?  
Rise, with thy yellow waves, and mantle her bones! *Id.*

DWIGHT (Timothy), LL.D., a learned American divine, was born at Northampton in the state of Massachusetts, 4th May, 1772. His father being an opulent merchant, he was educated at the age of thirteen, at Yale College, of which he subsequently became the distinguished tutor and president. He twice represented his native town in the state legislature, and, in 1798, became minister at Greenfield in Connecticut. He obtained great reputation as a biblical critic and preacher. Besides his theological works, consisting of 5 vols. 8vo., he composed, in early life, two poems, entitled *The Conquest of Canada* and *Greenfield Hill*; deemed, at that time, his best productions of the American muse. Dr. Dwight died January 11th, 1817, at the age of sixty-five.

DWINA, a large river of European Russia, rising in a lake of the same name, on the border of the governments of Pskov and Tver. It passes by Veliz, Witepsk, Polotsk, Drissa, and Domburg, and falls into the gulf of Riga at Dismunde, a few miles below Riga. It also communicates with the lake of Ladoga, and with the



, by a canal which joins it to the and is navigable throughout.

another large river of Russia, is formed of the Juchona and Jug, near the jug, in the government of Vologda. Two arms, into the White Sea, a little west of Archangel, and is a broad stream, but its mouths are choked with

LE, v. n. } Sax. *dwinan*; Dut. *dwynen*; Isl. *dwynna*.  
ed, adj. }  
to shrink; wear away; degenerate: verb, to make less; to break down, &c.; disperse.

sey'nights nine times nine,  
dwindle, peak, and pine.

Shakespeare. *Macbeth*.  
envil, there were only five hundred foot  
adred horse left; the rest were dwindled  
Clarendon.

led legs seem crawling to the grave.

Dryden.  
at some small part of the foot being in-  
ench or a blow, the whole leg or thigh  
its strength and nourishment, and  
Locke.

ave been such a gradual diminution of  
e faculty of the earth, that it hath dwindle  
animals to puny mice and insects,  
e not the like decay in the production of  
Bentley.

Proper names, when familiarized in English, dwindle to monosyllables; whereas in other languages they receive a softer turn, by the addition of a new syllable. Addison.

Physicians, with their milky cheer,  
The love-sick maid and dwindling beau repair.

Gay.

Religious societies, though begun with excellent intentions, are said to have dwindled into factious clubs. Swift.

He found the expected council was dwindling into a conventicle, a packed assembly of Italian bishops, not a free convention of fathers. Atterbury.

Our drooping days are dwindled down to nought,  
Their period finished ere 't is well begun. Thomson.

Lost in thoughtless ease and empty show,

Behold the warrior dwindled to a beau;

Since freedom, piety, refined away,

Of France the mimic, and of Spain the prey.

Johnson. London.

In its preventive police it ought to be sparing of its efforts, and to employ means, rather few, unfrequent, and strong, than many, and frequent, and, of course, as they multiply their puny politic race, and dwindle, small and feeble. Burke.

Will they thank the noble lord for reminding us how soon these lofty professions dwindled into little jobbing pursuits for followers and dependants, as unfit to fill the offices procured for them, as the offices themselves were unfit to be created. Sheridan.

## DYEING.

a. & n. s. } Sax. *deagan*, to color.  
s. } Often written *die*. To  
tinge; color; stain.

was stern, and seemed still to threaten,  
which he in hart did hyde,  
shield Sansloy in blood lines was dyle.

Spenser. *Faerie Queene*.

It will help me nothing  
mine innocence; for that *die* is on me,  
kes my whit'st part black.

Shakespeare. *Henry VIII*.

dainty works of feathers of wonderful  
ent dies, and many.

Bacon's *New Atlantis*.

So much of death her thoughts  
ained, as *died* her cheeks with pale.

Milton.

stinate man) will rather suffer self-mar-  
part with the least scuple of his free-  
is impossible to dye his dark ignorance  
color.

Butler.

or dyes an author, like an old stuff into a  
but can never give it the lustre of the  
; as silks that are twice dyed lose their  
sever receive a fair color.

Id.

, that has been by the *dier* stained,  
its native whiteness gained.

Waller.

a virgin saint she sought the skies;  
though it sullies not, it *dies*.

Dryden.

ness we see emerges into light,  
ning suns descend to sable night:

aven itself receives another *die*,  
earied animals in slumbers lie

ight ease; another, when the grey  
preludes the splendour of the day.

Id.

There were some of very low rank and professions who acquired great estates: cobblers, *diers*, and shoemakers gave public shows to the people.

Arbuthnot on Coins.

It is surprizing to see the images of the mind stamped upon the aspect; to see the cheeks take the *die* of the passions, and appear in all the colours of thought.

Collier of the Aspect.

Flowers fresh in hue, and many in their class,

Implore the pausing step, and with their *dyes*

Dance in the soft breeze in a fairy mass. Byron.

## PART I.

## THE THEORY OF DYEING.

1. Dyeing is a chemical art which has for its object the extracting of the coloring particles from such substances as afford them, and transferring them to certain stuffs of wool, silk, cotton, or linen. No art has profited so much from the improvements of modern chemistry as the art of dyeing has; and it cannot be, nor ought it to be forgotten, that while we owe much to the discoveries of our own countrymen, and the application of those discoveries to the useful arts, the art of dyeing is highly indebted to the national operations of the French chemists.

2. The origin of this art seems to be of high antiquity; a circumstance which renders it impossible to say to whom or to what it is to be attributed: conjecture, therefore, is all we can pretend to. As most of the materials from which coloring matter is derived are, of themselves, either of dark and disagreeable colors, or else destitute of any particular color, it is probable that, even in the very earliest ages, the love of



ornament, which is natural to mankind, and which is founded on the love of distinction, one of the most active principles of the human mind, would induce them to stain their vestments with various coloring ingredients, especially with vegetable juices. But the means of imparting permanent dyes to cloth, and affixing to its fibres such coloring materials, as could not easily be washed out by water, or be obliterated or greatly changed by the action of air, or of certain saline substances, to which they are liable to be exposed, and which are necessary to render them clean when soiled, was an art which required the knowledge of principles not within the reach of untutored men, and only to be obtained by gradual investigation, and by the lapse of a considerable portion of time.

3. According to Pliny, the Egyptians had discovered a mode of dyeing, somewhat resembling that which we use for coloring printed linens: the stuffs, probably after having been impregnated with different mordants, were immersed in vats, where they received various colors. And M. Delaval is of opinion, that they were possessed not only of the art of dyeing, but even of that of printing on cloths.

4. The Phœnicians seem to have a strong claim to the invention of this art, and they held a decided pre-eminence in the practise of it for many ages: their purple and scarlet cloths were sought after by every civilised nation; and the city of Tyre, enriched by its commerce, increased to an amazing extent. But her career was stopped by the vanity and folly of the eastern emperors; under whose dominion this opulent city had unfortunately fallen. Desirous of monopolising the wearing of the beautiful cloths of Tyre, these tyrants issued most severe edicts, prohibiting any one from appearing in the Tyrian blue, purple, or scarlet, except themselves, and their great officers of state. To this injudicious restriction is to be attributed the destruction of the Tyrian dyes. For under the impolitic restraint imposed on the consumption of the Phœnician cloths, the manufacturers and dyers were no longer able to carry on their trade; it grew languid and expired: and, with the trade, the art itself also perished. It is generally supposed from the name, that the Tyrian purple, so much celebrated among the ancients, was discovered at Tyre, and that it contributed not a little to the opulence of that celebrated city. The liquor which was employed in dyeing the purple was extracted from two kinds of shell-fish, one of which, the larger, was called the purple, and the other was a species of whelk. Each of these species was subdivided into different varieties, which were otherwise distinguished, according to the places where they were found, and as they yielded more or less of a beautiful color. It is in a vessel in the throat of the fish that the coloring liquor is found. Each fish only afforded a single drop. When a certain quantity of the liquor had been obtained, it was mixed with a proportion of common salt, macerated together for three days, and five times the quantity of water added. The mixture being kept in a moderate heat, the animal parts which happened to be mixed with it separated, and rose to the surface. At the end of ten days, when these opera-

tions were finished, a piece of white was immersed, by which means they ascertained whether the liquor had acquired the proper color. Various processes were followed to prepare the stuff to receive the dye. By some it was immersed in lime-water, and by others compared with a kind of fucus, which was used as a mordant to give it a more fixed color. The liquor from the other shell-fish was used by some for the same purpose, but the liquor of the whelk did not alone yield color. The liquor from the other shell-fish was used to increase its brightness; and thus the operations were in use to communicate this first dye was given by the liquor of the whelk, and a second by that of the shell-fish; for it was called by Pliny *purpura dibapha*, because it was dipped twice. The small quantity, which could be obtained from each shell, rendered the tedious process of its preparation a great expence to the stuffs, raised the price of them high, that in the time of Augustus a pound of the Tyrian purple dye, could be purchased for one thousand denarii, equal to £36 sterling.

5. Among the Greeks the knowledge of dyeing must have been very imperfect, and little advanced by science; for the art of dyeing linens does not to have been known in Greece before Alexander's invasion of India, where, according to Pliny, they dyed the sails of his vessels of different colors. The Greeks seem to have derived this art from the Indians.

6. India seems to have been the birth-place of the arts and sciences, which were afterwards introduced into Europe, and perfected among other nations. A country which had a tendency to improve the arts, did not fail to be multiplied rapidly, in a country—rich in natural productions; requiring little labor for the support of its inhabitants; and a climate of which was favored by the nature, and simplicity of manners, till it was destroyed by the tyranny of succeeding emperors. But religious prejudices, and the division of the people into castes, soon shackled industry, and became stationary; and it would seem, that the knowledge of dyeing cotton in that country was then unknown, or at least very imperfect, as it was as far advanced in the time of Alexander, as it is at the present period.

7. The beautiful colors, which are obtained in some Indian linens, would lead one to suppose that the art of dyeing had there attained a high degree of perfection; but we find by the relation which Beaulieu, at the request of the French government, gave of some operations performed under his eye, that the Indian processes are so much tedious, and imperfect, that they would be impracticable in any other country, on account of the great difference in the price which is paid for labor.

8. It is unquestionably true, that European dyeing has far surpassed them in common design, variety of shade, and facility of execution; and, if we are inferior to them with respect to the liveliness of some colors, it is not attributed to the superior quality of some of their dyes, or perhaps to the length and number of their operations and processes. In this country, however, the art of dyeing has made considerable progress till about the beginning



teenth century. Before that period our dyes were sent to Holland, to be dressed and dyed. This, however, was probably practised only in the case of particular colors. The dyeing of woollen and silken goods has indeed long since attained a considerable degree of excellence; but the manufactures of cotton, owing to the small attraction of that substance for coloring matters, have been very deficient in this point. Within these few years, the colors employed in the dyeing of fustians and cotton velvets were improved, and, even at this day, many of them are still defective. But it must be allowed that great improvements have been made within these few years, from the application of chemical principles, and by a diligent investigation of the nature of coloring substances. There is however still much room for the improvement of the art, but this can only be effected by the practical dyer acquiring chemical knowledge, an acquisition now happily made within the reach of every dyer who is capable of reading and understanding the English language. It will not be necessary for our present purpose to enter into a minute examination of the various theories that have been adopted of the nature of colors; at the same time it may be proper, before we deduce a general theory of dyeing, to make a few observations on the common properties of coloring substances.

In explaining the cause of color, and the nature of coloring particles, two great inconveniences have arisen. First, from an attempt to illustrate the action, which the particles of coloring substances have on the rays of light, in consequence of their density and thickness, without making any means of ascertaining this, and without any regard to the attractions which result from their chemical composition; in comparing coloring particles to mucilages and resins, and some very faint resemblances; and in attempting to explain their coloring properties by mixtures, formed respecting their component parts, while these properties ought rather to be explained by direct experiment than by an imaginary composition. It was also deduced from true theory, to ascribe to laws of a purely mechanical, the adhesion of the coloring particles to the substances dyed, the action of the dyes, the difference between the true or durable, and the false or fugitive dyes.

Hellot, who has written an excellent treatise on dyeing, seems to have erred on this point; and Macquer, who was amongst the first to entertain just notions respecting chemical attractions, seems to have been led astray by the same ideas. It appears, however, that Dufay had observed, that the coloring particles were equally disposed to adhere more or less firmly to the filaments which receive them; and had justly remarked, that without this disposition, they would never assume any color but that of the bath, and would always divide the coloring particles equally with it; whereas the liquor of the bath sometimes becomes as limpid as water, and gives off all the coloring particles to the stuff; and, he observes, seems to indicate that the filaments have less attraction for the water than the particles of the wool.

1. Bergman seems to have been the first who

referred the phenomena of dyeing entirely to chemical principles. Having dyed some wool and some silk in a solution of indigo, in very dilute sulphuric acid, he explains the effects he observed in the operation, by attributing them to the precipitation, occasioned by the blue particles having a greater affinity for the particles of the wool and silk, than for those of the acidulated water. He remarks that this affinity of the wool is so strong, as to deprive the liquor entirely of the coloring particles; but that the weaker affinity of the silk can only diminish the proportion of these particles in the bath, and he shows that on these different affinities depend both the permanence and intensity of the color.

12. This is the true light in which the phenomena of dyeing should be viewed; they are real chemical phenomena, which ought to be analysed in the same way as all those dependent on the actions which bodies exert, in consequence of their peculiar nature. It is evident, that the coloring particles of bodies possess chemical properties, that distinguish them from all other substances; and that they have attractions peculiar to themselves, by means of which they unite with acids, alkalis, metallic oxides, or calces, and some earths, principally alumine or pure clay. They frequently precipitate oxides and alumine, from the acids which held them in solution; at other times they unite with the salts, and form supercompounds which combine with the wool, silk, cotton, or linen. And with these their union is rendered much more close by means of alumine or metallic oxide, than it would be without their intermedium.

13. The difference in the affinity of the coloring particles for wool, silk, and cotton, is sometimes so great, that they will not unite with one of these substances, while they combine very readily with another; thus, cotton receives no color in a bath which dyes wool scarlet. Dufay prepared a piece of stuff, the warp of which was wool and the woof cotton, which went through the process of fulling, that he might be certain, that the wool and the cotton received exactly the same preparation; but the wool took the scarlet dye, and the cotton remained white. It is this difference of affinity which renders it necessary to vary the preparation and the process, according to the nature of the substance which is intended to be dyed of a particular color. And these considerations ought to determine the means to be pursued for the improvement of the art of dyeing. It is highly proper to endeavour to ascertain what are the constituent principles of the coloring particles. And in this enquiry, the most essential circumstances are, to determine the affinities of a coloring substance; first, with the substances which may be employed as menstrua; secondly, with those which may, by their combinations, modify the color, increase its brilliancy, and help to strengthen its union with the stuff to be dyed; thirdly, with the different agents which may change the color, and principally with the external agents—air and light.

14. The qualities of the uncombined coloring particles are modified when they unite with a substance; and, if this compound unites with a stuff, it undergoes new modifications. Thus the



properties of the coloring particles of cochineal are modified, by being combined with the oxide of tin, and those of the substances resulting from this combination are again modified by their union with the wool or silk; so that the knowledge we may acquire by the examination of coloring substances in their separate states, can only inform us respecting the preparations that may be made of them; that which we acquire respecting their combinations with substances which serve to fix them, or to increase their beauty, may inform us what processes in dyeing ought to be preferred or tried; but it is only by direct experiment made with the different substances employed in dyeing, that we can confirm our conjectures, and properly establish the process.

15. These facts show, that the changes produced by acids and alkalis on many vegetable colors, such as the chemists employ, in order to discover the nature of different substances, are owing to the combinations, which take place between these coloring particles and the acids and alkalis. The compounds resulting from these may be compared to neutral salts, which possess qualities different from those of their component parts, but in which one of these parts may be in excess, and its qualities consequently predominant. This state of combination is observable between the coloring particles of cochineal and acidulous tartrate of potassa, or cream of tartar: by evaporating slowly a solution of this salt in a decoction of cochineal, crystals are formed, which retain a fine ruby color, much more bright and intense than that of the liquor which formed them.

16. It was the opinion of Berthollet that some of the acids, particularly the nitric, after combining with the coloring particles, changed the color which they at first produced, making it yellow, and finally destroying it; after which they act by means of one of their principles, viz. the oxygen. But this theory, Dr. Ure remarks, is not now tenable, since it is known that dry chlorine does not blanch dry litmus paper. When moisture intervenes, muriatic acid is formed, and oxygen evolved; to the action of which body on the color the bleaching effect is to be ascribed. Water is the source of the discoloration, both in the ancient and modern process of bleaching. Blue colors are not the only ones which become red by the addition of acids, and green by that of alkalis; most red colors, as that of the rose, for instance, are heightened by acids, and made green by alkalis; and some green colors, such as that of the green decoction of burdock, according to the experiments of Mr. Nose, and the green juice of Buckthorn, as is evident from the trials of Mr. Becker, are reddened by acids.

17. This property, which is common to most of the ordinary colors of vegetables, seems to prove that there is a close analogy between their coloring particles; and it is not without foundation, that Linnaeus supposed, that the red in vegetables was owing to an acid, and indicated its presence; but there are also many vegetables which contain acid in a disengaged state, without their possessing a red color. It is therefore evident, that the coloring particles have affinities for acids,

alkalis, earths, and metallic oxides, which constitute a part of their chemical properties; and in consequence of which, their colors are more or less varied; therefore these particles form, with the stuff on which they are fixed, a compound which retains only some of their original properties; they are also modified by their union with alumine, or pure clay, metallic oxides, and some other substances; as are also those new compounds, when they are further combined with the stuff.

#### OF MORDANTS.

18. The term mordant is derived from a French word *mordre*, which signifies to bite or corrode. In the art of dyeing, it is applied to designate all those substances employed for the purpose of facilitating or modifying the combination of the coloring particles with the stuff dyed. Dr. Bancroft, and Dr. Henry of Manchester, proposed to denominate these substances by the term *basis*, since the action of many of them does not depend on the action of a corroding principle; but this alteration has not been adopted. Mordants deserve the greatest attention; as by their means colors are rendered brighter, made to strike, and rendered more durable. We shall, therefore, examine the nature of the action of the principal bases or mordants, and endeavour to determine how their attractions serve to unite the coloring particles with the stuff, and how they affect the quality of the colors.

19. A mordant is not always a simple substance, for new combinations are sometimes formed by the ingredients that compose it; so that the substances employed are not the immediate agents in the compounds which they have formed. Sometimes the mordant is fixed with the coloring particles, and sometimes the stuff is impregnated with it; on other occasions, both these modes are united; and we may dye successively with liquors containing different substances, in such a manner that only one of the particles will unite with the stuff is impregnated. The art of priming affords many processes, in which it is easy to observe the effects of mordants; to elucidate the subject, therefore, we shall mention a few examples.

20. The basis employed for linens intended to receive different shades of red, is prepared by dissolving in eight pounds of hot water, three pounds of alum, and one pound of acetate of lead, or sugar of lead, to which two ounces of potassa, and afterwards two ounces of powdered chalk are added. The alum is decomposed by the acetate of lead, because the oxide or salt of lead combines with the sulphuric or vitriolic acid, and forms an insoluble salt which is precipitated; the base of the alum, alumina, at the same time combines with the acetic acid, or vinegar, and produces an acetate of alumine, and the chalk and potassa answer the purpose of saturating the excess of acid. One of the advantages which result from the formation of the acetate of alumine is, that the alumine is retained in it by a much weaker affinity than in the alum, so that it more easily quits its menstruum, to combine with the stuff and coloring particles. Another



antage is, that the acid liquor, from which alumine is separated, has much less action on the mordant when it consists of the acetous, than when it consists of a stronger acid, such as the sulphuric. In short, the acetite of alumine not only loses the property of crystallising, the mordant is thickened with starch or gum, to prevent its being applied to the block on which the design is engraved, does not curdle, as it would if it contained alum capable of crystallising.

By attending to the operation performed on a piece of linen cloth, we find, that when it has been impregnated by the mordant, in the manner determined by the design, it is put into a bath of madder; the whole of the cloth becomes colored, but the tinge is deeper in those places which have received the mordant; there the coloring particles have combined with the alumine and the cotton, so that a triple compound has been formed, and the acetous acid separated from its basis remains in the bath.

Thus the coloring particles, combined with alumine and the stuff, are much more difficultly affected by external agents, than when they are in a separate state, or combined only with the mordant, without any intermediate bond of union; upon this property the operations, to which the stuff is afterwards subjected, are founded. After it has been maddered, it is boiled with bran, and laid upon the grass; and these operations are repeatedly repeated until the ground becomes black.

The coloring particles, which have not combined with the alumine, are altered in their composition, dissolved, and separated, while those which have combined with it remain, and are preserved, without alteration; and thus, the design remains colored. It seems that this decomposition of the coloring particles, by exposure on the grass and boiling with bran, is accomplished in the same manner as that of the coloring particles of flax, and admits of the same explanation. The only difference consists in substituting bran for alkalis, because they would dissolve a part of the coloring matter, which is fixed by alumine, and would change its color; instead of which, the bran, having a much weaker action on this substance, affects only the coloring particles, which, by the action of the air, have been dissolved more easily to solution. If, however, instead of the mordant, a solution of iron be employed, similar phenomena are exhibited. The coloring particles decompose the solution of iron, form a triple compound with the stuff; but, instead of red, we obtain from the madder, brown of different shades, down even to black;

by uniting these two mordants, alum and iron, we have mixed colors, inclining to red on the one hand, and to black on the other, such as purple, and puce color. Other colors are also obtained by substituting dyers-weed for madder; by means of these two coloring substances, alum, and the two mordants above mentioned, we obtain most of the different shades that are obtainable in stuffs which are printed.

The different substances which enter into the composition of a mordant remain in combination till a new action is induced by the application of another substance. Thus the affinity of the stuff for one of their constituent parts pro-

duces a decomposition and new combinations. But even this effect is sometimes incomplete, or does not at all take place without the action of another affinity, namely, that of the coloring particles. We have an example of this in the mixture of alum and tartar, which is one of the most common mordants in the dyeing of wool.

22. M. Berthollet, having dissolved equal weights of alum and tartar, found that the solubility of the tartar was increased by the mixture. By evaporation and a second crystallisation, the two salts were separated, so that no decomposition had taken place. Half an ounce of alum and one ounce of wool were then boiled together for an hour, and a precipitate was formed, which, being carefully washed, was found to consist of filaments of wool incrustated with earth. To this sulphuric acid was added, and the solution being evaporated to dryness, crystals of alum were produced, with the separation of some particles of carbonaceous matter. The liquid in which the wool had been boiled being evaporated, yielded only a few grains of alum; what remained would not crystallise. This being again dissolved, and precipitated by means of an alkali, the alumina which was thrown down was of a slate color, became black when placed on red-hot coals, and emitted alkaline vapors. From this experiment it appears that the alum was decomposed by the wool, and that part of the alumina had combined with its most detached filaments which were least retained by the force of aggregation; that part of its animal substance had been dissolved and precipitated by the alkali from the triple compound thus formed.

23. M. Berthollet made the same experiment with half an ounce of alum and two drams of tartar; no precipitation took place: he obtained by evaporation a small portion of tartar, and some very irregular crystals of alum; the remainder would not crystallise: this, on being diluted with water, and precipitated by potassa, gave by evaporation a salt which burned like tartar. The wool which had been boiled with the alum felt harsh, but the other retained its softness. The first had acquired from the madder a more dull, though lighter tint, but the color of the latter was more full and bright.

24. From these experiments it appears, in the first place, that the wool had begun a decomposition of the alum; that it had united with a part of the alumine; and that even the part of the alum which retained its alumine had dissolved some of the animal matter. In the second place, that the tartar and alum, which cannot decompose each other solely by their own affinities, become capable of acting on each other when their affinities are assisted by that of the wool. And, in the third place, that the tartar appears principally useful for moderating the too powerful action of the alum upon the wool, whereby it is injured; for tartar is not used in the alumining of silk and thread, which have less action on the alum than wool has. As the decomposition of alum by the tartar and wool takes place in consequence of affinities which nearly balance each other, and the process must therefore go on slowly, it is useful to keep the stuff impregnated with alum and tartar for some days in a moist



does not take place with respect to those colors which are esteemed durable, being unchangeable by alkalis or acids, which are not strong enough to destroy their composition.

25. The attraction of alumine for animal substances is not, however, merely indicated by uncertain appearances, nor supposed for the purpose of being employed in explanations, but is proved by direct experiment. M. Berthollet united them together, by mixing an animal substance with a solution of alum; a double exchange took place, the alkali entered into combination with the acid of the alum, and the alumine, combining with the animal substance, was precipitated. He also proved the affinity of alumine for animal substances by another experiment: having mixed a solution of glue with a solution of alum, he precipitated the alumine by an alkali, and the glue with which it had combined fell down along with it. This compound has the appearance of a semitransparent jelly, and dries with difficulty. Thus, in the preceding experiments, the alkali precipitated the alumine combined with the animal substance, from the uncrystallisable residue of the alum which had been boiled with the wool.

26. The affinity of alumine for most coloring substances, may also be shown by direct experiment. If a solution of a coloring substance be mixed with a solution of alum, a precipitation sometimes takes place; but if to the liquor we add an alkali, which decomposes the alum, and separates the alumine, the coloring particles are then precipitated, combined with the alumine, and the liquor remains clear: this compound has obtained the name of lake. In this experiment, too much alkali must not be added, because alkalis are capable of dissolving lakes in general. No direct experiment has however yet shown, that alumine attracts any vegetable substance except the coloring particles: its affinity for them seems much weaker than that which it has for animal substances; hence the acetite of alumine is a better basis for cotton and linen than alum is, and upon this depend the different means employed to increase the fixity of the coloring particles of woollen in the dyeing of these sub-

stances. Some measure of combination, only a white and some by the admixture of their colors, but that which is proper to the dyeing, but in many metallic oxides according to the proportion of the color, and the proportion of the change. Upon these circumstances in dyeing chiefly depends.

28. The affinity of metallic substances of vegetable origin, is not so great as that which they have for metallic solutions are, therefore to serve as mordants for coloring except iron, the oxide of iron with vegetable substances, as moulds, which are owing to the action of this oxide. Whenever iron has precipitated a menstruum, the supernatant disengaged acid, which is colorless, dissolving a portion of the coloring substance and oxide, remains colored; but sometimes coloring particles are precipitated in portions have been accurate precipitation is facilitated, a complete, by the presence of the coloring substance, assists, by the tendency it has to form a compound of oxide and coloring substance combined metallic oxides have a different action on many coloring substances, boiled with them, and modified by the oxide of tin in particular increase the fixity of many.

29. The compounds of metallic substances are similar to metallic compounds, which are insoluble in water, of which they are formed in proportion; but which are supersaturated by an excess of coloring particles, and thence of becoming metallic oxide, united with a coloring substance, to excess, produces a liquor, which will be modified by the oxide of iron.



oring particles, and that these precipitates gained a considerable degree of solubility; it would seem that a small part of the salt becomes united with the coloring particles and the stuff. Its with calcareous bases also modify colors; and, as these modifications are nearly similar to those which would be produced by the addition of a small quantity of lime, it is probable that they are decomposed, and that a little of the lime enters into combination with the coloring particles and the stuff. By attention to this, we shall easily discern what combinations are formed by the agency of the different reactives, employed in the analysis of coloring substances; but we must not forget, that the mordants and the coloring particles have a mutual action on each other, which may change their properties. It is evident that, by varying the mordants, we may easily multiply the shades obtained from a coloring substance; even to vary their mode of application may be sufficient: thus we shall obtain different effects by impregnating the stuff with the mordant, or by mixing the mordant in the bath; by applying heat, or using exsiccations, for we operate upon three elective actions; that of the coloring particles, that of the stuff, and that of the principle of the mordant; many circumstances may cause variations in the result of these attractions; circumstances which merit further explanation. Exsiccation, by drying, favors the union of the substances which have an affinity for the stuff, and the dispositions which may result from that union; it dries the water which held these substances in solution, by its attraction, opposed the action of the stuff; but the exsiccation should be slow, in order that the substances may not be separated from their mutual attractions have produced the effect.

30. Considerable differences must be observed in the manner of employing the mordant, as the force of affinity between the stuff and the coloring matter is greater or less. When the affinity is strong, the mordant and the coloring substance may be mixed together; the compound thus formed, immediately enters into combination with the stuff. But, when the affinity between the stuff and the coloring particles is weak, the compound formed of the latter and the mordant may separate, and a precipitation takes place, before it can be attached to the stuff; hence it is, that the mordant which is to serve as the medium of union between the stuff and the coloring matter, must be combined with the former, before the application of the latter. From these differences that different processes must be followed in fixing coloring matter on animal and vegetable productions.

31. In judging of the effects of mordants, and the most advantageous manner of applying them, it is necessary to attend to the combinations which may be formed, either by the action of the reagents of which they are composed, or by the action of the coloring matter and the stuff. It is necessary, also, to take into consideration the circumstances which may tend to bring about these combinations with more or less rapidity, or that they render them more or less perfect. The action of the liquor in which the stuff is immersed

may have, either on its color or texture, must also be considered; and to be able accurately to judge of the extent of this action, we must know the proportions of the principles of which the mordant is composed; which of these principles remains in an uncombined state in the liquor, and the proportion or quantity which is separated.

32. The coloring particles have been hitherto considered only as substances capable of forming different combinations, by which their properties are modified; but they may be altered in their composition, either by other external agents, or by the substances with which they unite. The stability of a color consists in its power of resisting the action of vegetable acids, alkalis, soap, and more especially that of the air and light; but this power varies exceedingly, according to the nature of the color and the species of the stuff; for the same durability is not required in the colors of silk as in those of wool. There is not much obscurity in the action of water, acids, alkalis, or soap: it is a solution brought about by these agents: and it appears that a small quantity of acid, or of alkali, sometimes unites with the compound which gives the color; because the color is not destroyed, but only changed, and may be restored by taking away this acid; for instance, by chalk and ammoniac, or volatile alkali. But this is not the case with respect to the action of air and light.

33. Scheele observed, that the oxygenated muriatic acid rendered vegetable colors yellow, and he attributed that effect to the property it had of taking up the phlogiston which entered into their composition. Berthollet has shown, that the properties of the oxygenated muriatic acid were owing to the combination of its oxygen with the substances exposed to its action; that it commonly rendered the coloring particles yellow; but that, by a continuance of its action, it destroyed their color; without determining in what this action consisted. Fourcroy afterwards made several observations on the action of oxygen on the coloring particles, which throw a great deal of light on the nature of the changes they undergo, chiefly when watery solutions of them are left exposed to the air, or have been subjected to a boiling heat. He observed that, in consequence of the action of the air, vegetable decoctions formed pellicles, which lost their solubility, and underwent successive changes of color; he marked the gradations of color thus produced, and concluded, from his observations, that oxygen entered into the composition of the coloring particles; that when it combined with them, their shade was changed; that the more they received, the more fixed did their color become; and that the best method of obtaining permanent unchangeable colors, for painting, was to choose such as had been exposed to the action of the oxygenated muriatic acid.

34. In considering the effects of air on colors, it is necessary to make a distinction between those produced by metallic oxides, and those produced by the coloring particles. Berthollet is of opinion that the modifications of the former are entirely owing to different proportions of oxygen, but from observation he has been led to



form a different opinion respecting the modifications of the latter. He observed, that the oxygenated muriatic acid exhibited different phenomena with the coloring particles; that sometimes it discharged their colors, and rendered them white; that most frequently it changed them to a yellow, fawn, or root-colored, brown, or black, according to the intensity of its action; and that, when their color appeared only discharged or rendered white, heat, or a length of time, was capable of rendering them yellow. He compared the effect produced by the oxygenated muriatic acid, when the particles are rendered yellow, fawn-colored, or brown, with the effect of a slight degree of combustion, and showed that they were the same; that they were owing to the destruction of the hydrogen, which, combining with the oxygen, more easily, and at a lower temperature than charcoal does, leaves it predominant, so that the natural color of charcoal is more or less blended with that which before existed. This effect becomes very evident, when sugar, indigo, or the infusion of the gall-nut, or of sumach, are exposed to the action of oxygenated muriatic gas; the sugar and the indigo assume a deep color, and afford indisputable marks of a slight combustion; the infusion of the gall-nut, and that of sumach, let fall a precipitate, which is not far from being pure charcoal or carbon. These appearances are analogous to those which are observed in the distillation of organised substances; in proportion as the hydrogen is extracted in the form of oil, or of gas, the substance grows yellow and at length there remains only a black coal. If the hydrogen be expelled from an oil, by heat, it grows brown, evidently in the same way.

35. Berthollet also found, by other experiments made on alcohol and ether, that the oxygen united to the marine acid, had the property of combining with the hydrogen, which abounds in these substances, and of thereby forming water. He therefore supposes, that when the oxygenated marine acid renders a color yellow, fawn-colored, or brown, the effect proceeds from the coloring matter having undergone a slight combustion, by which more or less of its hydrogen has been converted into water; and that the charcoal, thus rendered predominant, has communicated its own color. The art of bleaching linen by means of the oxygen of the atmosphere, of the dew, and of the oxygenated marine acid, he also supposes to depend on this change of the coloring matter. The coloring particles of the flax are rendered soluble in the alkaline lixivia, the action of which ought to be alternate with that of the oxygen. These coloring particles may be afterwards precipitated from the alkali, and by evaporation and drying become black, and prove the truth of this theory, both by the color they have acquired, and by the quantity of charcoal which they yield on being analysed. But the alkaline solution of the coloring matter of linen which is of a dark brown color, loses its color almost entirely, by the addition of a certain quantity of oxygenated muriatic acid; and the same effect is observable in many other substances, which have assumed a color originating from a commencement of combustion. A piece of linen, which appears white, may grow yellow in process of time, particularly

if exposed to a certain degree of heat, the oxygenated parts have not been removed sufficiently strong lixivium. In the same manner, the green parts of vegetables are rendered white by the oxygenated muriatic acid, become yellow when boiled.

36. From these facts it appears, that air is capable of whitening, or rendering pale coloring matters with which it unites, probably having produced the effects of a slight combustion upon them; or possibly these effects take place only afterwards in a gradual manner more rapidly, when the whole is exposed to a certain degree of heat. It is extremely probable that in all cases a part of the oxygen unites to the coloring matter, without being combined with the hydrogen in particular, and that in this way that oxygen acts, in rendering the coloring matter of flax more easily soluble in water. In many other cases oxygen has evidently influence on the changes which take place in coloring particles of vegetables; these particles are formed chiefly in the leaves, flowers, inner bark of trees; by degrees they undergo a slight combustion, either from the action of atmospheric air which surrounds them, or from that of the air which is carried by a purgation of vessels into the internal parts of vegetables.

37. Berthollet, therefore, supposes we can explain how the air acts upon coloring matters of an animal, or a vegetable nature; it first combines with them, renders them weaker and paler, and by degrees occasions a slight combustion by means of which the hydrogen which enters into their composition is destroyed; they change to a yellow, red, or fawn-color; their attraction for the stuff seems to diminish; they separate from it, and are carried off by water: all these effects vary, and take place more or less rapidly and more or less completely, according to the nature of the coloring particles; or rather, from the nature of the properties which they possess in the state of combination into which they are gone. The changes which occur in the color produced by the union of the coloring particles with metallic oxides, are effects composed of the change which takes place in the coloring particles, and of that which is undergone by the metallic oxide.

38. The light of the sun considerably accelerates the extinction of colors. It ought, therefore, if this theory be well founded, to be a combination of oxygen, and the color thereby induced. Sennebier, who has made many interesting observations on the effects of light on different substances, and particularly their colors, attributes these effects to the combination of light with the substances; the effects of light on the color of wood long ago been noticed; it preserves its appearance while kept in the dark, but exposed to the light, it becomes yellow or of other shades. The same writer has marked the varieties which occur in the color of wood in different kinds of wood, and has shown the changes are proportioned to the intensity of the light, and that they take place even in water, but that wetted wood undergoes changes less quickly than that which



several folds of riband were required to defend the wood completely, that a single leaf of paper was sufficient, but that, when paper of other color was substituted, the change was prevented; a single covering of white paper insufficient, but two intercepted the action of the rays of light.

39. He extended his experiments to a great number of vegetable substances, in a manner may serve to illustrate different phenomena of vegetation. If a well-made solution of the parts of vegetables in alcohol, which has the green color, be exposed to the light of the sun, it very soon acquires an olive hue, and loses color in a few minutes. If the light be weak, the effect is much more slow; and in perfect darkness, the color remains without alteration, if any change does take place, it requires a great length of time. An alkali restores the color; but if the change of color in the liquor has been completed, the alkali has no effect. No change of color takes place in azotic gas, nor in a bottle which is exactly full. A bottle half full of this green solution was inverted over mercury, by Berthollet, and exposed to the light of the sun; when the color was discharged, the mercury was found to have risen in the bottle, consequently vital air had been absorbed, oxygen having united with the coloring matter. The precipitate which M. Sennebler mentions was not evident; the liquor had continued transparent, and retained a slight yellow tinge. Evaporating this liquor, its color was immediately rendered darker, and became brown; the residuum was black, and in a carbonaceous state.

40. Light, therefore, acts by favoring the absorption of oxygen, and the combustion of the coloring matter. At first, the marks of combustion are not evident; the liquor retains only a slight yellow tinge; but, by the assistance of the combustion is completed, the liquor becomes brown, and leaves a black residuum. The vessel which holds the liquor contains no oxygen gas, the light has no effect on the coloring matter; azotic gas in this situation suffers no diminution. The observation, that ribands, or a single leaf of white paper, do not prevent the action of light, deserves attention, as it shows that light can pass through coverings which appear to be opaque, and exert its energy a considerable depth within. Beccaria and Sennebler have compared the effects of light on ribands of various colors; but the differences they have observed are rather to be attributed to the nature of the coloring matters, than to the colors; for a riband dyed with Brasil-wood will lose its color much sooner than one dyed with cochineal, though the shade should be exactly the same in each.

41. Although light greatly accelerates the combination of the coloring particles, and seems even necessary for their destruction in some cases, in others it is not required. It was found, by putting some plants into a dark place, in contact with vital air, that that air was absorbed by some of them; and, also, that the rose suffers a change, and becomes of a deeper hue, when it is not in contact with vital air, probably because it contains a little oxygen, the combination of which

then becomes more intimate. But many flowers, when in azotic gas, retain their color in perfection. The tincture of turnsole was placed in contact with vital air over mercury, both in the dark, and exposed to the light of the sun; the former continued unchanged for a considerable length of time, and the vital air had suffered no diminution; the other lost much of its color; became red; and the air was, in a great measure, absorbed, and a small quantity of carbonic acid was produced, which undoubtedly had occasioned the alteration of color from blue to red. From this we may form an idea of some of the changes of color, produced by a particular disposition of the component principles of vegetable substances, when, by their combination with oxygen, they undergo the effects of a slight combustion, which may generate an acid, as in the leaves in autumn, which grow red before they become yellow, and in the streaks which are seen in flowers, the vegetation of which is becoming weak.

42. On the whole it is evident, that coloring substances resist the action of the air more or less, according as they are more or less disposed to unite with oxygen, and thereby to suffer more or less quickly a smaller or greater degree of combustion. Light favors this effect, which in many cases is not produced without its assistance; but the coloring matter, in its separate state, is much more prone to this combustion, than when united to a substance, such as alumine, which may either defend it by its own power of resisting combustion, or, by attracting it strongly, weaken its action on other substances, which is the chief effect of mordants. This last compound acquires still greater durability, when it is capable of combining intimately with the stuff upon which it is deposited. Thus the coloring matter of cochineal is easily dissolved in water, and its color is quickly changed by the air; but when united to the oxide of tin, it becomes much brighter, and almost insoluble in water, though it is still easily affected by the air, and by oxygenated muriatic acid; it resists the action of these better, however, when it has formed a triple compound with a woollen stuff. But still it is not to be inferred, that all yellow colors are owing to the carbonaceous part of the coloring substance; very different compounds are capable of producing the same colors; thus, indigo is very different from the blue of our flowers, from that of oxide of copper, and from that of Prussian blue. Berthollet does not even suppose, that oxygen may not unite in a small proportion with some coloring substances, without weakening their color, or changing it to yellow. Indigo becomes green by uniting with an alkali, with lime or a metallic oxide; but resumes its color, and quits these substances, when it recovers a small portion of the oxygen which it had lost. The liquor of the wheel, employed to dye purple, is naturally yellowish; but when exposed to the air, and more especially to the sun, it quickly passes through various shades, and at length assumes the exquisite purple color of the ancients; and which, according to the testimony of Eudocia, derived its lustre and perfection from exposure to the sun's rays.

43. It may then be considered as a general



low color, which is more or less deep, according to the concentration of the acid, its temperature, and the time of immersion; that the must be carefully washed as soon as taken off the acid; that this color possesses considerable brightness; and that it may be made without sensibly weakening the silk, which renders the process really useful. The color also be modified by the use of alkalis. Solutions of calcareous earth and magnesia have no effect upon silk, because they do not form an excess of acid; but the solutions of lime and of all metallic substances, produce more or less deep yellow, because they all form more or less excess of acid, which acts on the silk like uncombined acid.

It appears likewise to have been the acid that dyed the animal substances yellow, in experiments of M. Brunwiser, and not the acid extracted from the wood, as he supposed. The yellow color in these cases owing to what De la Folie supposed; for the purest nitric acid, which contains no iron, produces it, as well as that in which the presence of that metal may be supposed to exist. Silk, when put in concentrated nitrous acid, quickly assumes a yellow color, loses its cohesion, and is weakened; during this solution, the azote, which enters into the composition of animal substances, is liberated, with a long continued effervescence; if heat be applied, it expels much nitrous gas, and the liquor immediately acquires a deep red and grows brown. At this time, the oxygen of nitric acid combines with the hydrogen which abounds in animal substances, forming water, which is obtained from them by distillation, and which renders them so inflammable. As the acid begins to act, and to render the yellow, the same effect should also begin to take place. M. Berthollet therefore supposes, that the yellow color arises from a commencement of combustion; but that this combustion very slight, does not sensibly weaken the silk; if, however, the acid be a little too strong, or immersion too long continued, or if the effect of it be not carried off by careful washing, the silk immediately becomes weak, and is

It is, therefore, evident why the nitrous acid is preferable in this operation to that which is saturated with nitrous gas; for, in the former, the proportion of oxygen being greater, it is better fitted to produce the effects of combustion, and becomes in the state of nitrous acid. The same explanation ought to apply to the action of the oxygenated muriatic acid on animal substances; it differs, however, in some essential particulars, which are not easily explained.

Silk has been observed to receive a yellow color when the oxygenated muriatic acid is employed, which is much lighter than when the nitric acid is made use of; the sulphurous acid discharges it in a great degree, but has no effect on the yellow produced by the diluted nitric acid. The oxygenated muriatic acid has, however, a much stronger action on the color; it soon weakens, and even dissolves it; and when left for some time in this fluid, the yellow color at first appeared grows lighter, agreeably to what has already been remarked, that oxygen,

by accumulation, is capable of disguising the yellow color occasioned by the combustion, which it had originally induced. Berthollet has endeavoured to explain the effects which the sulphurous acid produces on colors, by the facility with which it gives off its oxygen, and has compared them to those of the oxygenated muriatic acid; but, although it be true that oxygen adheres much more weakly to the sulphurous than to the sulphuric acid, he does not believe that that explanation is founded in truth.

51. It appears from the observation of De la Folie, that roses, whitened by the vapor of burning sulphur, become green in an alkaline lixivium, and red in acids; and M. Berthollet has himself observed, that the sulphurous acid reddened the tincture of turnsole, which has a very fading color, but that it acted only like other acids, on infusions of fustic, Brasil-wood and logwood; and further, that silk which has been exposed to the vapor of sulphur, exhaled the smell of sulphurous acid, when moistened with sulphuric acid, although it could not be perceived before that odor existed. He therefore supposes, that the sulphurous acid commonly unites with the coloring particles, and with the silk, without giving off its oxygen to them, and consequently without producing any combustion; that the product of that combination sometimes loses its color entirely, which is probably owing to the semi-elastic state of the oxygen; but sometimes combustion may, and even commonly should take place by degrees, so that the coloring particles, which have been disguised for some time, ought ultimately to leave a yellow color.

#### OF ASTRINGENTS.

52. Astringents deserve particular attention, not only from their great use in dyeing, but as possessing a property common to many vegetables. Perhaps, says Berthollet, there is no property in vegetables concerning which such vague ideas have been currently received. A slight relation in taste has frequently been deemed enough to rank them in the class of astringents; and every substance has been commonly regarded as astringent, or acerb, which turned a solution of iron black. This effect has been presumed to arise from one identical principle residing in all the bodies that produce it. Experience has subsequently shown, that two species of astringents ought to be admitted, viz. tannin and gallic acid. The gallic acid is obtained from gall-nuts, in which it is found in great plenty.

53. The gall-nut is an excrescence found on the young branches of the oak, and produced by the puncture of an insect. Different kinds of the gall-nut are met with, some inclining to white, yellow, green, brown, or red; others, ash-colored or blackish. They also differ greatly in magnitude, and are either round or irregular, heavy or light, smooth or covered with protuberances. Those which are small, blackish, knotted, and heavy, are the best; and are known by the name of Aleppo galls. These astringent substances are almost totally soluble in water by long ebullition. Sixteen drachms afforded Neumann fourteen of extract; from the remaining two drachms, only four grains could be extracted



by alcohol. And the same quantity treated first with alcohol, and then with water, afforded twelve drachms and two scruples of spirituous extract, and four scruples of watery extract; the residuum weighed half a scruple more than in the preceding experiment. In the spirituous extract, the taste is more strong and disagreeable than in the watery extract.

54. Many other very interesting observations have been made on astringent substances, by Messrs. Scheele, Monnet, and Berthollet. The latter seems to have proved, that it is not the gallic acid which communicates the astringent properties to the substances that possess it; that the acid itself possesses that property, in a degree inferior to other astringents; and that sumach, treated like the galls, in the manner described by Scheele, affords no gallic acid, though it possesses a high degree of astringency; walnut peels, treated in the same way, do not afford any. The property which the infusion of common galls has, of reddening certain vegetable colors, appears to proceed only from the gallic acid. The infusions of sumach, or of sloe-bark, which very readily produce a black precipitate, that of walnut-tree bark, or of quinquina, did not exhibit this property; and thence it is evident, that the gallic acid does not exist in white galls; for the infusion of these, though it deposit a copious sediment on exposure to the air, is not the gallic acid.

55. If the astringent property were owing to an individual principle distributed in different vegetables, the precipitates obtained by their means, from a solution of iron, would constantly form the same compounds, and exhibit the same appearances and properties; but the precipitate produced by galls is of a blackish blue: that by logwood has a different shade of blue; that by oak is of a fawn color, or blackish brown; that by quinquina, a blackish green. They fall down with different attendant circumstances, and when fixed on stuffs, are discharged by alum and tartar, some much more easily than others; and, probably, by multiplying experiments, many other remarkable differences may be discovered in the properties of these different precipitates. Astringents form with iron different species of compounds, and consequently do not derive their properties from one principle; but there must be a property common to different substances, to enable them to act uniformly on solutions of iron, and to produce precipitates more or less black, and thus appearing of the same nature.

56. The metallic oxides, which unite with the coloring particles, modify their colors; but some metallic oxides, and particularly that of iron, have colors which vary according to the quantity of oxygen they contain. Iron, when united with only a small quantity of oxygen, has a black color. If any substance, by uniting with the oxide of iron, had the property of taking from it a part of the oxygen, which it has when precipitated from its solution in an acid, this would be sufficient to give it a black color; and if the peculiar color of this substance were not predominant, or of itself inclining to black, the compound formed would have a black color; thus ni-

trous gas, either uncombined or weakly associated with the nitrous acid, renders solutions of iron black, and even precipitates the metal, by depriving a portion of its oxygen. By acting in this manner, ammoniac produces a black precipitate with the solutions of iron; in this case, it is decomposed of the ammoniac forms water, by combining with the oxygen that is disengaged from the oxide of the iron. Galls precipitate iron from their solutions, by reducing it to their metallic state; they, therefore, have the property of separating the oxygen from iron, to which it adheres but slightly, from others, that portion which is retained in the weakest degree. Any infusion of galls, or of sumach, readily assumes a deep brown color, by exposure to the air; though it absorbs but a small quantity of vital air. The infusion of sumach, or of woods and barks, also acquire a dark color by exposure to the air; so that when upon the oxide of iron, by separating a portion of its oxygen, an astringent ought itself to assume a darker color, by which the black should be produced.

57. Various substances, which have the property of precipitating solutions of iron, produce black precipitates. Among these, some are coloring particles, and employed as such in dyeing. Logwood, and even most kinds of iron particles, form brown or blackish precipitates with iron. Sometimes the astringent effect is not instantaneous; the color of the precipitate at first light; it grows deeper gradually, darkened in proportion as the iron loses oxygen. The infusion of fustic produces a yellow precipitate, the solution of iron, a yellow precipitate grows brown by degrees, and becomes black after a considerable time. But though the property of precipitating solutions of iron does not indicate the presence of the same individual principle in the substances which possess it, there can be no inconvenience in calling the name of astringent, provided by that name meant only a property, which is common to a great number of substances, and which they possess in various proportions.

58. The astringent principle is found to precipitate iron from all acids. The acids of phosphorus and arsenic only have a stronger action than it has for iron. The phosphoric acid is known to have the property of separating iron from the sulphuric acid; but all acids, except acetic, and probably some other vegetable acids which have not been tried, redissolve the precipitate, and make the color disappear, until they are saturated with an alkali. It is not surprising that the astringent principle can unite with metallic oxides, without having the qualities of an acid; for animal substances, oils, even lime, have this property. It is well known that it is the precipitate composed of iron and the astringent principle, which, by being suspended in the liquor, forms ink.

59. But although chemists consider the astringent principle as always the same, experience shows, that all astringent substances are equally proper for producing a beautiful durable black; it is of importance to determine which of them may be employed with the most success; it is, however, very difficult



comparative experiments on this subject with great accuracy, because some substances require much longer boiling than others to extract their astringency; because a difference in their coarseness or fineness, when subjected to ebullition is sufficient to produce differences in the results; and because the coloring particles have a greater or less disposition to combine with the water, according to the proportion of sulphate of iron that has been made use of. Solutions of iron in different acids may produce differences in results, according to the state of oxygenation of the iron in them, according as the proportion of metal is greater or less, and according to the degree of strength which the different acids, when disengaged, are capable of exerting on the iron-formed compound.

60. In the dyeing of stuffs also some differences will be found to arise from their greater or less attraction for the coloring particles. Dr. Lewis has proved in his excellent observations on the process of making ink, that no iron astringent, not even sumach, can be substituted for gall-nuts. If, says M. Berthollet, a large proportion of sulphate of iron be added to the galls, the ink becomes speedily brown, and then passes to yellow, because the astringent is destroyed by the action of the oxygen, which the sulphate of the iron affords, or which it attracts from the atmosphere; for we see that oxygen eventually destroys those coloring substances with which it is combined in great quantities. When this accident happens from age, Dr. Lewis found that an infusion of galls passed over the faded characters restored them. According to Dr. Ure, the best recipe for faded writing is a solution of ferrous sulphate of potash, faintly acidulated, or saturated hydrogen water. Dr. Lewis ascertained, by repeated experiments, that the best portion for ink is three parts of gall-nuts to one of sulphate of iron; that cherry-gum, and gum-tree gum, are as good as gum-arabic for giving the necessary consistence, and for keeping together the black molecules which tend to separate; and that decoction of logwood employed instead of water for the infusion of the galls improves the beauty of the ink.

Mr. Beunie made many experiments to determine the best process for giving cotton a fine black. He first tried what solution of iron gave the finest black to galled cotton; he afterwards combined different solutions, and examined the durability of the blacks which he produced; and made the same experiments on dyed cotton, with other metals and semimetals; employed in like manner a great number of astringents, and tried with them cotton which had received different preparations. He found that out of twenty-one species of astringents, oak-gall, the galls of the country, and yellow robolans, were the only substances which produced a fine black, but which was still neither so fine nor so durable as that obtained by the common galls. He also found that the oak saw-dust is preferable to the bark, employed by the dyers of thread, and, being cheaper, may be substituted with advantage.

62. Messrs. Lavoisier, Vandermonde, Four-

croy, and Berthollet, made experiments on galls, oak-bark, raspings of heart of oak, the external part of oak, of logwood, and sumach, for the purpose of forming a comparison of their qualities. To ascertain the portion of astringent principle contained in these different substances, they took two ounces of each separately, which they boiled half an hour in three pounds of water; after the first water they added a second, which underwent a similar ebullition; and continued these operations until the substances appeared exhausted: they then mixed together the decoctions that had been successively obtained. A transparent solution of sulphate of iron, in which the proportions of water and sulphate had been exactly determined, was used. They first estimated the quantity of the astringent principle, by the quantity of sulphate which each liquor could decompose, and afterwards by the weight of the black precipitate which was formed. In order to stop precisely at the point of saturation, they proceeded very slowly in the precipitation, and towards the end added the solution of sulphate only drop by drop, and ceased at the moment when the last added quantity no longer augmented the intensity of the black color. When the liquor is too opaque to allow its shade of color to be distinguished, a small quantity of it is largely diluted with water, and, by adding to this a little of the solution of sulphate of iron at the end of a glass tube, it is discovered whether or not the point of saturation has been attained: if we then wish to get the precipitate which is formed, the whole must be diluted with water very copiously.

63. This operation is an easy and accurate mode for manufacturers to determine the proper proportions of astringents, and solutions of iron. To saturate the decoction of two ounces of galls, three drachms and sixty-one grains of iron were required; the precipitate weighed seven drachms and twenty-four grains, when collected and dried. The color of the decoction of oak bark is a deep yellow; a very small portion of sulphate of iron gives it a dirty reddish color, and a larger one changes it to a deep brown. The quantity of sulphate required to saturate the decoction of two ounces of this bark, was eighteen grains. The precipitate, collected and dried, formed coarser and more compact grains, and weighed twenty-two grains; the inner bark of the oak afforded nearly the same result. But the decoction of the raspings of the heart of oak required for its saturation one drachm and twenty-four grains; and the precipitate weighed one drachm and twenty-four grains; the decoction of the external wood of the oak produced very little precipitate. The decoction of sumach acquired a reddish violet color, when a small quantity of the sulphate of iron was added. The quantity required for its saturation was two drachms eighteen grains. The precipitate exactly resembled that afforded by the galls. And the decoction of logwood became of a sapphire blue color, by the addition of sulphate of iron: if the point of saturation be exceeded, the blue becomes greenish and dirty. The exact quantity required for saturation was found to be one drachm forty-eight grains, and the weight of the precipitate was two drachms twelve



grains. The different precipitations made by oak take place readily; that by logwood, a little more difficultly, but still more easily than that which is effected by galls.

64. It was next ascertained, by trials made with cloth, that the quantity of astringent substances required to give a black color of intensity, to an equal weight of the same cloth, was proportional to the quantities of astringent principle, which had been already estimated in each kind from the foregoing experiments; but the black obtained by the different parts of the oak does not resist proofs of color, nearly so well as that which is produced by galls. Logwood alone seems not capable of producing so intense a black as galls or oak; nor does the color which it produces stand the test of proofs so well as that produced by galls.

65. We shall now consider the astringent principle in regard to its property of combining with vegetable and animal substances, particularly the latter. Silk acquires by galling, which is an operation that consists in macerating a stuff in a decoction of some astringent substance, a weight which cannot be taken from it, or diminished beyond a certain degree, by repeated washing; after which operation the stuff when put into a solution of iron is dyed black, because the astringent principle, decomposing the sulphate of iron, forms a triple compound with the oxide of iron and the stuff which is dyed. A stuff that is galled is likewise capable of combining with other coloring particles, the colors of which thereby acquire fixity, if they do not naturally possess it; so that the astringent communicates its durability to the triple compound, or perhaps the more complex one which is formed; but by this union the color generally becomes of a deeper shade. The astringent principle, by combining with animal substances, renders them incapable of corruption, and tends to render their texture more compact; and in this the art of tanning consists.

66. It may be proper to take some notice here of the substance denominated tannin, which, while it has some properties in common with the gallic acid, differs from it in others. Seguin was the first who showed that astringents contained a peculiar substance, which, in combining with skin, gave it the properties of tanned leather, and that the tanning effect arose from the combination thus formed. Tannin may be procured by digesting gall-nuts, grape-seeds, oak-bark, or catechu, in a small quantity of cold water. The solution, when evaporated, affords a substance of a brownish-yellow color, highly astringent, and soluble in water and in alcohol. According to Mr. Brand, the purest form of tannin appears to be derived from bruised grape-seeds; but even here, he observes, it is combined with other substances, from which it is, perhaps, scarcely separable. I have never, says he, been able to obtain it of greater purity than by digesting powdered catechu in water at  $33^{\circ}$  or  $34^{\circ}$ , filtering and boiling the solution, which, on cooling, becomes slightly turbid, and is to be filtered again, and evaporated to dryness; cold water, applied as before, extracts nearly pure tannin. The most distinctive char-

acter of tannin is that of affording no precipitate when added to a solution of or any other animal jelly. On this part of tanning depends, for which is generally employed; but the barks of other trees are frequently employed for purpose. Professor Proust recommends precipitation of a decoction of galls by carbonate of potassa, for obtaining tanning well the greenish-gray flakes that with cold water, and drying them in. This precipitate becomes brown and brittle and shining like a resin, and is soluble in hot water. In this state, he says, is very pure. According to tannin consists of hydrogen 4.186 51.160 + oxygen 44.654.

67. M. Berthollet considers the animal charcoal as the essential character of the astringent principle; the hydrogen, contains only in small quantity, is however much disposed partially to combine with it. Hence, when an infusion of galls is in contact with vital air, a small quantity of it is absorbed, and yet the color of it becomes much deeper; for, in confirmation of the theory already laid down, the readily becomes predominant in consequence of the slight combustion, and the color is deeper, and becomes brown.

68. Substances which contain much hydrogen and can undergo only a slight degree of combustion, ought to possess considerable durability, because charcoal does not combine with oxygen in the ordinary temperature of the air, and union be assisted by other attractions; but because slight variations of temperature produce no change in the dimensions of charcoal, on the contrary, substances which combine with hydrogen, and in which the particles of hydrogen are in a state of division, or easily decomposed, by the combination with hydrogen with azote or oxygen. The durability of their parts ought to take place in the variations of temperature, because by dilatation by heat, which the carbonaceous substances are not. When, therefore, the astringent principle is combined with an animal substance, it communicates to it the properties of charcoal; the animal substance becomes less liable to change from slight variations of temperature; instead of growing it suffers a slight degree of combustion from the action of the air; for the process of tanning probably could not go on in a perfect vessel.

69. On examining the analyses that have been made of indigo, which may be looked upon as the coloring matter least liable to change with which we are acquainted, it will be found that this substance leaves, in distillation, a greater proportion of charcoal than most other dyes themselves. M. Berthollet supposes that the chief cause of the difference observed in the durability of the color of indigo is to be ascribed to the abundance of charcoal, and that the proportion of this gas is the chief cause of the difference observed in the durability of colors; but the form of the vessel may also have great influence, for a



combines intimately with another substance, ought to form with it a more permanent compound, than one which has only a slight disposition to unite with it; now the astringent principle possesses a very strong disposition to form intimate combinations, especially with metallic substances.

Upon the same principles may be extended the fixity communicated to coloring matters by alumine, and by those metallic substances which are not liable to contain different proportions of oxygen, such as the oxide of tin, and some others. The different coloring substances, capable of uniting with metallic oxides, are under an action upon them, analogous to that of acids. The oxides are deprived of more or less of their oxygen, according to the force with which they retain it, the strength of attraction with which the coloring particles tend to unite with them, the proportions in which they meet with each other, and the greater or less disposition of the coloring particles towards union.

The coloring particles also suffer a change in their constitution from these circumstances: the solutions of iron render brown all the matters into which oxide of iron can enter, though it has only a green or yellow color in solution in which it is held in solution by acids, this effect goes on increasing to a certain point; but the alteration of the coloring particles may afterwards be carried so far as to spoil the color, and to diminish their tendency to union; the oxide of iron is then brought to the yellow color by the oxygen which it contains, and is capable of retaining. The action of metallic oxides and the coloring particles on each other, explains the changes observed in solutions of the coloring particles, when mixed with metallic solutions. The effect is gradual, it has been shown with respect to fustic. It sometimes happens that the mixture does not grow turbid immediately, but loses its transparency by degrees; the precipitation beneath the sediment is formed; and its color becomes gradually deeper. In producing these effects, light has sometimes a considerable share.

Upon the whole, we may conclude, that the colors should be distinguished from each other, which are peculiar to substances of the vegetable and animal kind: that the colors of the vegetable are modified and changed by oxidation, and by the proportion of oxygen with which they are combined; and that vegetable and animal substances may themselves possess a peculiar color, which varies in the different states in which they pass, or they may owe their color to colored particles, either combined, or mixed with them. These are the particles which are extracted from different substances, and which undergo different preparations, in order to render them proper for the various uses of dyeing. And the coloring particles possess chemical properties which distinguish them from all other substances: the affinities they have for acids, alkalis, earths, and metallic oxides: oxygen, wool, silk, cotton, and from the principal of these properties. In addition to the affinity which the coloring

particles have for wool, silk, cotton, and linen, they unite more or less readily and intimately with them: and thence arises the first cause of variation in the processes employed, according to the nature of the stuff, and of the coloring substance employed. And by the affinity which the coloring particles have for alumine and metallic oxides, they form compounds with these substances, in which their color is more or less modified, and becomes more fixed, and less affected by external agents than before. This compound being formed of principles which have separately the power of uniting with vegetable substances, and more especially with animal substances, preserves this property, and forms a triple compound with the stuff; and the color, which has been again modified by the formation of this triple union, acquires a greater degree of fixity, and of indestructibility, when exposed to the action of external agents.

73. The coloring particles have often so great an affinity for alumine and metallic oxides, that they separate them from acids which held them in solution, and fall down with them; but the affinity of the stuff is sometimes necessary, in order that this separation may take place. The oxides of metals, which combine with the coloring particles, modify their colors, not only by their own, but also by acting upon their composition by their oxygen. The change which the coloring particles thereby suffer, is similar to that occasioned by the air, which injures every color in a greater or less degree. In the two different principles which constitute the air or the atmosphere, it is only the oxygenous gas that acts upon the coloring particles. It combines with them, weakening their color, and rendering it paler; but presently its action is principally exerted on the hydrogen, which enters into their composition, and it then forms water. This effect, continues M. Berthollet, ought to be considered as a true combustion, whereby the charcoal which enters into the composition of the coloring particles becomes predominant, and the color commonly changes to yellow, fawn color, or brown; or the injured part, by uniting with what remains of the original color, causes other appearances of a different kind. The combustion of the coloring particles is increased by light, and frequently cannot take place without its aid; it is indeed in this way that it contributes to the destruction of colors. Heat promotes it also, but less powerfully than light, provided its intensity be not very great. The effects of the nitric acid, the oxygenated muriatic acid, and even the sulphuric acid, when they make the color of the substances upon which they act pass to a yellow and even to black, are to be attributed to a combustion of a similar nature.

74. The effects of combustion may, however, be concealed, by the oxygen combining with the coloring particles, without the hydrogen being particularly acted upon by it. But colors are more or less fixed, in proportion to the greater or less disposition of the coloring particles to suffer this combustion. There are some substances also capable of acting on the color of stuffs, by a stronger affinity, or by a solvent power; and in this consists the action of acids, alkalis, and soaps.



A small quantity of these agents, however, may sometimes form supercompounds with the stuff, and its color may be altered in that way. The oxides of metals produce in the coloring particles, with which they unite, a degree of combustion proportioned to the quantity of oxygen which these particles can take from them. Therefore the colors, which the compounds of metallic oxides and coloring particles assume, are the product of the color peculiar to the coloring particles, and of that peculiar to the metallic oxide: but the coloring particles and metallic oxides must be considered in that state to which they have been reduced by the diminution of oxygen in the oxide, and the diminution of hydrogen in the particles that produce the color. It follows from this, that the metallic oxides, to which the oxygen is only slightly attached, are not fit to serve as intermedia for the coloring particles, because they produce in them too great a degree of combustion; instances of this kind are the oxides of silver, gold, and mercury. The oxides which undergo considerable alterations of color, by giving off more or less of their oxygen, are also bad intermedia, particularly for light shades, because they produce changeable colors; examples of this kind are the oxides of copper, of lead, and of bismuth. The oxides which strongly retain their oxygen, and undergo very little change of color by the loss of a proportion of it, are the most suitable for this purpose; such is particularly the oxide of tin, which quits its menstruum easily, which has a strong affinity for the coloring particles, and which affords them a basis that is very white, and proper for giving a brightness to their shades, without altering them by the mixture of another color. The oxide of zinc is possessed of some of these properties in a considerable degree.

75. To account for the colors, which proceed from the union of the coloring particles with the basis which a mordant gives them, we must attend to the proportion in which the coloring particles unite to that basis. Thus the solution of tin, which produces a very copious precipitate with a solution of coloring particles, and which thereby proves that the oxide of tin enters in a large proportion into the precipitate, has a much greater influence on the color of the precipitate, by the whiteness of its basis, than the solution of zinc, or that of alum, which generally produce much less copious precipitates. The precipitates produced by these two last substances retain very nearly the natural tint which the coloring particles afforded. It is therefore necessary to distinguish, in the action of mordants, the combinations that may take place by their means, between the coloring particles, the stuff, and the intermedium; the proportions of the coloring substances and intermedium; the modifications of color, which may arise from the mixture of the color of the coloring particles, and of that of the basis to which they are united; and the changes which the coloring particles may suffer, from the combustion that may be produced by the substance that is employed as an intermedium. It is evident also, that astringents do not differ essentially from coloring particles; but the latter take this name, especially when employed

to produce black with oxide of iron, by giving this metal to the state of a black oxide by their assuming a dark color from the oxygen.

76. The notion of an astringent; moreover, the property of combining in quantity with animal substances, gives thus solidity and incorruptibility; because two properties are most commonly united again are derived from their large share of carbon, a circumstance in their composition gives them increased tendency to solid greater stability.

77. On this ingenious theory of Berthollet, an able writer on dyeing, some remarks that deserve attention originate in M. Berthollet, in ascribing to vegetable and animal coloring; in general, to effects or changes similar to combustion, has gone much farther than isarrantable by facts. It cannot, he thinks, be intended, that we should apply the combustion to alterations which require simple addition of oxygen to coloring matter, with a destruction or separation of its component parts; though many of the extinctions of these colors evidence only from such simple additions of oxygen, nitric, sulphuric, and other acids. Oxygen, have the power not only of extinguishing, for a time, the many tinting matters; not by any means can properly be denominated a combustion, rather by a change in their several attractive particular rays of light; but none of being destroyed, or carried away, the an alkali, or of calcareous carbonates generally undo such alteration, and restore the original color, by decomposing and separating the acid or oxygen which had caused the extinction.

78. Of this numerous instances might it being the case of almost all vegetable coloring matters. It will be sufficient to mention, that ink dropped into a glass of nitric, vitriolic, or other acid, will lose its color, and that it may be again restored by a suitable portion of vegetable or fossil matter. That this may be done several times without loss of ink, and therefore the change, or loss, could not have been the effect of combustion. If, however, this ink had not been fixed in the substance either of wool, silk, or cotton, and the substance so dyed dipped into a glass of diluted acid, a considerable part of the coloring matter would be dislodged, and separated from the dyed substance, by its affinity with the oxygen, although no combustion had taken place; the color so separated and lost could not be restored without a second dyeing. The color would be similar to what frequently happens to colors from exposure to the sun, by which they are gradually weakened, and then without any other change of tint than a simple diminution of their original quantity of coloring matter; and this continuing as long as the fugitive colors, particularly that of some cloths is soon left as white as before it had



out anything like combustion having a place in it, or in the matter which was dyed. It may also be presumed, that colors are not generally impaired by any combustion, from this fact, that there is not one of them which the common muriatic acid can injure, as much as either the nitric or sulphuric; and as there can be no combustion without oxygen, and as the common muriatic acid contains none, or what it does contain is only combined with it by an affinity too weak to be overcome by any known substance, it follows, that the oxygen (if it contain it) must be liberated so as to act in the way of an agent upon any other matter; and therefore, the common muriatic acid changes or destroys colors, it changes or destroys the affinities upon which they depend, by producing a ferment from those of combustion; and the changes which it produces on colors are very similar to those produced by the nitric, and other acids known to combine with colors, it is reasonable to conclude, that they act upon colors, by producing other affinities in those of combustion.

Sennebier exposed a great variety of colors to the action of the sun and air, and found them very soon affected. The white colors generally became brown, and the red and blue faded either to yellow or black. Guaiacum rendered green; the oak and the cedar turned, as were the brown woods generally, to a blackish green, which certainly do not resemble the colors of combustion, any more than the bleaching of tallow by exposure to the air. It is evident, argues Dr. Bancroft, that the action of each particular substance depends on the nature of the substance, producing in it a particular attraction for certain rays of light; and a disposition to reflect or transmit certain other rays; and in respect to it may doubtless suffer very considerable changes from the action or combination of oxygen, without any effects similar to those of combustion. And, indeed, the changes of color which arise from the access of atmospheric oxygen, do not resemble those which the mere presence of blackness (the supposed natural color of carbon) would produce; though this has been the case with the coloring matter of unbleached linen, upon which the experiments of M. Berthollet seem principally to have been made. But whether the action of oxygen is its basis, in promoting the decays and changes of color, or whether it is to be denominated a combustion or not, Dr. Bancroft is confident, that at least some colors are liable to be impaired, not so much by the action of oxygen, as by the loss of it. The loss of color in arterial and venous blood has been long noticed, and numerous experiments have shown that the fine vermilion color of the former is produced solely by vital air, and that the color of the latter is produced by the loss of it, and is capable of acquiring through bladders, of blood-vessels, &c. And Mr. Hasselmann has proved, that, as this fine red color is lost, and the dark color of the blood, so it is restored, and the dark color of the blood is restored, by a separation of oxygen, in consequence of its forming a new union with the hydrogen and carbon of

80. Dr. Bancroft is also of opinion, that the blue color of indigo depends upon a certain portion of oxygen, for he has found that a solution of indigo, by losing its oxygen, may become as pellucid, and, excepting a very slight yellowish tinge, as colorless as water, and afterwards speedily return through all the shades of yellow and green to its original deep blue, by exposure to atmospheric or vital air. Similar to this, he remarks, is the fact long since observed by the abbé Nollet, of the tincture of archil employed to color the spirit of wine used in thermometers, and which after some time loses its color, but recovers it again upon being exposed to atmospheric air. This also happens to the infusion of turnsole, and to syrup of violets, which lose their colors when secluded from air, and regain them when placed in contact with it. He has also observed various animal and vegetable colors, produced solely by the contact of atmospheric air; and some others, which, when given by dyeing or callico-printing to wool, silk, cotton, &c., though unable to sustain a single day's exposure to the sun and air without manifest injury, were found to receive none from the action of strong nitric or sulphuric acids, but, on the contrary, were perceived by being wetted with them, and even with oxygenated muriatic and sulphuric acids. But the same colors, if covered with linseed oil, were found to decay more quickly from exposure to the sun and air, than if uncovered. These colors, therefore, he contends, could not owe their decay to the contact or combination of oxygen, because they were not only unhurt, but benefited by its concentrated powers in the nitric, the oxygenated muriatic, and sulphuric acids; and also because they were soonest impaired when defended from the access of oxygen, by being covered with linseed oil. Probably the decays of these colors were occasioned by a loss of at least some part of the oxygen which was necessary to their existence, and which the linseed oil assisted in depriving them of, by the strong affinity it has with oxygen.

81. Dr. Bancroft further observes, that, in forming systems, we are apt to draw general conclusions from only a partial view of facts. This M. Berthollet seems to have done, not only in ascribing the decays of vegetable and animal colors, exclusively to effects similar to those of combustion, but also in representing the oxygenated muriatic acid, as an accurate test for anticipating, in a few minutes, the changes which these colors are liable to suffer by long exposure to the action of sun and air; for, says he, though it is true, that the oxygenated muriatic acid, in weakening or destroying colors, gives up to them more or less of the oxygen which it had received by distillation from manganese; and that, by this new combination of oxygen, those affinities for particular rays of light, upon which their colors depend, are liable to be destroyed; it is nevertheless true, that the changes of color so produced are no certain indication of those, which the combined influence of light and air will occasion upon colors in general; there being several colors which are very speedily destroyed by the latter of these causes, though they resist the strongest action of the oxygenated muriatic acid, without suffering any degree of



injury or hurt. The Dr. adds, that M. Berthollet well knows, since nobody has contributed more to ascertain, how much the properties of oxygen are diversified by each particular basis to which it unites; and that it does not, therefore, seem warrantable to imagine, that its action will not be modified by a basis so powerful as that of the common muriatic acid, or that the united properties of both should represent or resemble those of atmospheric air upon colors, any more than they do in the lungs by respiration; where, instead of supporting life, they would instantly put an end to it.

82. These observations were made in reference to the manner in which M. Berthollet had expressed himself on the subject in his *Elemens de l'Art de la Teinture*, published in 1791. A new edition of this work was published about the year 1804, in which the author has fully noticed Dr. Bancroft's arguments; refuted some of them; admitted the force of others in part; and, in some respects, has availed himself of the important improvements of Dr. Bancroft.

#### OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE SUBSTANCES.

83. Before we proceed to treat of the practice of dyeing, it will be necessary to consider some of the leading differences that exist between several of the substances to be dyed, and to point out the processes through which they must pass before they will receive the colors required. The following is the substance of M. Berthollet's opinion relative to this subject:—It is now known, that the composition of animal substances is distinguished from that of vegetables, by their abounding in a particular principle called azote, which is found only in small quantities in vegetables, as well as by their containing much more hydrogen, or base of inflammable air, than is found in the other. From these two causes, the differences observed in the distillation of animal and vegetable substances proceed: the former yield a large quantity of ammoniac or volatile alkali; the latter afford very little, and sometimes yield an acid: the former yield a great deal of oil, the predominant principle in which is hydrogen, which is very volatile and disposed to fly off by a small increase of temperature; while the latter sometimes do not yield it in the least sensible quantity.

84. Dr. Ure in a note, p. 151, vol. I. of his translation of Berthollet's treatise, has the following remarks on this theory. Modern researches do not justify this position of M. Berthollet. Sugar and starch, by the analyses of M.M. Gay Lussac and Berzelius, contain about as much hydrogen as fibrin does, and very little less than gelatin and albumen; while, by my analyses, wool and silk contain less hydrogen than cotton and flax. See *Phil. Trans.* for 1822.

I subjoin the results of my analytical experiments on the four principal subjects of dyeing.

	Carbon.	Hydrogen.	Oxygen.	Azote.
Wool	53.70	2.80	31.20	12.30
Silk	50.69	3.94	34.04	11.33
Cotton	42.11	5.06	52.83	
Flax	42.81	5.50	51.70	

The first two, independently of the assess a marked difference of composition in their excess of carbon and deficiency of azote.

85. In consequence of this composition animal substances, when set on fire, burn with a bright flame, which breaks out at the first; but is soon stifled by the charcoal formed, and which has peculiar properties. Its combustion is accompanied with a peculiar odor, owing to the ammoniac and volatile substances, which escape unconsumed; they are liable to putrefaction, in which process ammoniac is as well as in their distillation, by a more perfect union of the azote and hydrogen; while vegetable substances, on the contrary, undergo vinous and acetous fermentation. It is that, as animal substances contain a considerable quantity of principles disposed to form an elastic form, they have less cohesive force than their particles than vegetables, and are more disposed to combine with other substances; they are more liable to be destroyed by acids, and are more disposed to combine with coloring particles.

86. The consequence of this action of acids on animal substances is, that they cannot bear the alkalis should be used with great caution; the processes employed for dyeing them are as no danger is to be apprehended from the use of alkalis with substances of the vegetable class. Nitric and sulphuric acids have also a considerable action on animal substances: they decompose them, extricate the azote, the fatty matter, and form carbonic acid, fixed air, and oxalic acid or the acid of alkalis with substances of the vegetable class; with a part of the hydrogen and a part of the charcoal; the latter extricates the volatile gas, probably azotic gas, and reduces the principles to the state of carbon. It is some resemblance to vegetable substances, its being less disposed to combine with coloring particles, and by resisting the action of acids more powerfully; which is either from the same principles being more intimately combined in it than in wool, probably, from its containing less hydrogen. But, though the action of acids upon silk be weaker than upon wool, it should still be employed with great caution, as the brightness of color requires it; it appears to depend upon the smoothness of the surface, which should, on that account, be served unimpaired, with every possible care. Cotton withstands the action of acids better than flax or hemp. Even the nitric acid does not destroy it without great difficulty.

#### OF WOOL.

87. The value of wool, and its fitness for different kinds of manufacture, depend upon its length and fineness of its filaments. It is naturally covered with a kind of grease which preserves it from moths; so that it is not until it is about to be dyed, or formed into cloth, that it is subjected to any process. To scour wool, it is generally put for a quarter of an hour into a kettle, containing a sufficient quantity of water, mixed with a fourth of putrid urine, heated to such a degree as the hand can just bear, and it must be stirred from time to time with sticks. It is then



out to drain, and carried in a large basket running water, where it is moved about the grease is entirely separated, and no renders the water turbid; it is afterwards out, and left to drain. It sometimes loses operation more than a fifth of its weight. operation should be conducted with much since the more correctly it is performed, better is the wool fitted to receive the dye. In this process the ammonia or volatile alkali exists in the urine, readily combines with oil of the wool, and forms a soap, which, soluble in water, is dissolved and carried

Wool is dyed in the fleece before it is, when it is intended to form cloths of mixed; it is dyed after being spun, when intended principally for tapestry: but it is most usually dyed after having been manufactured cloth. If wool be dyed in the fleece, its ends, from being separate, absorb a larger quantity of the coloring particles than when it is spun; for the same reason, woollen yarn takes more than cloth: but cloths themselves vary considerably in this respect, according to their degree of fineness, or the closeness of their texture.

Besides, the variety in their dimensions, different qualities of the ingredients employed in dyeing, and a difference of circumstances in the process, prevent us from relying upon the same quantities recommended for the process. This ought in all dyes to be attended to. It is a fact well known to dyers and others, that coarse wool from the thighs and tails of sheep receives the coloring particles with less difficulty. The finest cloth is never fully saturated with the scarlet dye, hence the inner of the cloth appears always of a lighter color when cut, and sometimes almost white. In the generality of colors, wool requires to be dyed by a bath, in which it is boiled with coloring substances, principally with alum and madder; but there are some dyes for which the wool does not require such a preparation; then the stuff may be well washed in warm water, and then put out, or left to drain.

The surface of the filaments of wool is not quite smooth; for, although no roughness or inequality can be discovered, yet they are composed of fine laminæ placed over each other in a slanting direction, from the root of the filament towards the point, resembling the arrangement of the scales of a fish, which cover the body from the head of the animal to its tail.

This peculiarity of structure is proved by a simple experiment. If a hair be held by the thumb on one hand, and drawn between the fingers of the other hand, from the root towards the point, hardly any friction is perceived, and no noise is heard; but if it be seized by the point, and drawn in the same manner between the thumb and fingers from the point towards the root, a resistance is felt, and a tremulous motion is perceptible to the touch, while the ear perceives a noise. Thus it appears, that the texture of wool is the same from the root towards the point, as from the point towards the root. This is confirmed by another experiment. If a hair be held between the thumb and fore-finger,

and they be rubbed against each other in the longitudinal direction of the hair, it acquires a progressive motion towards the root. This effect depends not on the nature of the skin of the finger, or on its texture, for if the hair be turned and the point placed where the root formerly was, the motion is reversed, that is, it will still be towards the root.

90. On this peculiarity of structure, which was observed by M. Monge, depend the processes of felting and fulling of hair and wool for different purposes. In the process of felting, the flocculi of wool are struck with the string of the bow, by which the filaments are detached, and dispersed in the air. These filaments fall back on each other in all directions, and, when a layer of a certain thickness is formed, they are covered with a cloth, on which the workman presses with his hands in all parts. By this pressure the filaments are brought nearer to each other; the points of contact are multiplied; the progressive motion towards the root is produced by the agitation; the filaments entangle each other; and the laminæ of each taking hold of those of the others, which are in an opposite direction, the whole is retained in a state of close contixture.

91. Connected with this operation is that of fulling. The roughness on the surface of the filaments of wool, and their tendency to acquire a progressive motion towards the root, produce great inconvenience in the operations of spinning and weaving. This inconvenience is obviated by covering the filaments with a coat of oil, which fills up the pores, and renders the asperities less sensible. When these operations are finished, the stuff must be freed from the oil, which would prevent it from taking the color with which it is to be dyed. For this purpose it is taken to the fulling-mill, where it is beaten with large beetles, in a trough of water, through which clay has been diffused. The clay unites with the oil, which, being thus rendered soluble in water, is carried off by fresh portions of water, conveyed to it. In this way the stuff is scoured; but this is not the sole object of the operation. By the alternate pressure of the beetles, an effect similar to that of the hands of the workman, in the operation of felting, is produced. The filaments composing a thread of warp or woof, acquire a progressive motion; are entangled with the filaments of the adjoining threads; those of the latter into the next, and so on, till the whole become felted together. The stuff is now contracted in all its dimensions, and, participating both of the nature of cloth and of felt, may be cut without being subjected to ravel; and, when employed to make a garment, requires no hemming. In a common woollen stocking web, after this operation, the stitches are no longer subject to run, and, the threads of the warp and woof being less distinct from each other, the whole stuff is thickened, and forms a warmer covering.

#### OF SILK.

92. Silk in its natural state is coated over with a substance which has generally been considered as a kind of gum or varnish. To this



substance the silk is supposed to owe its elasticity and stiffness. Besides this varnish, the silk usually met with in Europe is impregnated with a substance of a yellow color, and, for most of the purposes for which silk is required, it is necessary to free it from both the varnish and the coloring matter. To effect this, the silk is subjected to the operation of scouring; but it is very obvious that when the silk is to be dyed, the scouring need not be carried so far as is required where it is to remain white. Different colors, also, will require different degrees of scouring; and this difference is generally regulated by the quantity of soap employed: 100 pounds of silk boiled in a solution of twenty pounds of soap, for three or four hours, supplying a little water occasionally because of the evaporation, will be sufficiently prepared to receive the common colors. For blue colors the proportion of soap must be greater; and scarlet, cherry color, &c., require a still greater proportion, because for those colors the ground must be whiter.

93. When silk is to be employed white, it must undergo three operations. The first consists in keeping the hanks of silk in a solution of thirty pounds of soap to 100 of silk: this solution ought to be very hot, but not boiling; when any part of the hanks immersed is entirely free from its gum, which is known by the whiteness it acquires, the hanks are to be shaken over, as the dyers term it, so that the part which was not before immersed, may undergo the same process. They are then taken out and wrung, as the process is finished.

94. In the second operation the silk is put into bags of coarse cloth, each bag containing from twenty-five to thirty pounds. A solution of soap is prepared as in the former case, but with a smaller proportion of soap. In this the bags are boiled for an hour and a half; and that they may not receive too much heat by resting on the bottom of the vessel, they must be constantly stirred during the operation.

95. The third operation is to communicate to the silk different shades, that the white may be rendered more pleasing. These shades are known by different names, as China-white, silver-white, azure-white, or thread-white. For this purpose a solution of soap is also prepared, of which the proper degree of strength is ascertained by its manner of frothing by agitation. For the China-white, which is required to have a slight tinge of red, a small quantity of anatto is added, and the silk is shaken over in it till it has acquired the shade required. In other whites, a blue tinge is given by adding a little blue to the solution of soap. The azure-white is produced by means of indigo. To prepare the azure, fine indigo is well washed in moderately warm water, after which boiling water is poured upon it. It is then left to settle, and the liquid part only, which contains the finer and more soluble parts, is employed.

96. Some use no soap in the third operation, but, when the second is completed, they wash the silks, fumigate with sulphur, and azure them with river water, which should be very pure. But all these operations are not sufficient to give

silk that degree of brightness which is when it is to be employed in the most white stuffs. For this purpose it must undergo the process of sulphuration, in which it is exposed to the vapor of sulphur. The silk which has been thus treated receives colors, and retaining them in lustre, the sulphur which adheres to it is separated by immersion and agitation in warm water, otherwise the silk is tarnished and greatly injured.

97. It has long been an object of considerable importance, to deprive silk of its gum matter, without destroying the gum, its stiffness and elasticity depending on it. For this purpose was discovered by Berthollet, as it was not made public, others have attributed it to conjecture and experiment. The account, given by Berthollet, is transpired concerning this process. It is made with a small quantity of muriatic acid and alcohol. The muriatic acid must be in a state of purity, and entirely free from iron, which would give the silk a yellow tinge. In the mixture thus prepared, the silk is immersed.

98. One of the most difficult processes, especially when large quantities are operated upon, is to produce a uniformness. In dyeing the whitened silk, it is some difficulty in preventing its curling; it is recommended to keep it constantly during the drying. The muriatic acid is useful in this process, by softening the silk, and assisting the alcohol to dissolve the particles which are combined with it. The alcohol which has been impregnated with coloring matter may be again separated and purified, and may thus serve in several operations, and render the process more economical. This may be effected by distillation, and moderate heat, in glass or stone-ware vessels.

The preparation with alum is a very preliminary operation in the dyeing. Without this process, few colors will either beauty or durability. Forty or fifty pounds of alum, dissolved in warm water, and put in a vat, with forty or fifty pails of water, prevent the crystallisation of the salt, and must be carefully stirred during the operation. The silk being previously washed and wrung out, is put into the vat, and after eight or ten days, to separate any remains of soap, is immersed in this alum liquor, and after eight or ten days wrung out, and washed in a stream of water. The pounds of silk may be prepared in this quantity of liquor; but when it begins to be weak, which may be known by the taste, or twenty-five pounds of alum are added, and the addition repeated till the liquor has an offensive smell. It may then be employed in the preparation of silk intended for darker shades, till its whole strength is dissipated. The preparation of silk with alum must be made cold; for when the liquor is employed hot, the lustre is impaired.

#### OF COTTON.

99. Cotton is the down or wool which covers the pods of the gossypium, a shrubby plant



in warm climates. Cottons differ principally in the length of their filaments, their fineness, strength, and color. This substance presents different shades, from a deep yellow to a white. The most beautiful is not always the best; it is necessary to bleach it, by processes similar to those employed in the bleaching of wool.

Or, instead of these, oxygenated muriatic acid may be employed; and a more beautiful white thus produced, than by the ordinary way of bleaching. M. Berthollet succeeded in bleaching the yellow cotton of St. Domingo, which very obstinately retains this bad color. That cotton may be disposed to receive the white it must undergo scouring. Some boil it in water, but more frequently alkaline lie is used; the cotton must be boiled in it for two days, and then wrung out; after which it must be passed in a stream of water, till the water runs off clear; it must then be carefully dried. Cotton stuffs, which are to be prepared, must be soaked for some time in water, mixed with at least one-fiftieth of sulphuric acid; after which, they must be carefully washed in a stream of water, and dried. M. Berthollet has observed, that the acid which had been used in this operation had taken up a quantity of calcareous matter and iron, which would have injured the stuff very much. Aluming and galling are generally employed in the dyeing of cotton and wool. In the preparation with alum, about four ounces of it are required to each pound of stuff; it must be dissolved with the precautions above-mentioned. Some add a solution of soda in the proportion of one-sixteenth of the alum; others add an equal quantity of tartar and arsenic. The stuff is well impregnated by working it pound upon pound in this solution; it is then put altogether into a vessel, and what remains of the liquor is pressed upon it. This is left for twenty-four hours, and then removed to a stream of water, where it remains for about two hours, to extract the alum, and is then washed. Cotton, after this operation, gains about one-fortieth of its weight.

In the operation of galling, it is usual to use different quantities of galls or other astringents, according to their quality, or the effect required. Powdered galls are boiled for two hours, in a quantity of water proportioned to that of the thread to be galled; the liquor is then allowed to cool to a temperature the hand can bear, after which it is divided into a number of equal parts, that the thread may be soaked pound by pound; and what remains is pressed upon the whole together. It is then left for twenty-four hours, when intended for blue, but for other colors twelve or fourteen hours is sufficient. It may then be wrung out, and carefully dried. When stuffs are galled, which have already received a color, the operation is to be performed in the cold, that the color may not be injured. M. Berthollet found that cotton which had been alumed, acquired more weight after galling than that which had not undergone that process; although alum adheres but in a small quantity to cotton, it communicates to it a great power of combining, both with the as-

tringent principle and with the coloring particles of different substances.

#### OF FLAX.

101. Flax must undergo several preparations before it be fit to receive the dye. Of these, the watering is an operation of much consequence, from its influence on the quality and quantity of the product, and from its deleterious effects on the air. In this operation, a glutinous juice, which holds the green coloring part of the plant in solution, undergoes a greater or less degree of decomposition, according to the mode of conducting the operation. This matter seems to resemble the glutinous part, that is held dissolved in the juice procured from green plants by pressure, which is separated along with the coloring particles by a heat approaching to that of ebullition, which becomes putrid, and which affords ammonia by distillation; but it is probable, that water alone cannot sufficiently separate it from the cortical parts: whence the hemp, which has been watered in too strong a current, is deficient in its softness and pliability, &c. But if the water employed be stagnant and putrid, the hemp acquires a brown color, loses its firmness, and emits highly noxious vapors. This process is therefore performed to the greatest advantage, in watering pits situated on the banks of rivers, where the water may be changed often enough to prevent a putrefaction, that would injure the hemp, and be prejudicial to the workmen; yet not so often as to hinder the degree of putrefaction which is necessary to render the water capable of dissolving the glutinous substance. To prepare flax for the dye, it must also be subjected to the operations of scouring, aluming, and galling, in the same manner as cotton.

#### PART II.

##### THE PRACTICE OF DYEING.

102. Before we proceed to give directions for the various processes to be observed in the practice of dyeing, we shall take a brief view of M. Berthollet's observations on dyeing operations in general, which cannot fail to be interesting to the practical dyer.

103. 'It may be regarded,' says he, 'as a general principle, that processes performed in a great manufactory are more advantageous than those which are insulated, since, from the subdivision of labor, each workman, occupied with a single object, acquires celerity and perfection in his employment, by which means the saving of time and labor becomes very considerable.'

104. This principle is particularly applicable to the art of dyeing, as the preparation which remains after one operation may often be advantageously employed in another. A bath from which the coloring matter has been nearly extracted in the first operation may be used as a ground for other stuffs, or, with the addition of a fresh portion of ingredients, may form a new bath. The galls which have been applied to the galling of silk may answer a similar purpose for cotton or wool. From this it is evident that the limitations under which the art of dyeing labors



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om combining with them.

such consequence to be able to  
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enomination of hard-water, that  
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detect different principles con-  
waters, and to ascertain their  
ecision, require great skill, and  
agement of chemical operations,  
need chemist only can be sup-

hese tests is the soap solution,  
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be injurious to the processes.  
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es, serve to modify the colors  
of the dyer is to obtain deep  
way, for example, a crimson  
the color produced by cochi-

It has been justly observed, by an able writer  
on this subject, that absolute black being a com-  
plete privation of all color, can scarcely be  
ascribed to any body in nature, since it must then  
become invisible. The color so named, as com-  
municated by dye-stuffs, is, indeed, rather an  
intense blue or brown, and is generally produced  
by the union of these coloring matters with a  
ferruginous mordant, and hence it may not im-  
properly be termed a compound color. The  
juice of the cashew nut communicates a black  
that will not wash out, and which resists boiling  
with soap or alkalis. The anacardium occiden-  
tale and the toxicodendron afford a durable dye,  
out it is of a brownish hue. The juice of the  
sloe affords a pale tint of a brownish cast, which  
becomes deeper after having been repeatedly  
washed with soap, and afterwards wetted with a  
solution of alkali. On boiling sloes, their juice  
becomes red, and the red tinge, which in that  
state it imparts to linen, is converted by washing  
with soap into a bluish color of some durability.  
But these methods of obtaining a black color  
cannot be employed in dyeing, because these  
substances are not to be obtained in sufficient  
quantity, and the black which they afford is not  
equal to that formed by the common processes.  
All black colors, therefore, are the effects of  
combination. To produce them, the black par-  
ticles formed by the union of the astringent  
principle with the oxide of iron, held in solution  
by an acid, are fixed on the stuff that is intended  
to be dyed.

119. There are very few substances which  
have the property of producing of themselves a  
permanent black color. The juice of some plants  
is found to produce this effect on cotton and  
linen.

120. When the particles are precipitated from  
the mixture of an astringent and a solution of  
iron, they have only a blue color; if they be then  
left exposed to the air, and moistened with water,  
their color becomes deeper, but still the blue is  
distinguishable. The stuff itself then contributes  
to increase the intensity of the black, whether it  
be that in this state of combination it undergoes  
a slight combustion, or that the coloring particles  
undergo a further degree of combustion, from  
presenting a larger surface to the air. Without  
the action of the air, however, a fine black can-  
not be produced; on which account the operations  
are performed at different intervals, during which  
the stuff is taken out of the bath, that it may be  
exposed to the air. M. Berthollet has ascertained,  
that black stuffs placed in contact with pure air  
diminish its volume, and consequently absorb  
a certain portion of it.

121. *Of Dyeing Woollen Black.*—From the  
process described by Hellot, woollen cloth, to be  
dyed black ought to receive the deepest blue tint,  
or mazarine blue, to be washed in the river as soon  
as taken out of the vat, and afterwards cleansed  
by the fulling mill.

For every hundred pounds of stuff, ten pounds  
of logwood, and ten pounds of galls reduced to  
powder, are put into a bag, and boiled with a  
sufficient quantity of water, for twelve hours.  
A third of this liquor is put into another copper,  
with two pounds of verdigris. The stuff is im-

#### DYEING BLACK.

proceed to give an account of  
nd advantageous processes for  
olors, and begin with the me-  
ick.



mersed in this, and continually stirred for two hours. The liquor should be kept hot, but it ought not to boil. At the end of two hours the stuff is taken out, and a similar portion of the liquor is put into the copper, with eight pounds of sulphate of iron. During the solution of the coppers, the fire is diminished, and the liquor is allowed to cool for half an hour, stirring it well the whole time. The remainder is then to be added, and, after making this addition, the bag containing the astringent matters should be strongly pressed, to separate the whole. A quantity of sumach, from fifteen to twenty pounds, is now to be added, and the liquor is just raised to the boiling temperature; and when it has given one boil, it is to be immediately stopped with a little cold water. A fresh quantity of sulphate of iron, to the amount of two pounds, is then added, and the stuff is kept in it for another hour, after which it is taken out, washed and aired; it is again put into the copper, and constantly stirred for an hour. It is then carried to the river, well washed, and fulled. To soften the black color, and make it more firm, another liquor is prepared with weld. This is made to boil for a moment, and when it is cooled the stuff is passed through it. By this process, which is indeed somewhat complicated, a beautiful black color is produced.

122. But the methods usually followed for dyeing black, are more simple. Cloth, which has been previously dyed blue, is merely boiled in a vat of galls for two hours. It is then kept two hours, but without boiling, in the vat of logwood and sulphate of iron, and afterwards washed and fulled. According to Hellot's process, a liquor is to be prepared of a pound and a half of yellow wood, five pounds of logwood, and ten pounds of sumach, for every fifteen yards of deep blue cloth; and, the cloth having boiled in this for three hours, ten pounds of sulphate of iron are added; the cloth is allowed to remain for two hours longer, when it is taken out and aired, after which it is again returned to the vat for an hour, and then washed and fulled.

When stuffs are to be dyed at less expense, instead of the blue ground, a brown or root-colored ground may be substituted. This brown or fawn color is communicated by means of the root of the walnut-tree, or green walnut-peels. The stuffs are then to be dyed black, according to some of the methods already described.

123. The proportions of the ingredients employed by the English dyers are, for every hundred pounds of cloth previously dyed a deep blue, about five pounds of sulphate of iron, five pounds of galls, and thirty of logwood. The first step in the process is to gall the cloth, after which it is passed through the decoction of logwood, to which the sulphate of iron has been added.

124. As a substitute for galls, the leaves of the arbutus, *uva ursi*, have been recommended, and employed. The leaves must be carefully dried, so that the green color may be preserved: 100 pounds of wool are boiled with sixteen pounds of sulphate of iron, and eight of tartar, for two hours; the following day the cloth is to be rinsed as after aluming; 150 pounds of the

leaves are then to be boiled for two water, and after being taken out, a quantity of madder is to be added, and putting in the cloth at the same time to remain about an hour and a half, taken out and rinsed in water. By this it is said, that blue cloth receives a good black, but white cloth becomes deep brown.

125. After the operations for dyeing have been finished, it is washed in a fulled, till the water runs off colorless. are recommended by some in fulling; but it is rather difficult to free the cloth from the soap. After the cloth has come from the fulling mill, some propose to give it a bath of weld, by which it is said to be and the color better fixed; but, as Lewis, this operation, which in other advantage, is useless after the cloth treated with the soap suds.

126. *Of Dyeing Silk Black.*—In obtaining a black color to silk, different operations are necessary, such as boiling, galling, re-vat, dyeing, and softening. To give shade to silk, it is necessary to deprive the gummy substance of which we have spoken. This is done by boiling it for hours with one-fifth of its weight of soda and afterwards beetling and carefully fulling it. The gummy substance, before which silk in its natural state contains, increase the strength of the silk, which is called raw; but renders it more liable to be taken out, from the stiffness it imparts to it: a raw silk takes a black color with more than silk which has been scoured or dissolved in gum, that black is much less perfect, and the re-actives calculated to dissolve the matter, in a much less forcible manner.

127. In the process of galling silk, fourths of its weight of galls are to be used for three or four hours, but the proportion depends on their quality. After the boiling, the liquor is allowed to remain at rest for two days, the silk is then put into the bath, and from twelve to thirty-six hours, when taken out, and washed in the river. It is capable of combining with a great quantity of the astringent principle, or tan, and receives a considerable increase of weight. It is allowed to remain for a longer or shorter time, the silk is required to have more or less weight. Hence to communicate to silk a heavy black, it is allowed to remain longer in the gall-liquor; the process is oftener, and the silk is dipped in the liquor a greater number of times.

128. While silk is preparing for dyeing, the vat is to be heated, and occasionally stirred, that the ground to the bottom may not acquire too much heat. It should always be kept under the temperature. Gum and solution of iron are used in different proportions, according to different processes. When the gum is dissolved in the liquor near the boiling temperature, it is to settle for about an hour. The silk is then to be previously divided into



which may be successively put into the vat, is immersed in it. Each part is then to be times wrung, and, after each wringing, up to air. The silk, being thus exposed to action of the air, acquires a deeper shade. Operation being finished, the bath is again, with the addition of gum and sulphate, and this is repeated two or three times, until as the black required is light or heavy. When the process is finished, the silk is rinsed in a vessel with some cold water, by turning or wringing it over.

3. Silk, after it has been taken out of the dye, is extremely harsh, to remove which it is subjected to the operation of softening. A solution of three or five pounds of soap for every 100 pounds of silk, is poured through a cloth into a tub of water. The solution being completed, the silk is immersed, and allowed to remain in it about fifteen minutes; it is then to be wrung out and dried.

4. When raw silk is to be dyed, that which has a natural yellow color is preferred. The dyeing operation must be performed in the cold, in order to preserve the whole of the gum, and the elasticity which it gives to the silk; but if only of it is wished to be preserved, the dyeing is to be performed in the warm vat.

5. The dyeing is also performed in the cold. What is necessary is to add the sulphate of iron to the water in which the stuff is rinsed. This simple process, the black dye is commended. It is then washed, beetled once or twice, and dried without wringing, that its elasticity may not be destroyed. Raw silk may be dyed by a more speedy process. After galling, the silk is to be turned or shaken over in the cold bath; thus by alternately dipping and airing the stuff, the operation may be completed. It is then to be washed and dried as before.

6. The method of dyeing velvet at Genoa, which has been simplified and improved in France, is thus described by Macquer. For every 100 pounds of silk, twenty pounds of Aleppo galls, reduced to powder, are boiled in a sufficient quantity of water for an hour. The liquor is allowed to settle till the galls have sunk to the bottom; they are then taken out, and two pounds and a half of sulphuric acid, and five pounds of iron filings, and twenty pounds of gum are put into a copper, pierced with holes in all directions. This vessel is suspended by means of two rods passed through cradles, in the boiler, but so as not to touch the bottom. The gum is left for an hour to dissolve, but must be stirred occasionally. If after one hour the gum has not all left the pierced copper, it is a proof that the liquor is saturated; but if, on the contrary, the whole has subsided, from two to four pounds more may be added. This cullender should remain constantly suspended in the boiler, except when the liquor is going on, during which time it must be raised. During these operations the boiler is kept hot, but not allowed to boil. The dyeing of the silk is performed with one-third of Aleppo galls. The silk is allowed to remain in the liquor for six hours the

first time; then for twelve; and for the rest, *secundum artem*.

133. Dr. Lewis remarks, that though white silk may be dyed a good black, without using either logwood or verdigris, the addition of those two ingredients contributes greatly to improve the color both in silk and in wool. But as the great use of galls in dyeing silk black renders it very expensive, it is of consequence to find some method of diminishing their quantity. M. Anglès proposes the following process:—When the silk has been carefully boiled and washed in the river, it is to be immersed in a strong decoction of green walnut-peels, and left in it till the color of the bath is exhausted. It is then taken out, slightly wrung, dried, and washed in the river. The decoction of walnut-peels is made by boiling a full quarter of an hour, when it is taken from the fire, and suffered to subside before dipping the silk, which has been previously immersed in warm water. A blue ground is next given by means of logwood and verdigris. For every pound of silk, an ounce of verdigris is dissolved in cold water: the silk is left in this solution two hours; it is then dipped in a strong decoction of logwood, wrung out slightly, and dried before it is washed at the river. For light blacks, galling may be altogether omitted; but for a heavy black, half a pound of galls must be employed for every pound of silk intended to be dyed. To prepare the liquor, two pounds of galls and three of sumach are macerated in twenty-five gallons of water over a slow fire, for twelve hours. After straining, three pounds of sulphate of iron, and as much gum arabic are dissolved in it. In this solution the silk is dipped at two different times, leaving it in two hours each time, taking care to air it after the first dipping, and to dry it before giving the second fire, when it is to be again aired and dried: it is then beetled twice at the river; after which a third fire is given it, in the same manner as before, except that it is left in the liquor four or five hours. When drained and dried, it is again beetled twice at the river. The heat during the operation must not exceed 120° of Fahrenheit's thermometer; and before the last two fires, an addition of half a pound of sulphate of iron and as much gum arabic is to be made.

For removing the harshness that silk acquires from the black dye, M. Anglès proposes that a decoction of weld should be preferred to a solution of soap; and observes that if silk be dyed blue with indigo, previous to its being dipped for black, it will take only a mealy black, but that a velvety black will be obtained, if it be prepared with logwood and verdigris; and that green walnut-peels soften the silk.

134. *Of Dyeing Cotton and Linen Black.*—To impart to cotton and linen a deep black dye that will resist the action of soap, is attended with considerable difficulty. Several methods have been proposed as improvements on the old process; the following, practised at Rouen, is thus described by M. d'Apligny. The stuffs are first dyed sky-blue in the usual manner, and are then wrung out and dried. After this they are galled for about twenty-four hours, allowing four ounces



of galls to every pound of stuff; they are then again wrung, and well dried.

The liquor, known among dyers by the name of the black cask, is then poured into a tub, five quarts for every pound of stuff, and in this the stuffs are worked by the hand, in small portions, for about a quarter of an hour, when they are again wrung out and dried. This operation is repeated twice; adding each time a fresh quantity of the black liquor, well scummed. After this it is again aired, wrung out, washed at the river, and dried carefully. For the finishing process, a pound of alder bark for every pound of stuff is boiled for an hour, in a sufficient quantity of water. About half the liquor that was used for the galling, and half as much sumach as alder bark are then added, and the whole boiled together for two hours, and then strained through a sieve. When the liquor is cold, the stuffs are worked through it for some time, occasionally airing them; after which they are suffered to remain immersed in it for twenty-four hours, when they are wrung out and dried.

For softening them, when dry, it is customary to soak and work them in the remains of a weld bath that has been used for other colors, adding to it a little logwood. From this they are taken out and wrung, and instantly put into a tub of warm water, into which has been poured an ounce of olive oil for every pound of stuff. They are then wrung out and dried carefully.

The same author has described another process for imparting to cotton and linen stuffs a fine and durable black. In this process the stuffs are first to be scoured as usual, galled, then alumed, and afterwards dipped in the weld bath. When taken out of this bath, they are to be dyed in a decoction of logwood, to which a quarter of a pound of sulphate of copper has been added for every pound of stuff. After this they must be washed in the river, wrung several times but not too hard; and dyed in a madder bath, in the proportion of half a pound to each pound of stuff. That the black may not be liable to be discharged, the thread must be dipped in a bath of a solution of soap.

135. The following method practised at Manchester is given by Mr. Wilson. A galling is made with galls or sumach; after which the stuff is dyed with the liquor of the bath, consisting of a solution of iron in vegetable acid, frequently composed of alder bark and iron, and then dipped in a decoction of logwood with a little verdigris. This process is repeated till a deep black is obtained; and it is necessary to wash and dry after each of these different operations.

136. Dr. Bancroft, says Berthollet, had announced that the acid of tar was employed at Manchester for black dyes on cotton. Chaptal, in his dyes, used pyrolignous acid; but to Bosc we owe the details of the operation by which he himself obtained a fine black by means of that acid.

137. Fill, says he, a cast-iron boiler with pyrolignous acid; add to it old iron, well oxidised, and boil. The solution of the oxide will take place rapidly. When the iron grows clean, and the solution becomes black as ink, throw the whole into a cask to be employed at need.

Prepare your cotton as usual, by giving it a light ground. Gall; turn the hanks of cotton through a bath of a solution of pyrolignite of iron, and luted with tepid water.

Renew the gallings, and the turnings through the bath of pyrolignite of iron, till you have obtained a deep and brilliant black. Finish by passing the cotton through olive oil. This operation is simple. Throw on some tepid water a little oil; pass the cotton through this bath; it absorbs the oil; but it must be worked for a long time in the bath to diffuse the oil equally. The process softens and gives suppleness to the cotton, as well as a great deal of brilliancy to the shade. The cottons are now of a perfect and very durable black. Every time the bath of pyrolignite of iron has been employed, it must be thrown away as useless, and the old baths are never to be added to the cask.

Bosc intimates, that the stuffs dyed by means of pyrolignous acid, retain, with much time, the odor of this acid, and that they must be exposed to the air for some time to rid them of it, before folding them up for packing.

The application of oil, which heightens the black, and imparts softness to the stuffs, is given to those which are woven, for example, to cotton velvet, by means of brushes, which are dipped and imbued with it at their surface.

Herrnstadt recommends a process of Vaugelas, which consists in making use for a mordant of a solution of nitrate of lead, in turning the stuff through a solution of glue, and in dyeing it in a bath composed of gall-nuts, logwood, and sulphate of iron, for which last the acetate may be substituted.

#### OF DYEING GRAY.

138. Gray colors are properly the shades of black from the deepest to the lightest. They may be produced in several ways; the two following are the most approved methods.

In the first method a decoction of bruised galls and a solution of sulphate of iron are used. These ingredients must be prepared separately, and then a part of it added to a quantity of water of a sufficient degree of heat, such as the hand can bear; and in this the cloth or wool is to be dipped.

When it has attained the shade desired, it is taken out, and more of the decoction and solution must be added to the same bath. Into this the cloth is dipped, to give it a deeper shade. In the same manner the operator proceeds to the deepest shades, always adding some of each of the liquors; though, for black-gray and other deep shades, it is best to give the cloth previously a blue ground, more or less deep according to circumstances.

139. The second process for dyeing gray, and which is, by Hellot and others, preferred to the preceding, in consequence of the stuff taking the decoction of galls more firmly, is this. Such a quantity of powdered galls as may be thought requisite is enclosed in a linen bag and boiled in water for two hours. In this decoction the stuffs must be boiled for an hour and then wrung out. Some solution of iron is then added to the



, and the stuff passed through it, so as to  
ce a light shade; more solution of iron is  
to be added to produce a deeper shade,  
so on till the stuff acquire the requisite

in this operation we go beyond the mark,  
olor must be darkened as before; but re-  
g these operations is prejudicial to the stuff,  
t we should endeavour to catch the proper  
at once, by taking it occasionally out of  
th. Care must be taken that the bath do  
il, and that it be rather warm than too hot.  
whatever manner grays are dyed, they  
be immediately washed in a large body  
er, and the darkest may even require soap  
anse them. It is sometimes required to  
rays a tint of another color, as a nut, agate,  
dish cast. In this case, having given a  
re or less blue according to the object in-  
th, the stuffs are dipped in the remains of  
ochineal liquor, that has served for dyeing  
scarlet or violet, adding galls, logwood,  
r, &c.; they are then browned more or less  
with a solution of iron. For the nut gray,  
wood and logwood are added to the galls,  
e stuff is to be dyed from white.

*Silk* takes all grays, except black-gray,  
it previous aluming. The bath is com-  
of fustic, logwood, archil, and sulphate  
n. These ingredients are varied accord-  
the tint to be given. Thus more archil  
ployed for grays that are to have a red-  
cast, more fustic for those that should  
to a russet or green, and more logwood  
se that are to be of a darker gray. For  
ray logwood and solution of iron are only  
yed. But black-gray requires aluming;  
which the silk is taken to the river, and  
lipped in the weld bath. A part of this  
is thrown away, and its place supplied with  
ed liquor. When the silk is impregnated  
his, a sufficient quantity of solution of iron  
ed, and, as soon as it has acquired the pro-  
ade, it is to be washed and wrung care-  
ly.

If the gray should happen to be too dark,  
lk is dipped in a solution of tartar, and  
rds in warm water; and, if by these means  
or be weakened too much, the silk is again  
d in a bath of dye that is quite fresh.

*Linen and Cotton* should have a blue  
d imparted to them for black-gray, iron-  
and slate-gray, but for no other. All the  
require a galling proportionate to the  
to be produced. Gall baths that have be-  
rved for other purposes are often employed.

the stuff has been galled, wrung, and  
it is dipped in a vessel of cold water, to  
is added a proper quantity of the bath  
be black cask, and of a decoction of log-

The stuff is worked in separate portions,  
erwards washed and dried properly. Two  
processes for dyeing gray are given by M.  
d'Apligny, which, according to him, pro-  
more permanent color. They are these.

yarn is galled, dipped in a very weak  
f the black cask, and then maddered:  
yarn is dipped in a very hot solution of  
wrung gently and dried. It is then dyed  
decoction of logwood. After this operation

it appears black; but, on working it attentively  
in warm soap suds, the surplus of the dye is  
discharged, and it remains of a durable slate-  
gray.

142. A process, says M. Berthollet, the suc-  
cess of which is known to us, consists in taking a  
very diluted solution of acetate of iron (it is suf-  
ficient to add a little of this acetate to a quantity  
of water), and a decoction of sumach, also very  
dilute. The cotton is passed in succession from  
one liquor to the other, till the wished for shade  
be attained. The finish is given by passing  
through a water slightly acidulated by sulphuric  
acid, otherwise the sumach gives a russet hue.  
By the same process may be obtained with nut-  
galls less lively grays; and the alder bark affords  
an agreeable one, which borders on hazel.

A skilful manufacturer of Rouen has commu-  
nicated to us the following process, which he  
makes use of successfully for cotton velvets. A  
galling is given with an equal quantity of gall-  
nuts and logwood, after which a bath of cold  
water is administered, and next another bath of  
water, in which there has been dissolved a weight  
of sulphate of iron, equal to the one-half of the  
preceding ingredients. After working the cotton  
about a quarter of an hour in this bath, it is rinsed  
in cold water, and brightened.

For this purpose a bath of tepid water is used,  
to which one-eightieth of decoction of weld, and  
a little alum, are added. The cotton is left  
about twenty minutes in this bath, after which  
it is washed in cold water, and dried.

By modifying the doses of the ingredients,  
grays, from pearl-gray to the deepest gray, may  
be thereby obtained.

For grays on printed goods, the same mordant  
is impressed as for a clear violet, and sumach or  
gall-nuts are employed according to the shade  
that is desired.

#### OF DYEING BLUE.

143. *Of Dyeing Wool Blue.*—There are va-  
rious processes employed for dyeing wool, silk,  
&c., of blue color, but the principal coloring  
matters made use of are indigo and woad. Archil,  
cochineal, turmeric, and logwood, are occa-  
sionally used as auxiliaries. Prussian blue also  
has, in some cases, been successfully employed  
in producing some very beautiful but fugitive  
shades of blue.

The vessels in which blue is dyed are called  
vats; they were formerly made of wood; in many  
instances they are still constructed of that material;  
lead, however, has been found superior, and  
in modern practice, cast iron is generally used.  
When the vat is made of wood, the liquor must  
be raised to the requisite heat in another vessel,  
and then transferred to it, a process attended  
with many inconveniences; when made of lead  
it is surrounded with brick work, of a single  
brick in thickness, which admits of a fire being  
placed under it for the purpose of warming the  
liquor.

144. Some dyers make use of iron vats which  
are warmed by steam, applied to the exterior of  
the vat; but the more common method is to use  
a vessel of cast iron, and to apply a gentle fire  
under it as occasion may require



Before the introduction of indigo, blue was dyed with woad, this produced a color which was tolerably permanent, but rather faint; a very rich blue however is now obtained by the union of the two substances. The proportions in which these are used, vary according to the depth of shade required. The following is the process of preparing a vat as given by Quatremere.

145. Into a vat of about seven feet and a half deep, and five and a half in diameter, are thrown two bales of pastel or woad, previously broken, and together about 400 pounds weight; thirty pounds of weld are boiled in a copper for three hours, in a sufficient quantity of water, to fill the vat. To this decoction are added twenty pounds of madder and a basket of bran. The boiling is then continued half an hour longer. This bath is cooled with twenty buckets of water, and after it is settled, and the weld taken out, it is poured into the vat, which must be stirred with a rake all the time that it is running in, and for fifteen minutes longer.

146. The vat is then covered, and allowed to stand for six hours, when it is uncovered, and raked again for half an hour. The same operation must be repeated every three hours. When the appearance of blue streaks is perceived on the surface, eight or nine pounds of quick lime are added; the color then becomes of a deeper blue, and the vat exhales more pungent vapors. Immediately after the lime, or along with it, the indigo, which has been previously ground in a mill, with a small quantity of water, is put into the vat. The quantity is to be regulated by the intensity of the shade required. If, on striking the vat with a rake, a fine blue scum arises, no other preparation is required than to stir it with the rake twice in the space of six hours, to mix the ingredients completely. Great care should be taken not to expose the vat to the air, except during the time of stirring it.

147. Vats of this description are sometimes liable to accidents. A vat is said to be repelled, when, having previously afforded fine shades of blue, it appears black, without any blue streaks; and if on being stirred the black color becomes deeper, the vat at the same time exhales a pungent odor; and the stuff dyed in it comes out of a dirty gray color. These effects are ascribed to an excess of lime.

148. Different means are employed to recover a repelled vat. Some merely reheat it; while others add tartar, bran, urine, or madder. Hellot recommends bran and madder as the best remedy. If the excess of lime be not very great, it is sufficient to leave it at rest five or six hours, putting in a quantity of bran and three or four pounds of madder, which are to be sprinkled on the surface, and then it is to be covered up, and after a certain interval to be tried again. But if the vat has been so far repelled as to afford a blue only when it is cold, it must be left at rest to recover, and sometimes must remain whole days without being stirred with the rake.

149. When it begins to assume a tolerable pattern, the bath must be reheated. In general this revives the fermentation; or it may be excited with bran and madder, and even with a basket or two of fresh pastel.

Hecquet d'Orval and Ribacourt are satisfied without raking up, if the vat be slightly thrown back; but if the vat be more progress, to put into it some bran enclosed in a bag, and to diffuse it at the same time three or four pounds in powder. The bag, after five or six hours begins to float and is withdrawn, and is used. If the vat be not yet restored, the operation is repeated.

Quatremere says, that he has re-used a vat which he had thrown back by a small quantity of lime; and that for this effect he contented himself with heating twice, and leaving it in repose for two days, after which it well characterised flower or bloom. He again in repose for three days; and having used it for the third time, he found it restored.

150. The second accident, to which a vat is subject, is putrefaction. When it occurs, the veins and the bloom of the vat become russet, the paste which rises up, the smell becomes fetid.

Quatremere asserts, that, if a pattern of blue be plunged into a vat thus deteriorated, the color becomes several shades lighter. The operation takes place in a vat, because it is sufficiently furnished with lime. When marks of putrefaction appear, we must correct it, by adding lime and raking the vat; the operation must be repeated till the vat is restored; but great care is required to avoid opposite extreme.

It appears, adds M. Berthollet, that the distribution of lime is the object which most attention in the conduct of a vat moderates the fermentation of the paste, the other substances that serve to dye the indigo; for this effect, pushed to excess, it destroys the coloring particles. But too great an action of the lime becomes too great. It is therefore proper to wait till the lime disappears, undoubtedly by the formation of carbonic acid, or the so-called fermentation must be increased, or the lime be saturated by a vegetable acid. The use of the lime is to hold in solution the particles of indigo and of the paste, and to disoxygenate. Woad is employed as pastel, but it appears that the preparation, to which both are subject, is essential. We have seen a skilful dyer employ for his vat the plant of woad dried; and assert that he derived more from it than from ordinary woad.

151. The vat must be raked about before dyeing, and to prevent the sediment paste, from occasioning inequalities in a kind of lattice formed of large cords cross, is introduced; and when woad is dyed in the fleece, a net with small squares is placed over this.

The wool or cloth being thoroughly washed with clear water, a little warm is put and dipped into the vat, where it is left for a longer or shorter time, according to the shade required to be more or less deep, and is occasionally to air. The action of the



to change the green color given by the a blue. In a rich bath it is difficult to uniform color to light blues: the best method of obtaining such shades, therefore, is to use a richly exhausted, and of a low temperature. Indigo cloth dyed blue, should be washed with great care, to carry off the particles not fixed on the wool, and those which are of a somewhat blue, ought even to be carefully cleansed, with soap, which does not alter the color. Those designed to be dyed black, ought to be treated in the same manner; but it is not necessary for those which are to be green, to be prepared.

The indigo vat is that which contains no pastel nor woad. The vessel used for its preparation is a copper, which, being of a circular figure, leaves between it and the brick-work a narrow space, and on which its brim rests, an empty space sufficient to admit of the heat of the fire. Into this copper are poured forty pails of water, in which have been dissolved six pounds of salt of tartar, twelve ounces of madder, and six pounds of bran. This liquor is put into the vat, grounds and all: six pounds of indigo ground in water are then to be added, and after raking it carefully the vat is covered. A slow fire is to be kept up till twelve hours after it is filled, it is to be added a second time; and so on every twelve hours till it become blue, which it will be in eight hours. If the bath be well managed, it will be of a fine green, covered with copper scales, and have a blue scum or flower at the top.

It may be observed, that the theory of the indigo is the same as that of the foregoing, except that the indigo is here dissolved by alkali instead of lime. When this vat, which is much more easily managed than that of pastel, is in a state, it may be used for dyeing in the same manner as that described above.

M. Hellot describes two vats in which indigo is dissolved by urine. Madder is to be put into it, and in the one vinegar, in the other tartar, of each a weight equal to that of indigo. The quantity of urine ought to be considerable. The solution of indigo, de-oxidized by the urine and madder in solution, is due to the ammonia formed in the urine, either by the action of heat or fermentation.

Hellot remarks, that an effervescence takes place on pouring in the solution of alum into the vat, which probably tends to stop the action. These vats are by no means comparable with those of pastel, or indigo; much work being despatched by them; so that they are adapted only for small dye-houses.

*Of Dyeing Silk Blue.*—Silk is dyed blue with indigo alone, without any proportion of woad. The proportion of indigo mentioned in the preparation of the indigo vat, and sometimes a larger, may be used, with six pounds of bran, and about six ounces of madder. According to Macquer, a pound of madder for each pound of potassa, renders the vat greener, and produces a more brilliant color in the silk. When the vat is come to the proper state, it may be refreshed with two pounds of potassa, or one or four ounces of madder; and, after being slaked, in the course of four hours it is fit

for dyeing. The temperature should be so moderated that the hand may be held in it.

155. The silk, after being boiled with soap, in the proportion of thirty pounds of soap to 100 of silk, and well cleaned by repeated beetlings in a stream of water, must be dyed in small portions. When it has been turned once, or oftener, in the bath, it is wrung out and exposed to the air, that the green color may change to a blue. When the change is complete, it is thrown into clear water, and afterwards wrung out. Silk dyed blue should be speedily dried. In damp weather, and in winter, it is necessary to conduct the drying in a chamber heated by a stove. The silk should be hung on a frame kept constantly in motion. To dye light shades, some employ vats that are nearly exhausted: but it ought to be observed, that the color thus obtained is less beautiful and less permanent than when fresh vats, containing a smaller quantity of indigo, are employed.

156. Some addition is required to be made to the indigo, to give silk a deep blue. A previous preparation is necessary, by giving it another color or ground. For the Turkey blue, which is the deepest, a strong bath of archil is first prepared. Cochineal is also sometimes used, instead of archil, for the ground, to render the color more permanent. A blue is given to silk by means of verdigris and logwood, but possesses little durability. It might be rendered more permanent, by giving it a lighter shade in this bath, then dipping it in a bath of archil, and, lastly, in the indigo vat.

157. When raw silk is to be dyed blue, such as is naturally white should be selected. Being previously soaked in water, it is put into the bath in separate hanks, as already directed for scoured silks; and, as raw silk combines more readily with the coloring matter, the scoured silk, when it can be conveniently done, should be first put into the bath. If archil, or any of the other ingredients, are required to give more intensity to the color, the mode of application is the same as that directed for scoured silk.

There are various other methods of conducting this part of dyeing, described by M. d'Apligny, Quatremere, Bergman, Scheffer, &c., which we omit as not being of material importance to the practical dyer.

158. *Of Dyeing Cotton and Linen Blue.*—In communicating the blue color to these substances, the principal ingredient employed is indigo; but Prussian blue has been found to answer extremely well. According to Le Pileur d'Apligny, says M. Berthollet, the vat for dyeing cotton and linen is capable of holding about 120 gallons. The quantity of indigo employed is usually from six to eight pounds, finely ground, and boiled in a lee drawn off from double its weight of potassa, with a quantity of lime equal in weight to the indigo. During the boiling, which is to be continued till the indigo is thoroughly penetrated with the lee, the solution must be constantly stirred, to prevent the indigo from being injured by adhering to the bottom of the vessel.

159. During this process, another quantity of quick-lime, equal to the indigo, is to be slaked. Twenty quarts of warm water are added, in which



is to be dissolved a quantity of sulphate of iron, equal to twice the weight of the lime. The solution being completed, it is poured into the vat, which is previously half filled with water. To this the solution of indigo is added, with that part of the lie which was not employed in the boiling. The vat must now be filled up nearly to the top. It must be raked twice or thrice every day till it is completely prepared, which is generally the case in forty-eight hours, and sometimes sooner, as it depends on the temperature of the atmosphere. A small proportion of bran, madder, and woad, is recommended by some to be added to this vat.

160. The process which is followed at Rouen, and described by Quatremere, is more simple. The vats, which are constructed of a kind of flint, are coated within and without with fine cement, and are arranged in one or more parallel lines. Each vat contains four hogsheds of water. The indigo, to the amount of eighteen or twenty pounds, being macerated for a week in a caustic lie, strong enough to bear an egg, is ground in a mill; three hogsheds and a half of water are put into the vat, and afterwards twenty pounds of lime. The lime being thoroughly slaked, the vat is raked, and thirty-six pounds of copperas are added; and, when the solution is complete, the ground indigo is poured in through a sieve. It is raked seven or eight times the same day, and, after being left at rest for thirty-six hours, it is in a state fit for dyeing.

161. In extensive manufactories, it is necessary to have vats set at different times. In conducting the process of dyeing, the stuffs are first dipped in the most exhausted vat, and then regularly proceeding from the weakest to the strongest, if they have not previously attained the desired shade. The stuffs should remain in the bath only about five or six minutes, for in that time they combine with all the coloring matter they can take up. After they have been dipped in a vat, it should not be used again till it has been raked, and stood at least twenty-four hours, unless it has been lately set, when a shorter period is sufficient.

162. After the stuffs have been dipped three or four times in a vat, it becomes black, and no blue or copper-colored streaks are seen on the surface after raking it. It must then be renewed, by adding four pounds of copperas with two of quicklime, after which it must be raked twice. In this way a vat may be renewed three or four times; but the additional quantity of ingredients must be diminished as the strength of the vat is exhausted.

163. A vat which is still more simple and more easily prepared, has been recommended by Bergman. The proportion of the ingredients which he has directed to be employed is the following:—To three drachms of indigo reduced to powder, three drachms of copperas, and three of lime, add two pints of water. Let it be well raked, and in the course of a few hours it will be in a proper state for dyeing.

164. Haussmann employs a still less proportion of indigo. For about 500 gallons of water he takes thirty-six pounds of quick-lime, slaked in about twenty-five gallons of water, with which

the indigo is to be mixed in the proportion from ten to twenty pounds, well ground, then dissolves thirty pounds of sulphate of iron in about fifteen gallons of water. The vat is left at rest for fifteen minutes; the vat is then filled, and gently and constantly stirred. If a deeper shade is wanted, and particularly if the linen is to be dyed, the proportion of iron should be greater; but the shade depends much on the time the stuffs remain in the vat, and the times it has been used. When the vat becomes turbid, the process of dyeing is interrupted, till it has been again raked. The supernatant liquor becomes transparent. When the effects of the lime fail, a new quantity of iron is added; and, if the iron cease to produce its effect on the indigo, a new portion of copperas is added, observing to have a greater quantity of lime than is necessary to saturate the acid.

165. When the indigo appears to become exhausted, fresh portions are to be added; the vat is raked several times, and allowed to stand till it is again fit for use. In this process, Haussmann says he preserved a vat for many years; and had it not been for the accumulation of sediment, which prevented the stuffs from being immersed to a sufficient depth, the process would have been continued in use for a much longer time. It is proper to add, that Mr. Haussmann found, that a pattern of cloth dipped in the vat acidulated with sulphuric acid, immediately after it was taken out of the bath, became of a deeper blue than a similar pattern exposed to air, or another dipped in river water.

166. A remarkably fine blue is produced by a solution of indigo in sulphuric acid, the name of Saxon blue is given, from the circumstance of its having been discovered at Senhain in Saxony, by counsellor Barth, in the year 1740.

167. The following, according to Haussmann, is the process of preparing this dye by the use of sulphuric acid.

He employed one part of indigo to eight parts of acid, keeping the mixture in a temperature between 86° and 104° of Fahrenheit, and reckoned that one part of indigo, thus dissolved, was sufficient to give a deep blue color to ten times its weight of wool. Poerner used one part of indigo to four of sulphuric acid. To the wool or cloth for this bath, it is first dipped in a solution of alum and tartar. The wool receives the finest as well as fullest color during the first immersion; but lighter, though duller shades may be given to other portions by the same bath, when partially exhausted. The deeper shades are advantageously given by adding the solution of indigo to the bath, in successive portions, raising the stuffs on the winch previously to each addition.

#### OF DYEING RED.

168. Red colors are known by different names, according to their degrees of intensity, as scarlet, &c., besides innumerable shades of red under no particular denomination. The substances usually employed in dyeing red are cochineal, madder, kermes, lac, carthamus, sil-wood, archil, and logwood. All these



s which give a red color, are Dr. Bancroft *adjective* colors, from the aid of mordants to give them

*ing Wool Red.*—When woollen dyed, they are first boiled for two with alum and tartar: they are in, slightly wrung out, put into a carried into a cool place, where in for some days. The quantities of the alum and tartar are varied the object of the dyer, and the shade is wanted. Some recommend alum, and one ounce of tartar to wool. By increasing the proportion a certain degree, a deep and person color is produced. This arises the tinge induced by the acid on articles of the madder. Others wish the proportion of tartar, and seventh part. In conducting the ing with madder, the bath should to a boiling heat, because, at that e fawn-colored particles would be a different shade obtained from esired. When the water is at such as the hand can bear, Hellot re-addition of half a pound of grape y pound of wool to be dyed. It ell stirred before the wool is in- must remain for an hour with- cepting for a few minutes towards process, that the combination of rticles with the stuff may be more

reds are sometimes rosed, as it is hil and Brasil wood. In this way ore beautiful and velvety, but is not permanent. But madder n at best, are far inferior to those lac and cochineal, and even to by kermes; but, as the expense is comparatively small, they are orse stuffs.

nt authors recommend different madder. Poerner proposes to d of the weight of the wool, while the quantity to one-fourth. Poerne alum and tartar a quantity of equal in weight to the tartar, and, boiling, allowed the cloth to reh, which had been left to cool for ys. He then dyed it in the usual ned a fine red. On another occa- ed the cloth by the common boil- it in a bath slightly heated, with tion of madder, tartar, and solu- e cloth remained twenty-four hours d, when it had become cold, he her bath, made with madder only, ned for twenty-four hours. By got a fine red, somewhat brighter on, but inclining a little to yellow. at he obtained an orange red by h a solution of tin, and one-fourth then dyeing with one-fourth of erry color, says Bergman, is ob- one part of a solution of tin, and r, without previously boiling the

wool. By exposure to the air, this color becomes deeper. By boiling the wool for two hours with one-fourth of sulphate of iron, then washing it, and afterwards immersing it in cold water with one-fourth of madder, and boiling it again for an hour, the result is a coffee color. But if the wool has not been soaked, and if it be dyed with one part of sulphate of iron and two of madder, the color is a brown approaching to red.

172. When sulphate of copper is employed as the mordant, the madder dye yields a clear brown, inclining to yellow; and a similar color may be produced by dyeing the wool simply soaked in hot water, with one part of sulphate of copper, and two of madder. But when this mordant and dye-stuff are used in equal proportions, the yellow is somewhat more obscure, inclining to green; and in both these instances, exposure to the air does not produce a darker color. Berthollet says that he employed a solution of tin in various ways, both in the preparation and the application of the madder; and, by the use of different solutions of tin, he found that, although the tint was a little brighter than what is obtained by the common process, it was always more inclined to yellow or fawn color.

173. *Of Dyeing Silk Red.*—The red color obtained from madder has not been found of sufficient brilliancy for dyeing silks; M. De la Folie, however, has given the following process for employing it for this purpose:—Half a pound of alum is to be dissolved in each quart of hot water, to which two ounces of potassa are to be added; after the effervescence is over, and the liquor has begun to grow clear, the silk must be soaked in it for two hours; it is then to be washed and put into the madder bath. Silk dyed in this way, he says, becomes more beautiful by the application of the soap proof. Another process is described by Mr. Gulichie, of which the following is the substance.—

174. For every pound of silk he proposes a bath of four ounces of alum, and one ounce of solution of tin. When the liquor has become clear, it is decanted, and the silk carefully soaked in it for twelve hours, after which it is to be immersed in a bath with half a pound of madder softened by boiling, with an infusion of galls in white wine. The bath must be kept moderately hot for an hour, and then made to boil for two minutes. The silk, being taken from the bath, is to be washed in a stream of water, and dried in the sun. The color thus produced is said to be very permanent; and, if the galls are omitted, its brilliancy is improved.

175. The color obtained when Brasil-wood is used, is denominated *false crimson*, to distinguish it from that produced by cochineal, which is much more durable, and which is styled *grain crimson*. This very beautiful color is obtained by the following process:—The silk, being well cleansed from the soap, is to be immersed in an alum bath of the full strength, and to remain for a night. It is then to be washed, and twice beetled at the river. The bath is prepared by filling a long boiler two-thirds with water, to which are added, when it boils, from half an ounce to two ounces of powdered white galls for every pound of silk. When it has boiled for a few moments, from two



to three ounces of cochineal, also powdered and sifted, for every pound of silk, are put in, and afterwards one ounce of tartar to every pound of cochineal. When the tartar is dissolved, one ounce of solution of tin is added for every ounce of tartar. In the preparation of this solution of tin, the following proportions are recommended by Macquer. For every pound of nitric acid two ounces of sal ammoniac, six ounces of fine grain tin, and twelve ounces of water are employed. When these ingredients are mixed together, the boiler is to be filled up with cold water, and the proportion of the bath, for every pound of silk, is about eight or ten quarts of water. In this the silk is immediately immersed, and turned on the winch till it appear to be of a uniform color. The fire is then increased, and the bath is kept boiling for two hours, observing to turn the silk occasionally. The fire is afterwards put out, and the silk put into the bath, where it is allowed to remain for a few hours longer. It is then taken out, washed at the river, twice beetled, wrung, and dried.

176. Carthamus, says M. Berthollet, is used for dyeing silk poppy, a bright orange red, cherry, rose color, and flesh color. The process differs according to the greater or less tendency to flame color that is wanted. The following is his account of the preparation of the carthamus bath: The yellow matter of the carthamus having been first extracted, the cakes containing the red coloring matter are broken down and put into a trough of fir-wood, where they are several times sprinkled with finely powdered soda in the proportion of six pounds of soda to every hundred pounds of carthamus. The whole is then put into a small trough lined with closely woven cloth, and having a grated bottom; this small trough is then placed over the larger one, and water is poured on the mixture till the larger trough is full. Fresh water is poured over the carthamus and suffered to run into another trough, and so on successively, adding a little fresh soda till all the red color is extracted. These liquors are then mixed, and lemon-juice is added to give a fine cherry color, which the liquor imparts to the silk that is dipped in it. Poppy-color, given in this way, requires that the silk be immersed in a second bath, and that the colors be brightened by turning the silk several times through a bath of hot water impregnated with lemon-juice. The lighter hues of red are given by the weaker solutions of carthamus, and the lightest shades require the addition of a little soap. In dyeing silk with carthamus the silk, after being scoured, should, for poppy or fire color, receive a ground of annatto. The carthamus bath should be prepared at the time of using, and the process of dyeing should be conducted as speedily as possible.

177. Those who have made the nearest approach towards producing a scarlet on silk, says Berthollet, begin with dyeing the silk crimson. It is then dyed with carthamus, and after that dyed yellow in a cold bath. By this process a fine color is produced, but it is not permanent, as the dye of the carthamus is affected by the action of the air. The following is the process given by Dr. Bancroft in his Philosophy of

Permanen sulphate o of water, and, after partially d prepared of quercit ing to sea body, the solution o brightness the additi is produc and dyeir by adding chineal, a changes t color.'

178. C Madder is red, and lars, by r coloring ing. It i detail, th may be and diver color of cotton: with the

179. T are distir der red, is called cause it Levant.

Vogler the subst dyeing b duced th other ani of soda r Galling l astringen instance, kali adde stuff has operation der that three-qu stuff.

The t raised in about an mersed minutes, and dye the same dyeing, stuff is c soap, m two oun effect of bined c give a l mains. drying.

180. madder,



most beautiful: it possesses a brilliancy which can be communicated to cotton by none of the common processes of dyeing, and has, moreover, the property of more effectually resisting the action of the different re-agents, as alkalis, alum, and acids. For many years the use of this color was confined to the east, and was to us through our Levant trade only. In the course of time the art found its way from India to the western parts of Asia, and to Greece; and from Greece to France, whence it was brought to this country by one of the French dyers, M. Papillon, who settled at Glasgow, where, for a considerable time, he carried on with great success the business of dyeing Turkey-red.

M. Papillon communicated his process to the commissioners and trustees for manufactures in Scotland, to be by them published at the expiration of a certain term of years. For this he received a handsome premium; and his process was made public in the year 1803. We need hardly mention the celebrity of the factory of Messrs. Monteith and Co. of Glasgow, since it is known to the world at large. The excellency and beauty of their cotton fabrics will not soon be surpassed; the madder-which they dye rival, in brilliancy and intensity, any ever produced at Adrianople; and the faint figures, distributed over the cloth by the discharging process, surpass in purity, elegance, and precision of outline, the original Ban-outlines.

The art of dyeing Turkey-red has been described by different writers, who vary a little each other in some particulars, but who all agree in the leading features of the process. We are inserting here the account of it as given by Mr. Bancroft, as it affords us an opportunity of showing it up by the insertion of some of the valuable remarks upon the subject in the process observed at Rouen in France.

The process is very tedious, and is divided by the French into nine different steps.

Step 1. Cleaning. For 100 pounds of cotton require an equal weight of Alicante barilla, twenty-five pounds of pearl-ashes, and 100 pounds of quick-lime.

The barilla must be mixed with soft water in a deep tub, which has a small hole near the bottom of it, stopped at first with a peg. The hole is covered in the inside with a cloth supported by two bricks, that the ashes may be strained from passing through it or stopping it while the lie filters through it.

Under this tub is another to receive the lie; pure water is repeatedly passed through the tub to form lies of different strength, which are kept separate at first until their strength is ascertained. The strongest required for use must be as strong as an egg, and is called the lie of six degrees on the French hydrometer, or peseliqueur. The other are afterwards brought to this strength, by passing them through fresh barilla. But a small quantity of the weak, which is of 2° on the French hydrometer, is reserved for dissolving oil and gum, and the salt, which are used in the subsequent parts of the process. This lie of 2° is called the weak barilla liquor, the other is called the strong.

Dissolve the pearl-ashes in ten pails, of four gallons each, of soft water, and the lime in fourteen pails.

Let all the liquors stand till they become quite clear, and then mix ten pails of each.

Boil the cotton in the mixture five hours, then wash it in running water and dry it.

Step 2. Take a sufficient quantity, say ten pails (of four gallons each), of the strong barilla water in a tub, and dissolve or dilute in it two pails full of sheep's dung; then pour into it two quart-bottles of oil of vitriol, and one pound of gum arabic, and one pound of sal ammoniac, both previously dissolved in a sufficient quantity of the weak barilla water, and lastly, twenty-five pounds of olive oil, which has been previously dissolved or well mixed with two pails of the weak barilla water.

The materials of this steep being well mixed, tramp or tread down the cotton into it, until it is well soaked; let it steep twenty-four hours, and then wring it hard and dry it.

Steep it again twenty-four hours, and again wring and dry it.

Steep it a third time twenty-four hours, after which wring and dry it, and lastly wash it well and dry it.

Step 3. This part of the process is precisely the same with the last, except that the sheep's dung is omitted in the composition of the steep.

Step 4. Boil twenty-five pounds of galls, bruised, in ten pails of river water, until four or five are boiled away; strain the liquor into a tub, and pour cold water on the galls in the strainer, to wash out of them all their tincture.

As soon as the liquor is become milk-warm, dip your cotton hank by hank, handling it carefully all the time, and let it steep twenty-four hours.

Then wring it carefully and equally, and dry it well without washing.

Step 5. Dissolve twenty-five pounds of Roman alum in fourteen pails of warm water, without making it boil; skim the liquor well, and add two pails of strong barilla water, and then let it cool until it be lukewarm.

Dip the cotton, and handle it hank by hank, and let it steep twenty-four hours, and wring it equally and dry it well without washing.

Step 6. Is performed in every particular like the last; but after the cotton is dry, you steep it six hours in the river, and wash and dry it.

Step 7. The cotton is dyed by about ten pounds at once, for which take two gallons and a half of ox blood, and mix it in the copper with twenty-eight pails of milk-warm water, and stir it well; then add twenty-five pounds of madder, and stir all well together. Then, having beforehand put the ten pounds of cotton on sticks, dip it into the liquor, and move and turn it constantly one hour, during which you gradually increase the heat, until the liquor begin to boil at the end of the hour. Then sink the cotton, and boil it gently one hour longer; and, lastly, wash it and dry it.

Take out so much of the boiling liquor, that what remains may produce a milk-warm heat with the fresh water with which the copper is again filled up, and then proceed to make up a



dyeing liquor as above, for the next ten pounds of cotton.

Step 8. Mix equal parts of the gray steep liquor, and of the white steep liquor, taking five or six pails of each. Tread down the cotton into this mixture, and let it steep six hours, then wring it moderately and equally, and dry it without washing.

Step 9. Ten pounds of white soap must be dissolved most carefully and most completely in sixteen or eighteen pails of warm water; if any little bits of the soap remain undissolved they will make spots in the cotton. Add four pails of strong barilla water, and stir it well. Sink your cotton in this liquor, keeping it down with cross sticks, and cover it up and boil it gently two hours, then wash and dry it, and it is finished.

Such is the process of M. Papillon, on which Dr. Bancroft makes the following observations.

Step 1. At Rouen two courses of operations are practised to produce the Turkey-red. One is called the gray course, and the other the yellow course. In the former, the cotton, after being alumed, receives no more oil, but goes to the dyeing vessel, retaining the gray color, which naturally results from its being impregnated with alum and galls in combination. But, in the yellow course, the cotton, after being alumed, is again immersed in the oleaginous mixtures or steeps, by which it acquires a yellow color. The gray course may consist either of fifteen steeps or of nineteen, and the yellow of twenty. The first of these courses has most similitude to that of M. Papillon. At Rouen, the cleansing operation is performed with a very weak lie of soda, of only one degree of the areometer, employing 150 gallons to 100 pounds of cotton, which is to be boiled therein six hours, then drained, well rinsed in running water, and afterwards dried. This operation is intended to free the cotton from all impure or extraneous matter; but not to produce effects like those of bleaching by exposure upon the grass, which, until lately, it was believed, would lessen the durability of the colors to be subsequently dyed.

Step 2. The steep here described contains three ingredients not employed by any other person; and one of these, the sulphuric acid, seems to indicate a want of chemical knowledge in M. Papillon, because, by neutralising the soda, it must obstruct the effect which the latter is intended to produce (that of rendering the oil miscible with water), or at least render a greater proportion of it necessary in order to obtain that effect. In regard to the other two ingredients, viz. the gum and sal ammoniac, the quantity of the former is by much too small to produce any considerable effect, and it is not easy to form any conjecture what purpose the latter is to answer. At Rouen, this steep is prepared by steeping twenty-five or thirty pounds of sheep's dung several days in a lie of soda, marking four degrees, which is to be diluted until it amounts to forty gallons; and the dung being squeezed and broken by the hands, is afterwards made to pass through a copper pan, provided with numerous small holes, into a tub containing twelve pounds and a half of fat oil, and in this the oil and dung

are, by sufficient stirring, to be well mixed together; and, in the mixture, which contains but half the quantity of soda described by M. Papillon, the cotton is steeped, &c., as directed by the latter. It is highly important that, after this and the succeeding operations, the cotton be thoroughly and completely dried by a stove heat.

Step 3. At Rouen this steep is prepared by mixing thirty-eight gallons of lie of soda with ten pounds of olive oil, stirring until it becomes uniformly milky; which is done without any separation of the oil, if the quantity of the oil be suited to this use; this is what may have been left of the former steep, and, after mixing them properly, the cotton is steeped in the usual treatment, after an interval of twelve hours, first in air, and afterwards by a stove heat. The drying and subsequent drying must be done once, twice, or three times, according to the stances.

Between this white steep and the gray steep, it is the practice at Rouen to perform three salt steeps and one cleansing operation. The first, twenty-four gallons of the lie of soda, marking two degrees and a half, are added to the tub with the remnant of the white steep; the cotton is impregnated and dried as in the former operations. In the next steep, the last steep is mixed with twenty gallons of soda, marking three degrees, and the cotton is steeped and dried as before. The remnant of the preceding steep is mixed with twenty-four gallons of the lie of soda, marking three degrees and a half, and with this is impregnated and dried as before. The remnant of this steep is preserved to be used in the brightening operation.

In the cleansing operation, the cotton is steeped one hour in lukewarm water, and wrung by hand, and afterwards washed in a stream of water to remove any superfluous matter which might obstruct the equal application of the following galls, thereby render the color unequal. After so washed, the cotton is dried first in air, and afterwards by a stove-heat.

Step 4. This constitutes the eighth steep in the gray course at Rouen, where, in M. Papillon's process, galls, in the present state, are now to be employed. At Rouen, the cotton, soon as it has sufficiently imbibed the matter of the galls, and been very thoroughly wrung, is spread as expeditiously as possible in the open air, if the weather be dry, and covered; but the drying is always by a stove heat.

Step 5. At Rouen, thirty or thirty-five pounds of the purest alum are commonly used in this steep, with only seven pails of water, adding, when the alum has been dissolved, twenty gallons only of the lie of soda, marking three degrees. But when these proportions are employed, the cotton is not subjected to the steep with alum. Sometimes, however, two steeps with the aluminous mordant are employed; and in that case twenty pounds are dissolved for the first, and fifteen for the second.



leaving an interval of two days between drying which the cotton should retain its shape after being slightly wrung from the press. It should, however, be well dried before it goes into the second.

6. At Rouen, the cotton is dyed in parties of twenty-five pounds each, and the dyeing is of a quadrangular form, containing about 100 gallons of liquor. One quart of ox-blood is added for each pound of cotton, with two pounds of Provence madder, or one pound of this of Smyrna madder. Some persons, however, think it best to effect the dyeing by alternate operations, employing half the above quantity of madder for one dyeing, and half the other; but always taking care not to dry the cotton between the dyeings. There are some persons who give cotton another alum steep between these dyeing operations, employing for the second steep half as much alum as was used for the first steep, and afterwards washing, &c.

8. For this steep they employ at Rouen the second alum of the third salt-steep before mentioned, but the application of it is considered as the following step.

9. This constitutes the fourteenth operation—the first set of gray courses at Rouen; after having macerated the cotton with water, they boil it for the space of five hours with six or eight pounds of white soap previously dissolved in 145 gallons of water in a vessel covered at the top, so as to leave only a very small opening for the escape of the steam, which might otherwise occasion an explosion. The effect of this boiling is to dissolve and separate from the cotton all the yellowish-brown matter of the color which may have been applied to it in the first dyeing operation, and thus to change the color from the dull brownish-red which it would otherwise retain, to a bright lively color, nearly equal to that of the finest cochineal scarlet. It is by the singular degree of fixity which the color part of the madder acquires, in consequence of the operations just described, that so beautiful a red can be obtained. Such is the stability of the Turkey-red when dyed, that it is said to sustain boiling with water for thirty-six hours without injury.

In addition to the steps prescribed by Mr. Thomson, they employ another at Rouen, which is added to make the red incline more to the orange, and at the same time increase its value.

For this operation, with the former quantity of 100 pounds of cotton they dissolve 100 gallons of water, sixteen or eighteen pounds of white soap, and as soon as the liquor is brought to boil, they add to it from one pound half to two pounds of the crystallised madder, previously dissolved in two quarts of water and mixed with eight ounces of single alum; and having equally dispersed this through the boiling solution of soap, by stirring, &c., the cotton is put in and boiled with the same precautions as in the brightening operation. The desired effect has been obtained, and is to be discovered by frequent examination. Care must be taken not to employ more than one or two aqua-fortis than the quantity here

mentioned, lest it should decompose the soap, and cause the oil to separate and rise to the surface of the liquor.

183. We cannot leave this truly important branch of dyeing without noticing the ingenious remarks of Mr. Thomson of Glasgow, published in the eighth volume of the *Annals of Philosophy*, on the theory of the Turkey-red process.

He observes that silk and worsted have a natural varnish which cotton does not possess. To supply this defect, the repeated immersions, followed by exposure to the atmosphere, and to the heated air of a stove, may give the oil the proper consistency, by the absorption of oxygen, for forming a varnish, with which the coloring matter unites, and through which it may be said to shine, which causes that superior brilliancy which the goods attain when they are cleared, or, as it may be called, polished. I therefore presume, that the fixedness and brilliancy of the color will depend on the quantity of oil imbibed, as every repetition of drying presents new fibres to be varnished with an additional quantity; for I have always found, that the permanency was in proportion to the number of manipulations in the saponaceous liquor, and a proportionable freedom could also be used in reducing or clearing. The white immersions, omitting the sheep's dung, are just applying successive coats of varnish. Clearing is never attempted from the madder copper, without immersing the goods again in soda and oil, and drying them in a stove, which I consider to be also supplying them with an additional coat.

The alkaline lie occasions a greater separation in the particles of the oil, by which it combines more closely with the fabric of the cloth. The sheep's dung in the first immersions may serve as a covering, to keep the goods moist for a considerable time, that they may more fully imbibe the liquor, by preventing the evaporation from being too quick in the great heat to which they are exposed.

After the frequent immersions the cloth feels like leather, no doubt from a superfluity of liquor. It is then steeped in a lie of carbonate of soda, and afterwards well washed and dried, as a preparation for the galling and aluming. The astringent principle has been long known for darkening and fixing common red colors on cotton, by uniting with the earth of alum, and strengthening the basis. To the use of blood in the madder copper I attribute nothing; as in the rancid and putrid state in which I have seen it used, were it not for the prejudice of the operator, it might be safely dispensed with.

In proof of the above idea, that it is only the oil uniting with the earth of alum that is of use, I may refer to the mode of dyeing that color in the east, quoted by Dr. Bancroft, viz. soaking their cotton in oil (no matter of what description), during the night, and exposing it to the sun and air during the day, for seven successive days, rinsing it only in running water, and then immersing it in a decoction of galls and the leaves of sumach previous to aluming.

I would therefore request the practical dyer, who wishes to arrive at a knowledge of this unaccountable process, to give up the idea of an-



malisation, if by it be meant impregnating the cloth with an animal matter, and by the power of the microscope, or any better method, look for the whole truth from some other source than chemical analysis. I am at present inclined to believe that it is a mechanical operation united to a chemical, and that the frequent immersions in the imperfect soap are equivalent to laying on the first, second, third, &c., coats, preparatory to finishing a fine painting in oil. A very eminent calico manufacturer, whom I consulted on the Turkey-red process, assured me that the only essential mordants are oil and alumina; and that bright and fast reds, equal to any produced by the usual complicated process with sheep's dung, galls, and blood, may be obtained without these articles.

#### OF DYEING SCARLET.

184. Scarlet may be regarded as one of the compound colors arising from a mixture of the red and yellow coloring matters. Scarlet is the finest and most splendid of all the colors, and the great demand for it has excited several chemists of distinction to improve and facilitate the process of producing it. We shall here briefly notice the old method of dyeing scarlet, which is still practised by some dyers, both in this country and on the continent, and then give the improved method proposed by Dr. Bancroft in his excellent treatise already mentioned.

185. We cannot, says M. Berthollet, expect to obtain the desired shade from the doses prescribed in the processes, from variations in the quantity of the coloring particles contained in the different kinds of fine cochineal, and particularly from the solutions of tin that are used differing considerably from each other; but the just proportions of the ingredients to be employed may be readily determined by trials in the small way, so as to obtain the shade called for; and, if the pieces which are dyed be above or below this shade, it is not difficult to find the suitable proportions.

186. In the process of dyeing scarlet two operations are observed, viz. the boiling, and the reddening. The first or boiling operation is thus conducted:—For 100 pounds of cloth, a quantity of soft water is heated in a tinned boiler, till it be rather more than lukewarm, after which six pounds of cream-of-tartar are dissolved in it. When the water is a little warmer, half a pound of finely powdered cochineal is added and well mixed with the solution of tartar. Immediately after, five pounds of very clear solution of tin are poured in, and carefully mixed. When the bath begins to boil, the cloth is put in, and rapidly turned two or three times with the winch, then more slowly, and is left to boil for two hours, after which it is taken out, drained, exposed to the air, and washed in the running stream.

187. In preparing for the second bath the boiler must be emptied, filled again with fresh water, and, when this is near the boiling heat, five pounds and three quarters of powdered cochineal are put in and carefully mixed, and when, on ceasing to stir the liquor, a crust forms on the surface, and begins to break, thirteen or fourteen pounds of solution of tin are poured in.

Sometimes, after this, the liquor begins above the brim of the boiler, which is prevented by putting in some cold water. The solution is well mixed in the bath, is immersed, taking care to turn the cloth rapidly for the first two or three minutes, then to be boiled for about an hour, and then down as often as it rises to the surface. This it is taken out, exposed to the air, and washed in the stream, and dried.

188. On examining the proportions of the tin and of solution of tin, used either in boiling, or in the reddening, it appears that they are by no means fixed. There are several who, according to Hellot's account, use as well by putting two-thirds of the cochineal and a fourth of the cochineal, into the bath, and the remaining third of the composition the remaining three-fourths of the cochineal in the reddening. He also asserts that it is of no harm to use tartar in the reddening, more of it than half the weight of the cochineal be put in; and he thinks, that it even makes the color more permanent. Some dyers take the cloth out of the boiling, but wash it fresh to make the reddening in the bath by pouring in an infusion of cochineal. They have made apart, and with which they mixed the proper quantity of composition in this way they save time and fuel; and affirm that the scarlet is equally fine.

189. Different authors recommend different proportions of the materials used in the process. Scheffer prescribes one part of tin for ten parts by weight of cloth, an equal quantity of starch and of tartar solution. He remarks, that the starch makes the color more uniform, and he recommends to throw into the water, when the cloth is in it,  $\frac{1}{2}$  of cochineal; to agitate well; to wash the wool boil in it for an hour, and then to take it out. He prescribes next, the boiling for half an hour in the bath, which serves for the reddening,  $\frac{1}{2}$  of starch,  $\frac{1}{2}$  of solution of tin,  $\frac{1}{2}$  of tartar, and  $\frac{1}{2}$  of cochineal.

It appears, that Scheffer employs a smaller quantity of solution of tin than others; but what he does employ contains more tin.

190. Poerner describes three processes, according as the shade is to be less deep, or more or less of an orange, which he wishes to give to the scarlet. He prescribes the proportions of the solution of tin, of cochineal, and tartar, or omits the last ingredient.

For conducting the process of the scarlet in the most beneficial manner, and for its results, according to the end in view, of each of the ingredients employed, it is to be ascertained. We need not however be satisfied with a detail of processes which have been superseded by others that are from experience to be much superior; we shall therefore notice the important improvements in this branch of dyeing made by Dr. Bancroft, which have obtained the approbation of eminent chemists, British and foreign.

191. Dr. Bancroft was struck with the fact that for a whole century no improve-



made in the art of dyeing scarlet. On this he seems to have fixed his mind, and, about 1786, he instituted a set of experiments were attended with the most gratifying results.

Having, by frequent affusions of boiling water, extracted the whole of the coloring matter from powdered cochineal, he found that the addition of a little potash to the sediment, and a quantity of boiling water, extracted a new quantity of coloring matter, equal to about one-fourth of what had been given out to the pure water.

He repeatedly extracted this coloring matter by means of potassa, and afterwards dyed pieces of cloth scarlet with it, which he found similar to others dyed with cochineal. It was the course of these enquiries that he perceived scarlet to be a compound color, consisting of three-fourths of pure crimson, and one-fourth of pure bright yellow. He conceived, therefore, that when the natural crimson of the murex is made scarlet, by the usual process, it must be a change produced, equivalent to the conversion of one-fourth of the coloring matter of cochineal from its natural crimson to a yellow color.

From this he concluded that it might be a great saving of cochineal, by substituting a cheaper substance, which, at the same time, might yield a better yellow color. He therefore has his object to combine with this orange or rose color, a suitable portion of a golden yellow, capable of being permanently fixed, and reflected by the same basis. Dr. Bancroft found in quercitron bark, and ascertained that it possessed the advantage of being not only the cheapest, but the best of all the yellows he had tried.

For the purpose of diminishing the quantity of cochineal employed in producing a scarlet dye, Dr. Bancroft made a number of experiments under the authority of government. In these experiments, the mordant used was the common dyers' spirit, or the nitro-muriate of tin, and he found that they were not attended with the effects which he expected. In some of his experiments, he remarks, that the solution of quercitron bark by means of sulphuric acid destroys the natural color, and this led him to reject the use of tartaric acid, till accident brought him to dissolve the quantity of tin in muriatic acid, combined with a small quantity of sulphuric acid. The application of this solution in dyeing, was not accompanied with the corrosive effects of the muriate and nitro-muriate which he had employed in the experiments, and which proved unsuccessful.

Trying different proportions of these acids, he found the following to answer best. In a quantity of two pounds of sulphuric acid of the ordinary strength, and about three pounds of tartaric acid, he dissolved about fourteen ounces of tin. The muriatic acid is first poured upon a quantity of granulated tin in a suitable vessel, the sulphuric acid is added by degrees. The solution is more quickly effected by means of sand heat; it is perfectly colorless, and may be kept for years without precipitation. It has the power of the common dyers' spirit; and is produced at about one-third of the expense.

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It also raises the colors more than even the tartarate of tin; and does not incline the cochineal crimson to the yellow shade.

194. In using this solution as a mordant, to produce the compound scarlet color, Dr. Bancroft advises the following process. Nothing, says he, is necessary, but to put the cloth, suppose 100 pounds, into a proper tin vessel, nearly filled with water, in which has been mixed eight pounds of the murio-sulphuric solution of tin; and, having brought the mixture to a boiling heat, about 100 pounds of cloth are immersed and turned through it as usual, by the winch, for a quarter of an hour. Then the cloth is removed, and four pounds of cochineal and two pounds and a half of quercitron-bark, both powdered and introduced and well mixed. After this, the cloth is returned into the bath, the liquor is made to boil, and the cloth is turned as usual for fifteen or twenty minutes, by which time, in general, the color will be properly raised and the bath exhausted, when the cloth is taken out and rinsed in the ordinary way.

By this method the time, labor, and fuel, necessary for filling and heating the boiler a second time are saved, the process finished much sooner than in the common way, and there is a saving of all the tartar, as well as of two-thirds of the cost of spirit, or nitro-muriatic solution of tin, which, for dyeing 100 pounds of wool, commonly amount to ten shillings, whereas eight pounds of the murio-sulphuric solution cost only about three shillings. There is, besides, a saving of at least one-fourth of the cochineal usually employed, and the color produced does not prove inferior in any respect to that dyed with much more expense and trouble in the ordinary way.

195. When a rose color is wanted, it may be readily obtained in this way, only omitting the quercitron bark, instead of the complex method of first producing a scarlet, and then changing it to a rose by the volatile alkali contained in stale urine, set free by potash or by lime; and should any one still choose to continue the practice of dyeing scarlet without the quercitron bark, it is only necessary to employ the usual proportions of tartar and cochineal, with a suitable quantity of the murio-sulphate of tin, which, while it is cheaper, is much more effectual than the dyers' spirit.

196. The scarlet, produced from cochineal crimson and quercitron, is also attended with this advantage, that it may be dyed upon wool and woollen yarn, without any danger of its being changed to a crimson color by the process of fulling, which always happens to scarlet dyed in the common way. Indeed, this last is nothing but a crimson or rose color, rendered yellow by some particular action of the tartaric acid; and is hence liable to be reduced to crimson by many chemical agents, especially by soap, alkaline salts, salts of lime, &c. But where the coloring matter of cochineal is applied and fixed merely as a crimson or rose color, and is rendered scarlet by adding a very permanent yellow, capable of resisting the strongest acids and alkalis, when used with solutions of tin, no such



pear exactly of the same shade; but, if they be afterwards compared together by candle-light, the former will appear at least several shades higher and fuller than the latter;—a circumstance of some importance, when it is considered how much this and other gay colors are worn and exhibited by candle-light, during a considerable part of the year.

197. To illustrate more clearly, continues Dr. Bancroft, the effects of the murio-sulphuric solution of tin with cochineal in dyeing, I shall state a very few of my numerous experiments therewith; observing, however, that they were all several times repeated, and always with similar effects.

1st, I boiled 100 parts of woollen cloth in water, with eight parts of the murio-sulphuric solution of tin, during the space of ten or fifteen minutes; I then added to the same water four parts of cochineal, and two parts and a half of quercitron bark in powder, and boiled the cloth fifteen or twenty minutes longer; at the end of which time it had nearly imbibed all the color of the dyeing liquor, and received a very good, even, and bright scarlet. Similar cloth dyed of that color at the same time in the usual way, and with a fourth part more of cochineal, was found upon comparison to have somewhat less body than the former; the effect of the quercitron bark in the first case having been more than equal to the additional portion of cochineal employed in the latter, and made yellow by the action of tartar.

2d, To see whether the tartrate of tin would, besides yellowing the cochineal crimson, contribute to raise and exalt its color more than the murio-sulphate of that metal, I boiled 100 parts of cloth with eight parts of the murio-sulphuric solution, and six parts of tartar, for the space of one hour; I then dyed the cloth, unrinsed, in clean water, with four parts of cochineal, and two parts and a half of quercitron bark, which produced a bright aurora color, because a double portion of yellow had been here produced, first by the quercitron bark, and then

of tin, for about ten minutes. I then added four parts of cochineal by ten or fifteen minutes more, and produced a fine crimson. This was done in equal parts, one of which I rendered scarlet by boiling it for five minutes, and the other, by boiling it with one part of weight of quercitron bark, and one part of murio-sulphuric solution. In this last case there was an addition of coloring matter from the bark, and mer no such addition took place. It was necessary for producing the scarlet, wholly gained by a change of the cochineal crimson; and it was compared with each other, the former rendered scarlet by an addition of yellow, was, as might have been expected, several shades fuller than the latter.

4th, I dyed 100 parts of cloth scarlet, by boiling it first in a solution of parts of murio-sulphate of tin, and parts of tartar, for ten minutes, and then in a solution of parts of cochineal, and continuing it fifteen minutes. This scarlet was equally, and made one part of it with a little ammoniac in clean water, with a fortieth of quercitron bark, and the same weight of phosphate of tin; and this last, being the other half to which no quercitron bark had been applied, was found to be of a color, as might have been expected, the cloth, which had been dyed with cochineal and quercitron bark, as mentioned, being at the same time water with ammoniac, did not look like that dyed scarlet without it.

In this way of compound dyeing, cochineal and quercitron bark may at all times be able, with the addition of tin, to produce every possible shade of red, orange, and yellow colors, by on



ed than the quercitron bark. By sufficient I have satisfied myself that the cochineal dyed with the murio-sulphuric solution are in every respect at least as durable as such can be dyed with any other preparation of that metal; and they even seem to stand the action of boiling soap lie some longer, and therefore I cannot avoid earnestly recommending its use for dyeing rose and cochineal colors, as well as for compound-scarlet with the quercitron bark.

#### OF DYEING CRIMSON.

The different processes employed for obtaining the various shades of crimson, from the lightest, may be reduced to two. The shade of crimson required is given to previously dyed scarlet, or the cloth is at once dyed crimson. Alum, salts with earthy and fixed and volatile alkalis, have the effect of changing the color of scarlet to crimson, which is the natural color of cochineal. To get more, therefore, is necessary, than to dye scarlet for about an hour in a solution of alum, proportioned in strength to the shade of the color desired. But as other salts with earthy bases have the same property, water contains more or less of these salts, it gives a proportionate rosy tinge to the color. It is passed through it, particularly if it be the quantity of alum necessary to obtain the color varies according to the nature of the salt employed; and, when well charged with salts, it will answer the purpose of itself, without the addition of alum. If a piece of cloth have any defects, it is most convenient to dye it into a crimson.

Hellot says, that he has tried soap, soda, and crude potassa; that all these substances produced the crimson desired, but sadit, and gave it less lustre than alum. Ammoniac, on the contrary, produced a very good color, but, as it evaporates quickly, a considerable quantity must be put into the bath a little before the bath is warm, a little ammoniacal muriate, or ammoniac, and common potash. By this the cloth instantly took a very bright color. He thinks that it heightens the color so much as to render less cochineal necessary. But M. Poerner, who gives the same process for scarlet, to be left twenty-four hours in a cold solution of potassa and ammoniacal muriate.

To dye crimson at once, a solution of alum and a half of alum, and one ounce of tartar, to every pound of cloth, is used in the boiling: and the cloth is afterwards washed with an ounce of cochineal. Solution of alum is commonly added, but in less proportion to scarlet. The processes employed vary according to the shade required is deeper or more or less distant from scarlet.

Salt is also used for the boiling by some. For saddening crimsons, and giving more bloom, archil and potassa are frequently used, but the bloom thus imparted is not permanent. Sometimes the boiling for crimson is made after a scarlet reddening, by tartar and alum: and it is said, that the

wine soup color has more bloom, if both its boiling and reddening be made after scarlet, than when it is dyed in a fresh bath. For these colors the wild cochineal may be used instead of the fine, but in greater quantity. The reddening which has been used for crimson may also be employed for purples, and other compound colors.

Both scarlets and crimsons in half-grain are made by substituting madder for half the quantity of the cochineal, giving the same boiling as for scarlet in grain, and following in other respects the processes for reddening the scarlet or crimson. Other proportions of madder may be used instead of half, according to the effect desired. The common madder red also acquires a greater lustre, when its boiling is made after a reddening for scarlet.

201. In silk the grain crimson, produced by cochineal, is distinguished from false crimson, which is obtained by Brasil-wood. Silks that are intended to be dyed crimson with cochineal, should not be boiled with more than twenty pounds of soap to 100 pounds of silk, as the slight yellow cast which silk has, when only so far scoured, is advantageous to the color. After the silk has been well cleansed from the soap, it is to be put into an alum liquor of the full strength. In this it is commonly left from the evening till the next morning; it is then washed, and twice beetled at the river. In preparing the bath, an oblong boiler is filled with water, to about one-half or two-thirds; and, when the water boils, white galls powdered are thrown in, from half an ounce to two ounces for every pound of silk. After boiling a few moments, from two to three ounces of cochineal, powdered and sifted, for every pound of silk, according to the shade required, are put in, adding afterwards an ounce of tartar, to every pound of cochineal; and, when the tartar is dissolved, an equal quantity of the solution of tin. This solution ought to contain more tin than that used for scarlet, otherwise the colors will be too bright. Macquer directs this solution to be made with sixteen parts of nitric acid, two of ammoniacal muriate, as much fine grain tin, and twelve of water. These ingredients are mixed and the boiler is filled up with cold water. In this the silk is immediately dipped, and turned on the skein sticks till it appears to be of a uniform color. The fire is then increased, and the bath made to boil for two hours, turning the silk from time to time. After this the fire is put out, and the silk put into the bath, where it is kept a few hours longer. The silk is afterwards washed at the river, twice beetled, wrung and dried. When crimsons are to be browned, they must be passed, after having been washed, through a solution of sulphate of iron, more or less strong according to the shade required. If it should have a yellow tinge, the solution must be charged with a greater or less proportion of decoction of fustet or Venus's sumach. White galls should be chosen, because black ones would dull the color of the crimson; and even too large a quantity of the white will produce the same effect. Macquer says, that the galls serve only to increase the weight of the silk; yet their general effect is to render colors



few circumstances, for dyeing silk rose and poppy colors by solution of tin, used cold, that its action on the silk might not be too powerful.

202. Brasil-wood is used for dyeing silk what is called false crimson, to distinguish it from that produced by cochineal, which is much more permanent. For this process the silk should be boiled with soap, in the proportion of twenty pounds of the latter to 100 pounds of the former, and afterwards alumed. Less aluming is required for this than for grain crimson. Having washed it in running water, it is dipped in a bath, more or less charged with Brasil juice, according to the shade to be given. In the preparation of the bath hard water is preferable to soft, as it produces with the dye-stuffs a fuller crimson. Washing the silk in hard water will produce nearly the same effect. In order to make false crimson deeper, or dark red, a decoction of logwood is added to the Brasil bath, after the silk has been impregnated with the latter. A little alkali may also be put in according to the shade required. But to imitate poppy or fire color, the silk must have an anotta ground, even deeper than when it is to be dyed with carthamus: after which it is washed, alumed, and dyed with the decoction of Brasil-wood, to which a small portion of soap is generally added. We might here enumerate several other processes for imparting the crimson color, but the above, with what we have said respecting the dyeing of reds in general, and of scarlet in particular, render it unnecessary to enlarge.

#### OF DYEING YELLOW.

203. *Of Dyeing Wool Yellow.*—The yellow communicated to wool by weld has little permanency, if the wool be not previously prepared by some mordant. For this purpose alum and tartar are used, by means of which this plant gives a very

of the shade intended to be produced. Common salt be added to the water, its color richer and deeper: a little gypsum, also deepens it: but too much is paler and more lively; and Sulphate of iron or vitriol renders it brown.

205. According to Scheffler, the stuff for two hours with one-half of a solution of tin, and the tartar, and then washing it for about a quarter of an hour with a solution of weld, it will assume a fine yellow; however, will not penetrate cloth.

206. Poerner recommends to that used in dyeing scarlet the color is brighter and more permanent.

207. Since the introduction of quercitron bark, the process has been much simplified, as the following directions of I. subject. He proposes that the stuff be boiled with about its own weight of alum, in a suitable vessel for about ten minutes.

208. The substances to be dyed are scoured, and then immersed in a solution of alum, serving to give the higher shades of yellow; afterwards the paler straw color and expeditious process, color wanted to be of a full or bright yellow obtained. The color may be heightened by passing the stuff through hot water, to which powdered chalk, in the proportion of one pound and a half for every 100 pounds of stuff, has been previously added. Then, in dyeing, being first reduced to a thin liquor, be tied up in a thin linen bag, and the liquor, so that it may be pressed through it, to diffuse the color.



ried up in a bag, as that of the alum em-  
ed in the preparation. The stuff is then to  
arned as usual through the boiling liquor,  
the color appears to have acquired sufficient  
ity. One pound of clean powdered chalk  
very 100 pounds of stuff is then to be mixed  
the dyeing bath, and the operation con-  
ed for eight or ten minutes longer, for the  
se of raising and brightening the color.

20. To communicate a beautiful orange yel-  
to woollen stuffs, ten pounds of quercitron  
ied up in a bag, for every hundred pounds  
uff, are to be put into the bath with hot  
r. At the end of six or eight minutes, an  
weight of murio-sulphate of tin is to be  
d, and the mixture well stirred for two or  
minutes. The cloth, previously scoured,  
thoroughly wetted, is then immersed in the  
ag liquor, and quickly turned for a few  
ies. By this process the coloring matter  
on the cloth so effectually, that, after the  
r begins to boil, the highest yellow may be  
ued in less than fifteen minutes.

1. High shades of yellow, similar to those  
ned from quercitron bark by the above  
ess, are frequently given with young fustic  
dyers' spirit; but this color is much less  
tiful and permanent, while it is more expen-  
than what is obtained from the bark.

2. A fine bright, or golden yellow is ob-  
d by employing ten pounds of quercitron  
for each 100 pounds of cloth, the bark  
g first boiled a few minutes, and then add-  
seven or eight pounds of murio-sulphate of  
with about five pounds of alum. The cloth  
be dyed in the same manner as in the pro-  
for the orange-yellow. Bright yellows of  
ody are produced by employing a smaller  
ortion of bark, as well as by diminishing  
uantity of murio-sulphate of tin and alum.  
Indeed every variety of shade of pure  
t yellow may be given by varying the pro-  
s of the ingredients.

3. The lively delicate green shades, so  
admired, are produced by the addition of  
with the other ingredients. The tartar  
be added in different proportions, accord-  
the shade which is wanted. For a full  
yellow, delicately inclining to green, it  
e proper to employ eight pounds of bark,  
murio-sulphate of tin, with six of alum,  
four of tartar. An additional proportion of  
and tartar renders the yellow more deli-  
and inclines it more to the green shade;  
when this lively green shade is wanted in the  
perfection, the ingredients must be used  
in proper proportions. The delicate green lemon  
are seldom required to have much ful-  
body. Ten pounds of bark, with an  
uantity of the other ingredients, are  
to dye 300 or 400 pounds of stuffs.

*Of Dyeing Silk Yellow.*—Weld is seldom  
ed to give a yellow dye to silk, but when  
desired, the process differs a little from  
mer. The silk being scoured, alumed,  
ed in the manner usual for dyeing bright  
bath is prepared, by boiling weld in  
the proportion of double the weight of  
for a quarter of an hour, and straining

off the liquor into a vat, where it is suffered to  
cool till the hand can be held in it. Then the  
silk is dipped and turned, till the color is found  
uniform. While this is going on, the old weld  
is boiled with a fresh quantity of water, and,  
after the silk has been dipped, one half of the  
exhausted bath is taken out, and the vat filled  
up with the second decoction. The temperature  
of the fresh bath may be a little higher than that  
of the former, but should not be too great, lest  
the color already fixed be dissolved. The stuff  
is to be turned as before, and then taken out of  
the bath. Some soda is to be dissolved in a part  
of the second decoction, and a larger or smaller  
quantity of the solution is to be added to the  
bath, according to the intensity of the shade  
wanted. The color is examined by taking out a  
skein, and wringing it.

215. To produce shades having more of a  
gold color, anotta is added in proportion to the  
depth of color required. Lighter shades, such  
as pale lemon color, are obtained by previously  
whitening the silk, and regulating the proportion  
of the ingredients of the bath by the shade  
required. To give a yellow, with a green tinge,  
a little indigo is added to the bath, if the silk  
has not been previously azured; to prevent the  
greenish shade being too deep, the silk should  
be more slightly alumed than usual.

216. Dr. Bancroft informs us that all the  
shades of yellow can be given at a cheaper rate  
by quercitron bark than by weld. To dye with  
this bark, a quantity of it powdered, and en-  
closed in a bag, in proportion to the shade  
wanted, from one to two pounds for every pound  
of silk, is put into the vat while the water is  
cold. Heat is applied, and when the bath is  
rather more than blood-warm, or of the tempe-  
rature 100°, the silk, after being first alumed, is  
immersed and dyed in the usual way. A deeper  
shade may be given by adding a small quantity  
of chalk or pearl-ashes towards the end of the  
operation. To produce a more lively yellow, a  
small portion of murio-sulphate of tin may be  
employed, but it should be used cautiously, as it  
is apt to diminish the lustre of the silk.

217. To dye silk of an aurora or orange color,  
after having been properly scoured, it may be  
immersed in an alkaline solution of anotta, the  
strength of which is to be regulated by the shade  
required. The temperature of the bath should  
be between that of tepid and boiling water.  
When the desired shade is obtained, the silk is  
to be twice washed and beetled, to free it from  
the superfluous coloring matter, which would  
injure the beauty of the color. When raw silk  
is to be dyed, that which is naturally white  
should be selected, and the bath should be nearly  
cold; for otherwise the alkali, by dissolving the  
gum of the silk, destroys its elasticity. Silk is  
dyed of an orange color by anotta, but if a red-  
der shade be wanted, it is procured by alum,  
vinegar, or lemon juice. These colors are beau-  
tiful, but do not possess permanency.

218. *Of Dyeing Cotton and Linen Yellow.*—  
The process commonly observed in dyeing cotton  
and linen yellow, is by scouring it in a bath  
prepared in a lie with the ashes of green wood.  
It is afterwards washed, dried, and alumed, with



one-fourth of its weight of alum. After remaining in twenty-four hours, it is taken out of the aluming and dried, but not washed. The cotton is then dyed in a weld bath, in the proportion of one pound and a quarter of weld for each pound of cotton, and turned in the bath till it has acquired the desired color.

219. After being taken out of the bath, it is soaked for an hour and a half in a solution of sulphate of copper, in the proportion of one-fourth of the weight of the cotton, and then immersed, without washing, for nearly an hour, in a boiling solution of white soap, after which it is well washed and dried.

220. A deeper yellow is communicated to cotton, by omitting the process of aluming, and employing two pounds and a half of weld for each pound of cotton. To this is added a dram of verdigris, mixed with part of the bath. The cotton is then to be dipped and worked till the color become uniform. It is then taken out of the bath, and a little solution of soda added, after which it is returned, and kept for fifteen minutes. It is then wrung out and dried.

221. Other shades of yellow may be obtained by varying the proportion of ingredients. Thus, a lemon color is dyed by using only one pound of weld for every pound of cotton, and by diminishing the proportion of verdigris, or using alum as a substitute.

222. Dr. Bancroft recommends a superior process, and less expensive. He also objects to the use of salts of copper, as deepening the yellow. One pound of acetate of lead, and three pounds of alum, are to be dissolved in a sufficient quantity of warm water. The cotton or linen, after being properly rinsed, is to be soaked in this mixture, heated to the temperature of  $100^{\circ}$ , for two hours. It is then taken out, moderately pressed over a vessel, to prevent the waste of the aluminous liquor. It is then dried in a stove heat, and, after being again soaked in the aluminous solution, it is wrung out and dried a second time. Without being rinsed, it is to be barely wetted with lime water, and afterwards dried; and if a full, bright, and durable yellow is wanted, it may be necessary to soak the stuff in the diluted aluminous mordant, and, after drying, to wet it a second time in the lime water. After it has been soaked for the last time, it should be well rinsed in clean water, to separate the loose particles of the mordant, which might injure the application of the coloring matter. By the use of the lime-water, a greater proportion of alumina combines with the stuff, besides the addition of a certain proportion of lime.

223. In the preparation of the dyeing bath, from twelve to eighteen pounds of powdered quercitron bark are enclosed in a bag, for every 100 pounds of stuff, varying the proportion according to the depth of shade required. The bark is put into the water while it is cold; and, immediately after, the stuff is immersed and turned for an hour, or an hour and a half, during which the water should be gradually heated, and the temperature raised to about  $120^{\circ}$ . At the end of this time the heat is increased, and the dyeing liquor brought to a boiling temperature; but at this temperature the stuff must remain in

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weight a liquor much more or. The bark of the wood of bited properties approaching to eels, but its decoction formed a te with sulphate of iron.

exercise a lively action on oxide g it, and forming a liquor as boiled along with clean filings them; but, if left exposed to becomes soon black.

utter of walnut-peels has a great abine with wool. It gives it a ut or dun color, and mordants e to its permanence, but they es, and give them more lustre. stuff with alum, a richer and be obtained.

re of excellent use, because they id very durable shades, and, outhout any mordant, they pre- of the wool, and require but ot expensive, operation. Wal- ered when the nuts are entirely is or tubs are filled with them, of water is poured on them to ce. In this state they may be upwards. At the Gobelins, ensive and varied use is made

it is kept for two years before t is found then to furnish much has a very unpleasant putrid

also be used which are taken ore they are ripe; but they do

ving are the results of M. Ber- ts on sumach (*rhus coriaria*):— sumach is of a dun color, bor-

It speedily becomes green in is recent, the solution of potassa ange on it. The acids clear up ler it yellow. Solution of alum producing a scanty yellow pre- liquor remains yellow.

l forms instantly an abundant ate, which takes a brown color the liquor remains of a clear

per affords a copious yellowish- s, which, after some hours, n-green. The liquor remained yellow.

nc of commerce rendered the ckening it, and forming a deep

f zinc deepened the color much ght dun deposit, verging on e.

la produced no sensible change r some hours, the liquor was a its color had become somewhat

ce nut-galls on solution of silver, duces; a result promoted by the

We have already dwelt at suf- he explanation of this phenome- he general properties of astrin- affords of itself a fawn-color n; but it communicates to cot-

ton stuffs several very permanent colors, when they are combined with mordants.

229. Sanders, or sandal-wood, is also employed for the purpose of giving a fawn-color. There are three kinds of this wood, the white, the yellow, and the red. The last only, which is a compact heavy wood, brought from the Coromandel coast, is used in dyeing. By exposure to the air it becomes of a brown color; when employed in dyeing, it is reduced to fine powder, and it yields a fawn-color with a brownish shade, inclining to red.

The quantity of coloring matter, however, which it yields of itself is small, and it is said that it gives harshness to woollen stuffs. When it is mixed with other substances, as sumach, walnut-peels, or galls, the quantity of coloring matter is increased; it gives a more durable color, and produces considerable modifications in the coloring matter with which it is mixed. Sandal-wood yields its coloring matter to brandy, or diluted alcohol, more readily than to water.

230. Soot communicates to woollen stuffs a fawn or brown color, of a lighter or deeper shade, in proportion to the quantity employed; but the color is fading, and its affinity for wool is not great; and, besides leaving a disagreeable smell, it renders the fibres harsh. In some manufactories, it is employed for browning certain colors, and it produces shades which could not otherwise be readily obtained.

231. In dyeing with walnut-peels, a quantity proportioned to the quantity of stuff, and the intensity of shade wanted, is boiled for fifteen minutes in a copper. All that is necessary in dyeing with this substance is, to moisten the cloth or yarn with warm water, previously to their immersion in the copper, in which they are to be carefully stirred till they have acquired the proper shade. This is the process, if the aluminous mordant be not employed. In dyeing cloth, it is usual to give the deepest shades first, and the lighter ones afterwards; but, in dyeing woollen yarn, the light shades are given first, and the deeper ones afterwards. A fresh quantity of peels is added each time.

232. Berthollet made a number of experiments to ascertain the difference of color obtained from the simple decoction of walnut-peels, and the addition of metallic oxides as mordants. The oxide of tin, he informs us, yielded a clearer and brighter fawn-color than that of the simple decoction. The oxide of zinc produced a still clearer color, inclining to ash or gray. The color from oxide of lead had an orange cast, while that from oxide of iron was of a greenish brown.

233. A fawn-color, which has a shade of green, is obtained from sumach alone; but to cotton stuffs, which have been impregnated with printers' mordant, or acetate of alumina, sumach communicates a good and durable yellow.

234. Vogler employed the tincture of sanders-wood for dyeing patterns of wool, silk, cotton, and linen, having previously impregnated them with a solution of tin, and afterwards washing and drying them. Sometimes he used the solution unmixed, and at other times added six or ten parts of water, and in whatever way he em-



present in a dyeing bath, we might determine with precision the shade that ought to result from the mixture of two other colors, or of the ingredients which afford these colors separately: but the chemical action of the mordants, and of the liquor of the dye bath, often changes the results; theory, however, may always predict these effects to a certain degree.

It is not the color peculiar to the coloring matters which is to be considered as the constituent part of compound colors, but that which they must assume with a certain mordant, and in a certain dye bath. Hence, our attention ought to be principally fixed on the effects of the chemical agents employed.

It is in this department of dyeing that the intelligence of the operator may be most useful, by enabling him to vary his processes, and to arrive at the proposed end by the simplest, shortest, and least expensive way.

The processes for compound colors are very numerous. We shall mention only those which most merit attention, and shall establish the principles on which they ought to be conducted by particular examples.

236. *Of Dyeing Wool Green.*—Green is obtained by the mixture of yellow and blue; and it is distinguished into many different shades; but it requires experience to obtain this color uniform and without spots, especially in the light shades. It is possible to produce green by beginning either with the yellow or the blue dye; but the first method is attended with some inconveniences; for the blue soils the linen, and a part of the yellow being dissolved in the vat, changes and makes it green; the second method is, therefore, preferable. It is common to employ the pastel vat, but for some kinds of green, solution of indigo in the sulphuric acid is used; and then the blue and yellow are either dyed separately, or all the ingredients are mixed together, to dye by a single operation.

237. *Solutions of copper with yellow sub-*

remain a shorter time in the bath than the other shades, care should be taken not to boil. A browning with the sulphate of iron is given to the cloth.

The green obtained by means of indigo in sulphuric acid is called Saxon green, from its having been first used in Saxony. We shall here give the method directed by Dr. Bancroft for this purpose.

239. The most beautiful Saxony green is produced very cheaply and easily by combining the lively yellow of quercitron bark, murio-sulphate of alum, with the blue afforded by indigo in sulphuric acid, as for dyeing.

To produce this combination, the dye, for a given quantity of cloth, should be put into the vessel after having added eight pounds of powdered blue to every hundred pounds of cloth. A proportion of water as soon as the liquor is warm; and when it begins to boil, add about six pounds of murio-sulphate of alum with the usual precautions, and after about four pounds of alum have been boiled together five or six more should be added, so as to bring the liquor down to what the hands can stir. Immediately after this, as much quercitron bark is to be added, as will give the shade of green intended to be produced. To mix it thoroughly with the liquor, stirring, &c.; and this being done, the cloth being previously scoured and washed, be expeditiously put into the vat, and very briskly through it for a few minutes, in order that the color may be brought to every part, which it will do with proper care. By continuing the cloth in the vat full, even, and beautiful green will be dyed in half an hour; and, in order to keep the liquor at a boiling heat, Murio-sulphate



ide, that the greens composed therewith, prove greatly superior to any which can remove the dull muddy yellow of old fustic; at a point of expense, it is certain that the bark, sulphate of tin, and alum, necessary to dye a quantity of cloth in this way, will cost less than the much greater quantity (six or eight more) of fustic, with the alum necessary for dyeing it in the common way, the sulphate of tin being the same in both cases. But in dyeing with the bark, the vessel is only to be heated once; and the cloth, without any previous preparation, may be completely dyed in half an hour; whilst in the common way of producing Saxon greens, the copper is to be filled; and to this must be joined the fuel for labor of an hour and a half's boiling and dyeing the cloth, in the course of preparation, is nearly as much boiling in another vessel to extract the color of the fustic; and after all, the dyeing process remains to be performed, which will be equal in time and trouble to the process of producing a Saxon green with the bark; so that this color obtained with bark will not only prove superior in beauty, but in cheapness, to that dyed with old fustic.

*Of Dyeing Silk Green.*—In communicating to silk the green color, it requires very much caution to prevent the stuff from being mottled and striped. Silk intended for greens is washed as for the ordinary colors; for light greens, however, it should be boiled thoroughly in blue.

Silk is not first dyed blue like cloth; but, after being aluminated, it is washed slightly in the blue and distributed into small hanks, that it may take the dye equally; after which it is carefully wound round the sticks, through a bath of blue. When it is thought that the ground is nearly deep, a pattern is tried in the vat, to see if the color has the wished-for tone; if it is not ground enough, decoction of weld is added; and, when it is ascertained that the color has reached the proper degree, the silk is drawn from the bath, and passed through the blue.

To render the color deeper, and at the same time to vary its tone, there are added to the blue bath, when the weld has been taken out, decoction of Brasil-wood, decoction of fustet, and so on.

For the very light shades, such as pale green and celadon-green, a much weaker solution is given than for the other colors. For light shades, if not for sea-green, it is preferred to dye yellow in baths which have already been used, but in which there is no Brasil-wood or fustet, because the silk, perfectly aluminated, dyes rapidly in fresh baths, and is thence liable to take an uneven color. Dr. Bancroft recommends the following process for producing green at one operation, as the most common and certain:—

A bath is prepared of four pounds of Brasil bark, three pounds of alum, and two pounds of murio-sulphate of tin, with a sufficient quantity of water. The bath is boiled ten or fifteen minutes, and when the liquor is in temper till the hand can bear it, it is fit for use. By adding different proportions of sul-

phate of indigo, various and beautiful shades of green may be obtained, and the color thus produced is both cheap and uniform. Care should be taken to keep the bath constantly stirred, to prevent the coloring matter from subsiding. Those shades which are intended to incline most to the yellow, should be dyed first; and, by adding sulphate of indigo, the green, having a shade of blue, may be obtained.

242. To produce what is called an English green, and which is more beautiful than the ordinary greens, and more durable than Saxon green, Gubliche recommends the following process:—He gives the silk, first of all, a clear blue in the cold vat; he steeps it in hot water; washes it in running water; passes it through a weak solution of alum; prepares a bath with the sulphuric solution of indigo, a little of the solution of tin, and a tincture of Avignon berry, made with a vegetable acid. He keeps the silk in this bath till it has assumed the wished-for shade; he then washes and dries in the shade. The lighter hues may be dyed in the sequel. The shades may be varied with more or less blue, or more or less yellow, by the proportions of the indigo solution, and of the yellow substance. When it is wished to give a gossamer-green to silk, a light blue is communicated to it, either in the hot vat or in the cold; it is passed through hot water, washed in running water, and while moist it is passed through a bath of anotta.

243. *Of Dyeing Cotton and Linen Green.*—To give a green color to linen and cotton yarns, it is proper to begin with scouring them well; then they must be dyed in the blue vat, cleansed in water, and passed through the weld process.

The strength of the blue and the yellow is proportioned to the color that is wanted. As it is difficult to give uniformity to the cotton velvets in the ordinary blue vat, they are usually dyed yellow with turmeric, and the green is produced with solution of indigo in sulphuric acid.

244. To dye beautiful greens upon cotton, Chaptal recommends that it be first dyed of sky-blue color with indigo, dissolved by potassa and orpiment, then macerated in a strong solution of sumach, then dried and soaked in a solution of acetate of alumina, dried again, rinsed, and finally dyed with quercitron bark, in the proportion of twelve pounds to every fifty pounds of cotton. The quercitron is preferred to weld for this purpose, because the color of the former combines better with that of sumach.

245. M. D'Apligny recommends a method of dyeing cotton and linen of a fine sea or apple-green by means of a single bath; it is in substance as follows:—The liquor is prepared by mixing verdigris with a sufficient quantity of vinegar, and keeping the mixture in a bottle well stopped for fifteen days in the heat of a stove, and adding to it, about four hours before using it, a solution of potassa equal in weight to that of the verdigris, keeping it still hot. The cotton goods are first soaked in a warm solution, made by dissolving one ounce of alum in five quarts of water for every pound of cotton. The goods are again taken out, and, after adding the verdigris mixture, they are returned, and passed through the bath till sufficiently dyed.



Linen is dyed of the shades of olive and drake's neck green, by first giving it a blue ground, then galling and dipping it in a bath of acetate of iron; afterwards passing it through a bath of weld, combined with verdigris; and through another containing sulphate of copper, finally brightening the color by immersion in a solution of soap.

246. The green, says M. Berthollet, obtained by giving a yellow color to a stuff which has been previously dyed blue, and afterwards washed, presents nothing obscure. The color inclines more or less to yellow, or to blue, according to the tint of blue given, and the strength of the yellow bath. The intensity of the yellow is increased by alkalis, by sulphate of lime, by ammoniacal salts. It is diminished by acids, alum, and solution of tin. The shades vary likewise from the nature of the yellow substance employed.

These different effects will be obtained with the same ingredients in the formation of the Saxon green, according to the process adopted. If the Saxon blue be first dyed, and the yellow color be next given separately, the effects will be analogous to those just mentioned. But if solution of indigo be mixed with the yellow ingredients, the results are not the same, because the sulphuric acid acts in this case on the coloring particles, impairing the intensity of the yellow. If a succession of shades be dyed in a bath composed of yellow and the solution of indigo, the last approach more and more to yellow, because the particles of indigo become attached to the stuff in preference to the yellow ones, which therefore become predominant in the bath.

#### OF DYEING VIOLET COLOR, &c.

247. *Of Dyeing Wool Violet, &c.*—From the mixture of red and blue are obtained violet, purple (columbine), dove-color, pansy, amaranth, lilac, mallow, and a great many other shades, determined by the nature of the substances, whose red color is combined with a blue color, of which one becomes more or less predominant over the other, according to the proportions of the ingredients, and the other circumstances of the process. Hellot observes, that stuff which has been dyed scarlet, takes an unequal color when blue is to be united with it. The blue is therefore given first, which, even for violet and purple, ought not to be deeper than the shade distinguished by the name of sky-blue; a boiling is given with alum mixed with two-fifths of tartar; the stuff is then dipped in a bath composed of nearly two-thirds as much cochineal as for scarlet, to which tartar is always added.

248. The circumstance which distinguishes the process for purple from that for violet, is that for the former a lighter blue ground is given, and a larger proportion of cochineal is employed. These colors are frequently dyed after the reddening for scarlet, such quantities of cochineal and tartar being added as are necessary; the operation is managed in the same way as for scarlet. But lilacs, pigeon's necks, &c., are commonly dipped in the boiling, which has served for violet, after alum and tartar have been added to it: the blue ground having been proportioned

to the shade required, the quantity of cochineal is also adjusted in a similar manner; a solution of tin is added for some reddish such as peach blossom. It is to be observed that, though the quantity of cochineal is diminished according to the lightness of the color required, the quantity of tartar is not so that the proportion of it, compared with that of the cochineal, is so much the greater the color required is lighter.

249. M. Poerner is of opinion, that, to the colors composed of red and blue, it is advantageous to employ the solution of indigo, because a great variety of colors may thus more easily be obtained, and the process is so long or expensive. But the colors obtained are less durable than when the indigo is employed. He says, however, that, for sufficient permanence, if a solution of alkali be used to which some alkali has been added.

The effects may be easily varied, by the preparation to the stuff with different proportions of alum and tartar, or with solution of indigo, by dyeing with different proportions of cochineal and solution of indigo.

250. A process for dyeing wool of a violet color is given by M. Berthollet, as has been communicated to him by Descroizilles thus:—If it be wool in the fleece which is dyed, one-third of its weight of mordant is required; if it be a woven stuff, only a fifth is necessary. A bath is prepared at a temperature which the hand can bear; the mordant mixed with it; and the wool or stuff is immersed. It is to be properly agitated, and the same degree of heat is to be kept up for 24 hours, which may be even increased towards the end. It is then lifted out, and very well washed. A new bath of pure blue is then prepared; a sufficient quantity of violet wood is added to it; the stuff is then dipped down, and agitated; and the heat is kept up to the boiling point, at which it is maintained for a quarter of an hour. The stuff is then lifted out, and carefully rinsed. The dyeing is completed. If a decoction of one pound of violet wood has been used for three pounds of stuff, and proportionately for the stuffs which require a smaller dose, a beautiful violet is obtained, which a sufficient quantity of Brazil-wood will change to the shade known by the name of prunelle.

251. The ingenious author from whom the above is quoted, thus endeavours to improve the process:—

If we may venture an opinion, without having made direct experiments on a large scale, such as that communicated by Linné, and which is still employed in some manufactories with modification, if we do not know, we would suggest the following plan.

The muriate of soda is decomposed by sulphuric acid, and the muriatic acid liberty dissolves the tin.

A portion of the tin is precipitated by tartaric acid, whence the deposit is obtained. But a portion which remains in solution to modify the effect, as we have seen



The oxide of copper, present in iron, forms blue with the coloring matter indigo; the oxide of tin with red gives violet, and red with the oxide of Brasil-wood.

*Dyeing Silk Violet, &c.*—There are violet colors given to silk, these are, writers on dyeing, distinguished into the false. The fine violet may be given to the silk with cochineal, and passing it through the indigo vat. Iron and dyeing of the silk with cochineal is the same as for crimson, with the tartar and solution of tin, by means of which the color is heightened. The quantity made use of is always proportioned to the shade; but the usual proportion for the color is two ounces of cochineal and of silk. When the silk is dyed, it is then washed, twice beetled, dipped in the river, twice beetled, dipped in the river, proportioned to the depth of the dye, and then washed and dried with the same as those which all colors receive. If the violet is to be strengthened and beauty, it is usual to pass the archil bath, a practice which, though abused, is not to be dispensed with, as shades, which would otherwise be

lost, as silk has been dyed with cochineal, and, instead of a very light shade of blue must be purple. Only the deepest shades require a weak vat. For those which are old water is had recourse to, into which the blue vat is put, because they contain so much blue in the vat itself, how may be. The light shades of this color, pink, gridelin, and peach-blossom, are given in the same manner, with a diminution of cochineal.

Impure violets are given to silk in the same manner. The most beautiful, and those which are prepared with archil. The archil bath is proportioned to the color of the silk, to which a beetling has been given on its coming out of the vat, and through it round the skein sticks. The color is thought to be deep enough, when on a pattern in the vat, to see if the violet that is wanted. If it is found proper pitch, a beetling is given to the river, and it is passed through the vat of the violets. Less blue, or less archil, according as the violet is wished to incline to blue.

The violet color may be imparted to silks by dipping them in water impregnated with a substitute for aluming, and then passing a bath of logwood, in which they receive the color; which is converted into a permanent color by dipping them in a weaker solution of alum, or by adding it to the mordant which imparts a red shade to the color of the logwood. This violet possesses beauty, or permanence, but if the silk is immersed in a bath of Brasil-wood, next in a bath of archil after washing in the river, a color is obtained possessing a great degree of beauty and intensity.

M. Decroizilles' process, above related, for dyeing wool, was found to succeed equally well, according to his account, in communicating a violet color to silk.

256. *Of Dyeing Cotton and Linen Violet, &c.*—The process in most common use for dyeing cotton and linen of the violet colors is the following:—The stuffs have first a blue ground communicated to them in the indigo vats according to the shade required; they are then dried. After this they must be galled in the proportion of three ounces of galls to a pound: they are left for twelve or fifteen hours in the gall bath, after which, they are wrung and dried again. They are then passed through a decoction of logwood; and when well soaked are taken out, and two drachms of alum, and one of dissolved verdigris, for each pound of stuff are added to the bath; the skeins are then redipped on the sticks, and turned for a full quarter of an hour, when they are taken out to be aired; after which they are again completely immersed in the bath for a quarter of an hour, then taken out and wrung. The vat which has been employed is then emptied; half of the decoction of logwood which had been reserved is poured in; two drachms of alum are added, and the stuff dipped afresh, until it is brought to the shade required. The decoction of logwood ought to be stronger or weaker according to the shade required; this violet stands the action of the air tolerably well, but is not so durable as that obtained by madder.

257. Permanent purple and violet colors may be given to cotton stuffs that have been dyed a Turkey-red, by adding to the alum steep a proportion of sulphate of iron suited to the shade required. Cotton also that has been dyed a light blue with indigo, may be changed to purple or violet by passing the stuff through a bath prepared with the aluminous mordant, and dyeing with madder.

#### OF DYEING ORANGE.

258. *Of Dyeing Wool Orange.*—Orange colors are produced by the mixture of red and yellow; and, by varying the proportions of the ingredients, an almost endless variety of shades may be obtained.

Poerner describes a great many varieties which he obtained by employing weld, saw-wort, dyers' broom, and some other yellow substances; as also by introducing into the preparation of the cloth, or into the bath, tartar, alum, sulphate of zinc, or sulphate of copper.

Different colors may in like manner be procured from the madder, which is associated with yellow substances. It is thus that the mordores and the cinnamons are dyed; colors commonly formed in two baths. The maddering is first given, preceded by a bath of alum and tartar as for ordinary maddering; and then a bath of weld is employed.

For cinnamon a weaker maddering is given, and commonly a bath is used which had served for the mordore. The proportions are varied according as the red or the yellow is wished to predominate. Sometimes nut-galls are added, and sometimes the color is deepened by a browning.



Occasionally the sole object is to give a reddish tone to the yellow; the stuff just dyed yellow may, in this case, be passed through a bath of madder, more or less charged according to the intention.

Brasil-wood is likewise employed along with the yellow substances, and sometimes it is associated with cochineal and madder.

When, instead of weld or other yellow substances, root of walnut, walnut-peels, or sumach, are used, tobacco, snuff, chestnut, musk colors &c., are produced.

259. *Of Dyeing Silk Orange.*—Morrone, cinnamons, and all the intermediate shades are given to silk, by logwood, Brasil, and fustic: a bath is prepared by mixing decoctions of these three woods made separately; the proportion of each is varied according to the shade required, but that of fustic ought to prevail; the bath should be of a moderate temperature; and the silk, after being scoured and alumed in the usual manner, is immersed in it. The silk is turned on the skein sticks in the bath, and when taken out, if the color be uniform, it is wrung and dipped in a second bath of the three ingredients, the proportions of which are regulated according to the effect of the first bath, in order to obtain the shade required.

For some colors blue is united to red and yellow, it is thus olives are produced: a blue ground is first given, then the yellow dye, and lastly, a slight maddering. Olive may be dyed without using the blue vat, by dipping the silk in a very strong weld bath, after being first alumed; to this a decoction of logwood is afterwards added, and, when the silk is dipped, a little solution of alkali is put in, which turns it green, and gives the silk the olive color. The silk is repeatedly dipped in this bath until it has acquired the proper shade.

260. For the color termed russet olive, or rotten olive, fustet and logwood, without alkali, are added to the bath after the welding. If a more reddish color be wished for, only logwood is added. A kind of reddish olive is also made by dyeing the silk in a bath of fustet, to which more or less sulphate of iron and logwood are added.

261. *Of Dyeing Cotton and Linen.* The usual combinations of scarlet and red are produced with difficulty. On this Bancroft remarks, that, as cochineal and mordant cannot be advantageously employed on dye linen or cotton, it is necessary for the dyer to select the red coloring matter for dye stuffs, especially from madder, with the yellow of weld, quercitron bark, &c. may be combined in such proportions as sufficient for the required color. M. L. gives some processes for colors, which, as mixtures of red and yellow, though they may more properly be considered greens. The various shades of madder given to cotton, by first galling, and then it in a bath of acetate of iron, forms pyroligneous acid, and afterwards in a bath of verdigris, after which it is dyed with sometimes with the addition of soda. It is then completely washed, passed through a strong madder bath; then dipped in a solution of sulphate of copper; and, lastly, through a bath containing soap.

262. The shades cinnamon and madder thus given: the stuffs are first dyed with verdigris and weld, then dipped in a solution of acetate of iron, out of which they are wrung and dried. After this they are allowed three ounces of galls to each pound of stuff, again dried, alumed, and passed through a madder bath. They are then washed in a warm soap lie, through which they are turned till the color is sufficiently bright.

263. The shades of color usually denominated gray, have already been treated of, and processes for dyeing them need not here be repeated.

264. Several highly respectable writers have done great justice to the subject, and have connected with their treatises on the view of the process of calico printing: they have followed their example in the present instance, had we not considered the subject in its present highly improved state, as meriting notice, which will be found in another work. See PRINTING, CALICO.

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John), the son of Robert Dyer, Esq. icitor, was born in 1700. He passed atminster school under the care of and was then called home to be in his father's profession. His genius, d him a different way; for, besides te for poetry, having a passion no less sign, he determined to make painting on. With this view, having studied

awhile under his master, he became an itinerant painter in South Wales, and about 1727 printed Grongar Hill. He then made the tour of Italy, where, besides the usual study, he often spent whole days in the country about Rome and Florence, sketching those picturesque prospects with facility and spirit. Images from hence naturally transferred themselves into his poetical compositions: the principal beauties of The Ruins of



Rome are perhaps of this kind; and the various landscapes in *The Fleece* have been particularly admired. On his return to England he published *The Ruins of Rome*, 1740. As his turn of mind was rather serious, he was advised to enter into holy orders; and he found no difficulty in obtaining them. He was ordained by the bishop of Lincoln. About the same time he married a lady of Coleshill named Ensor, whose grandmother was a Shakspeare, descended from a brother of the great Shakspeare. His ecclesiastical provision was, for a long time, but slender. His first patron, Mr. Harper, gave him, in 1741, Calthorp in Leicestershire, of £80 a year, on which he lived ten years; and in April 1751 exchanged it for Belchford in Lincolnshire, of £95 which was given him by lord chancellor Hardwicke. His condition now began to mend. In 1752 Sir John Heathcote gave him Coningsby, of £140 a year; and in 1756, when he was LL.B. without any solicitation of his own, obtained for him from the chancellor, Kirkby on Bane, of £110. In 1757 he published *The Fleece*, his greatest poetical work; but a consumptive disorder, with which he had long struggled, carried him off in 1758. Mr. Dyer's character, as a writer, has been fixed by three poems, *Grongar Hill*, *The Ruins of Rome*, and *The Fleece*; wherein a poetical imagination, perfectly original, a natural simplicity connected with and often productive of the true sublime, and the warmest sentiments of benevolence and virtue, have been universally observed and admired. These pieces were published separately in his lifetime; but, after his death, they were collected and published in one volume 8vo. in 1761, with a short account of him prefixed.

DYER (Sir James), an eminent English lawyer, chief judge of the court of common pleas in the reign of queen Elizabeth. He died in 1581, and, about twenty years after, was published his large collection of Reports, which have been highly esteemed for their succinctness and solidity. He also left other writings behind him relative to his profession.

DYNAMICS, from *δυναμις*, power, that branch of mechanics which has for its object the action of forces on solid bodies, when the result of that action is motion; and in which, since all motion occupies some portion of time, we introduce time into our investigations. See MECHANICS.

DYNASTY, *n. s.* *Δυναστεία*. Government; sovereignty.

Some account him fabulous, because he carries up the Egyptian *dynasties* before the flood, yea, and long before the creation. *Hale's Origin of Mankind.*

Greece was divided into several *dynasties*, which our author has enumerated under their respective princes.

*Pope.*

I was detained repairing shattered thrones,  
Marrying fools, restoring *dynasties*,  
Avenging men upon their enemies,  
And making them repent their own revenge.

*Byron.*

DYNASTY; from *δυναστες*, Gr. a sovereign; among ancient historians, signifies a race or succession of kings of the same family. Such were the *dynasties* of Egypt. The Egyptians reckon thirty *dynasties* within the space of 36,525 years;

but most chronologers look upon them as four.

DYRRACHIUM, in ancient geography, a town on the coast of Illyricum, between Epidamnus, or Epidamnus, changed by the Romans to Dyrrachium; a name taken from the peninsula on which it stood. It was built by the Corcyreans, and, according to Strabo, was a Roman colony. It is famous for its port answered to that of Brundisium, the passage between them was very rapid and peditious. It was also a very celebrated port for the people of the Adriatic; and the mission of strangers contributed much to its increase.

DYSÆ, in the Saxon mythology, goddesses, messengers of Woden, whom it was to convey the souls of such as were slain in battle to his abode, called Valhalla, i. e. of slaughter; where they were to drink and their other gods, cerevisia, a kind of liquor, in the skulls of their enemies. They conveyed those who died a natural death to the goddess of hell, where they were with hunger, thirst, and every kind of torment.

DYSART, a royal borough in a parish of the same name, on the north shore of the Forth, three miles east of Kinghorn, north of Edinburgh. Its charter was about the beginning of the sixteenth century is mentioned, at that time, as one of the trading towns in Fife. Before the middle of the eighteenth century, however, its trade declined, and it only began to revive in the last century. The church is very ancient, and is said to have been built by the Picts. The harbour is large, and the trade considerable; employs thirty-six vessels in the coal and fish trade. So early as 1483 salt was manufactured and exported to Holland. The ship-builders employ a considerable number of hands. It has a weekly market, and fairs on June, August, and November.

DYSCRASY, *n. s.* *Δυσκρασία*. A mixture of elements in the blood, or a distemperature, when some quality abounds in the body.

In this pituitous *dyscrasy* of blood, we observe the pituita, and purge upon intermission.

*Floyer on the*

DYSENTERY, *n. s.* *Fr.* *dysentrie*; *Δυσεντερία*. A looseness, wherein mucus flows off by stool, and are also attended with blood.

From an unusual inconstancy of the weather, and perpetual changes of the wind from east to west, proceed epidemical *dysenteries*. *Arbuthnot.*

DYSENTERY, DYSENTERIA; from *δυσεντερία*, and *εντερία*, the bowels. The flux. A disorder in the class pyrexia, and order Cullen's Nosology. It is known by costiveness; tenesmus; mucous stools, sometimes with blood, the natural faeces being voided in small hard scybala, loss of appetite, and nausea. It occurs chiefly in summer, and is often occasioned by a quick succession of intense heat and cold, the perspiration is suddenly checked, and the cause which most usually gives rise to it is the heat of the weather.



contagion; and when it once makes its  
e, it not unfrequently spreads with  
idity. A peculiar disposition in the  
e seems often to predispose, or give  
e dysentery, in which case it prevails  
lly. The disease, however, is much  
alent in warm climates than in cold  
hen the symptoms produce great loss  
b, and are accompanied with a putrid  
and a fetid involuntary discharge, the  
ten terminates fatally in the course of a  
; but when they are more moderate, it  
rotracted to a considerable length of  
goes off at last by a gentle perspiration.  
e disease is of long standing, and has  
abitual, it seldom admits of an easy  
when it attacks a person laboring under  
ed stage of scurvy, or pulmonary con-  
, or whose constitution has been much  
by any other disorder, it is sure to prove  
e MEDICINE.

PIA; from *δύς*, bad, and *ὤψ*, an eye.  
sight, requiring certain light, particu-  
lar, or one position. A genus of disease  
as locales, and order *dysæsthesiæ* of  
obtaining the five following species:—  
ebrarum, requiring objects to be placed  
g light. 2. *D. luminis*, in which ob-  
only discernible in a weak light. 3.  
um, in which distant objects are not  
. 4. *D. proximorum*, in which objects  
are not perceived. 5. *D. lateralis*, in  
jects are not seen, unless placed in an  
osition.

EPSIA, or DYSPEPSY, from *δύς*, bad,  
*ω*, to concoct. Indigestion. Dr. Cullen  
his genus of disease in the class *neuroses*,  
r *adynamie*. It chiefly arises in persons  
thirty and forty years of age, who lead  
very sedentary or irregular life.

THONY, *n. s.* *Δυσφωμία*. A difficulty  
ng, occasioned by an ill disposition of  
s.

NOËA, *n. s.* *Δυσπνοία*. A difficulty  
ng; straitness of breath.

RIA; from *δύς*, difficult, and *πρὸν*  
Difficulty and pain in discharging the  
A genus of disease in the class *locales*,  
r *epischesis* of Cullen, containing six  
—1. *D. ardens*, a sense of heat, without  
ifest disorder of the bladder. 2. *D.*  
a, from spasm. 3. *D. compressionis*,  
anical compression of the neighbour-  
. 4. *D. phlogistica*, from violent inflam-  
. 5. *D. calculosa*, from stone in the  
. 6. *D. mucosa*, from an abundant se-  
f mucus.

URY, *n. s.* *Δυσουρία*. A difficulty in  
rinc.

end in a dysentery, pains of the hæmor-  
inflammations of any of the lower parts, dia-  
ntinual pissing, or a hot *dysury*, difficulty of  
ater.

Harvey.

SCUS, the water-beetle, in zoology, a  
insects of the order of the *coleoptera*.  
nnæ are slender and setaceous; the  
t hairy, and formed for swimming.

There are 14/ species, distinguished by their  
antennæ, the color of the elytra, &c. The larvæ  
of the dytiscus are often met with in water.  
They are oblong, and have six scaly feet. Their  
body consists of eleven segments. The head is  
large, with four filiform antennæ, and a strong  
pair of jaws. The last segments of their body  
have rows of hairs on the sides; and the abdo-  
men is terminated by two spines charged with  
the like hairs, forming a kind of plumes. These  
larvæ are frequently of a greenish variegated  
brown: they are lively, active, and extremely  
voracious: they devour and feed upon other  
water insects, and often tear and destroy each  
other. The perfect insect is little inferior to its  
larvæ in voraciousness, but it can only exercise  
its cruelty on the young larvæ; the perfect lar-  
væ, like himself, being sheltered by the kind of  
scaly cuirass with which they are armed. This  
creature must be touched cautiously; for, besides  
its power of giving a severe gripe with its jaws,  
it has under the thorax a long sharp spine, which  
it will drive into the fingers by the effort it  
makes to move backwards. The eggs of the  
dytisci are rather large, and are inclosed in a  
kind of silky dusky cod, of a strong and thick  
texture, in form round, and terminated by a long  
slender tail, of the same substance. These cods  
are often found in the water, and from them are  
brought forth the eggs and larvæ of the dytisci.  
The strength of these cods serves the insect to  
defend their eggs from the voraciousness of  
several other aquatic insects, and even from that  
of their fellow dytisci. Many species of the  
perfect insect are common in stagnated waters,  
which they quit in the evening to fly about.  
They swim with incredible agility, using their  
hinder legs as oars. The elytra of the females are  
in general furrowed, and those of the males  
plain. When they first arrive at their perfect  
state, their elytra are almost transparent, and in  
many species of a beautiful dun color, mingled  
with shades of a greenish-brown. The best  
method of catching them is with a hand-net, or  
sieve; for they are so nimble, and exercise their  
defensive weapons so often, and with such pain-  
ful success to those who endeavour to catch  
them, that they are very often obliged to let  
them escape; the easiest way to kill them, is to  
let them fall into boiling hot water, which  
instantly destroys them.

DYVOUR, or bare-man, in Scots law, a  
person who, being involved in debt, and unable  
to pay, to avoid imprisonment, makes cession of  
his effects in favor of his creditors; and does  
his devoir and duty to them, proclaiming him-  
self bare-man and indigent, and becoming debt-  
bound to them of all he has. The word is used  
in the same sense as *BANKRUPT*: see that  
article.

DZIDZA, a town of Albania, situated on the  
declivity and top of a barren mountain. The  
Albanian Christians have a monastery and several  
churches here. The arable land in the neigh-  
bourhood is laid out in vineyards, and the situa-  
tion being warm, very fine wine is produced,  
but there is a scarcity of fresh water. It is eigh-  
teen miles from Delvinaki.



## E.

E, the fifth letter of the Hebrew, Phœnician, Syriac, Samaritan, Sanscrit, Greek, Latin, Armenian, Coptic, Georgian, German, Italian, Spanish, French, and English languages, is derived, say Ainsworth and Minsheu, from the Heb. א, turned, and the small line fixed to the foot; but it seems more naturally deduced from the Phœnician א, altered by the Greeks to Ε? Ε has two sounds; long, as scēne, and short, as mēn. It is the most frequent vowel in the English language; for it not only is used like the rest in the beginning or end of words, but has the peculiar quality of lengthening the foregoing vowel, as cān, cāne; mān, māne; gāp, gāpe, &c. Yet it sometimes occurs final, where yet the foregoing vowel is not lengthened; as gōne, knowlēdge, ēdge, give. Anciently almost every word ended with e, as for can, canne; for year, yeare; for great, greate; for need, neede; for flock, flocke. It is probable that this e final had at first a soft sound, like the female e of the French; and that afterwards it was in poetry either mute or vocal, as the verse required, till at last it became universally silent. Ea has the sound of e long; the e is commonly lengthened rather by the immediate addition of a than by the apposition of e to the end of the word; as mēn, mēan; sēl, sēal; mēt, mēat; nēt, nēat.

EACH, *pron.* Goth. *eilih*; Sax. *aelch*; Dut. *elch*; Scot. *ilk*; Gr. *eka*; from Heb. אֶכָּא, aish, each.—Minsheu. Either of two; every one of a number; corresponding with other.

Woo to you farisees that tithen mynte and ruwe and ech eerbe; and leeuen doom and the charite of God: for it bihoſte to do these thingis and not to leeue tho. *Wiclif. Luke xi.*

Let *each* esteem other better than themselves.

*Phil. ii. 3.*

But wel I wote he lied right in dede;  
Of cursing ought *eche* gilti man him drede,  
For curse wol sle right as assoiling saveth,  
And also ware him of a significavit.

*Chaucer. Prob. to Cant. Tales.*

'Tis said they eat *each* other.

*Shakspeare. Macbeth.*

Now I feel by proof,  
That fellowship in pain divides not smart,  
Nor lightens ought *each* man's peculiar load.

*Milton.*

Wise Pluto said, the world with men was stored,  
That succour *each* to other might afford. *Denham.*  
Go, dear; *each* minute does new danger bring.

*Dryden.*

Loveliest of women! heaven is in thy soul;  
Beauty and virtue shine for ever round thee,  
Bright'ning *each* other! Thou art all divine.

*Addison's Cato.*

They are in such small spheres as to repel *each* other; that is, they are applied to *each* other by such very small surfaces, that the attraction of the particles of *each* drop to its own centre is greater than its attraction to the surface of the drop in its vicinity.

*Darwin.*

Whate'er of wonder Reynolds now may raise,  
Raphael still boasts contemporary praise:  
*Each* dazzling light and gaudies bloom subdued,  
4th undiminished awe his works are viewed.

*Sheridan.*

EACH vine, bottled at their name Occasion Religion humor long center of C John Lij by royal wrote so died in

EACH historian educated presented in Lincoln years, at especial attacked His Ge Nativity Christian Constan editions, and pre 1730.

EACH in the si sedness. Eadulpl power; carius, anus, & may als eath, w

EAD historian not well dral of and con and Ra spiritua sent for raised having archbis land, w and on bishop his elec determi archbis ing the eminen at leng laid hi ne had returne he wro land, w the san letters, fect.



l works, particularly for his excellent affairs of England in his own time, 1066 to A. D. 1122; in which he has any original papers, and preserved acts, nowhere else to be found. This seen highly commended, both by an- odern writers, for its authenticity, as alarity of composition and purity of indeed more free from legendary tales her work of that period.

, *adj.* } Sax. *eagor*; Fr. *aigre*;  
r, *adv.* } Span. *agrio*; Ital. *agro*.  
ess, *n. s.* } Lye says from the Sax.  
stimulate; a word still used (at least in vulgar conversation. But Lat. brisk, from Gr. *αἰς*, seems the more rivation of the whole. Keen; sharp; id: hence keenly desirous; quick; animated; impetuous.

l to quicken the spirits as to allay that *eager*. *Hooker*.

bites shrewdly; it is very cold.ipping and an *eager* air.

*Shakespeare. Hamlet.*

a sudden vigour it doth posset

rd, like *eager* droppings into milk,

a and wholesome blood. *Id.*

gave the word too early,

ng some advantage on Octavina,

> *eagerly*; his soldiers fell to spoil,

by Anthony were all inclosed.

*Shakespeare.*

her distance, and did angle for me,

> *eagerness* with her restraint. *Id.*

shrinketh, but the bone resisteth, where-

becometh more *eager*.

*Bacon's Natural History.*

e of rain froze so *eagerly* as it fell, that it

depth of winter had of a sudden been

*Knolles's History of the Turks.*

men need neither clock nor bell to awaken

desires make them restless. Oh that

h as much *eagerness* seek the true riches,

can make us happy.

*Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

m *eager*, and intent of thought,

> your honourable danger sought.

*Dryden's Ovid.*

r to read the rest, Achates came.

*Id. Æneid.*

not seen, when whistled from the fist,

n stooped at what her eye designed,

er *eagerness* the quarry missed. *Dryden.*

thee with such *eagerness* of haste,

let loose, would lay all nature waste.

*Id.*

be sometimes so *eager*, as artists call it,

is little endure the hammer as glass itself.

*Loche.*

ness and strong bent of the mind after

if not warily regulated, is often an hin-

*Id.*

ie *eager* clamours of disputants yield more

iped truth, than did the sounding brass

labouring moon. *Glennville's Scorpis.*

zeal is hot and *eager*, without knowledge.

*Sprat.*

ly war how fast and *eagerly* did men go,

riest persuaded them that whosoever died

dition was a martyr. *South.*

gerly he flew, when Europe's fate

he seed of future actions wait. *Stepney.*

L. VII.

His Numidian genius

Is well disposed to mischief, were he prompt

And *eager* on it; but he must be spurred.

*Addison's Cato.*

Juba lives to catch

That dear embrace, and to return it too,

With mutual warmth and *eagerness* of love.

*Id.*

Detraction and obloquy are received with as much

*eagerness* as wit and humour. *Id. Freeholder.*

The things of this world, with whatever *eagerness*

they engage our pursuit, leave us still empty and un-

satisfied with their fruition. *Rogers.*

A vulgar man is captious and jealous; *eager* and

impetuous about trifles. He suspects himself to be

slighted, thinks every thing that is said meant at him:

if the company happens to laugh, he is persuaded

they laugh at him: he grows angry and testy, says

something very impertinent, and draws himself into

a scrape, by showing what he calls a proper spirit,

and asserting himself. *Chesterfield.*

Snatch not *eagerly* at every advantage offered by

his unskilfulness or inattention; but point out to him

kindly, that by such a move he places or leaves a

piece in danger and unsupported. *Franklin.*

To all places of general resort, where the standard

of pleasure is erected, we run with equal *eagerness*,

or appearance of *eagerness*, for very different reasons.

*Johnson.*

She sees a world stark blind to what employs

Her *eager* thought, and feeds her flowing joys:

Though Wisdom hail them, heedless of her call,

Flies to save some, and feels a pang for all;

Herself as weak as her support is strong,

She feels that frailty she denied so long. *Cowper.*

As *eager* runs the market-crowd,

When, 'Catch the thief!' resounds aloud;

So Maggie runs, the witches follow,

Wi' mony an eldritch skreech and hollow.

*Burns.*

Then came his fit again, which to o'ercome,

As *eagerly* the barred-up bird will beat

His breast and beak against his wiry dome

Till the blood tinge his plumage, so the heat

Of his impeded soul would through his bosom eat.

*Byron.*

EA'GLE, *n. s.*

EA'GLE-EYED, *adj.*

EA'GLE-SIGHTED,

EA'GLE-SPEED, *n. s.*

EA'GLE-STONE,

EA'GLET,

EA'GLE-WINGED, *adj.*

Fr. *aigle*; Ital. and

Lat. *aquila*; Port.

*aguia*. Etymologists

have sometimes trac-

ed this name to the

acuteness of its sight;

sometimes to its

swift flying (*acutè videndo aut volando*, Fest.)

and again to its acute beak and claws (*ab acu-*

*mine rostri et unguium*. *Id.*) But Ainsworth says

more probably from *aquilus*, dun-colored, i. e.

from *aqua*, water; either because of a common

color or the habits of this bird. A bird of the

falcon genus. The first three compounds are

obvious in their meaning. For eagle-stone, see

ÆTITES, and the extract. An eaglet is a young

eagle.

If you stop the holes of a hawk's bell it will make

no ring, but a flat noise or rattle; and so doth the

ætites, or eaglestone, which hath a little stone in wita

it. *Bacon.*

This treason of his sons did the king express in an

emblem, wherein was an eagle with three eaglets ty-

ring on her breast, and the fourth pecking at one of

her eyes. *Davies.*



The snake each year fresh skin resumes,  
And eagles change their aged plumes;  
The faded rose each spring receives.  
A fresh red tincture on her leaves:  
But if your beauties once decay,  
You never know a second May.

Carew.

As he was quick and perspicacious, so was he inwardly eagle-eyed, and versed in the humours of his subjects.

Howel.

Every one is eagle-eyed to see

Another's faults and his deformity. Dryden.

There is a lust in man no charm can tame,  
Of loudly publishing his neighbour's shame;  
On eagles' wings immortal scandals fly;  
While virtuous actions are but born and die.

Harvey.

The eaglestone contains, in a cavity within it, a small loose stone, which rattles when it is shaken; and every fossil, with a nucleus in it, has obtained the name. The analogy between a stone, thus containing another within it, or, as the fanciful writers express it, pregnant with another, and a woman big with child, led people to imagine that it must have great virtues and effects in accelerating or retarding delivery; so that, if tied to the arm of a woman with child, it prevents abortion; and if to the leg, it promotes delivery. On such idle and imaginary virtues was raised all the credit which this famous fossil possessed for many ages. Hill's *Materia Medica*.

Arta still followed where Rome's eagles flew.

Pope.

Abrupt, with eaglespeed she cut the sky,

Instant invisible to mortal eye. Id.

Draw forth the monsters of the' abyss profound,  
Or fetch the' aerial eagle to the ground. Id.

Eagles are said to be extremely sharp-sighted, and when they take flight, spring perpendicularly upward, with their eyes steadily fixed upon the sun. Calmet.

The moles and bats in full assembly find,  
On special search, the keen-eyed eagle blind.  
And did they dream, and art thou wiser now?

Prove it—if better, I submit and bow. Cowper.

It has been said (I believe by D'Alembert), that the highest offices in church and state resemble a pyramid, whose top is accessible to only two sorts of animals, eagles and reptiles. My pinions were not strong enough to pounce upon its top, and I scorned, by creeping, to ascend its summit. Bp. Watson.

The EAGLE, in antiquity, was borne by way of ensign by several nations. The first who seem to have assumed the eagle are the Persians, according to Xenophon. It was afterwards assumed by the Romans; who, after a great variety of standards, at last fixed on the eagle, in the second year of the consulate of C. Marius. Till that time, they had used indifferently wolves, leopards, and eagles, according to the humor of the commander. The Roman eagles were not painted on a cloth or flag; but were figures in relief, of silver or gold, borne on the tops of pikes: the wings being displayed, and frequently a thunderbolt in their talons. Under the eagle on the pike, were piled bucklers, and sometimes crowns. Thus much we learn from the medals. Constantine is said to have first introduced the eagle with two heads, to intimate that, though the empire seemed divided, it was yet only one body. This is proved by an eagle with two heads noted by Lipsius, on the Antonine column; as well as by the eagle having only one head on the seal of the golden bull of Charles IV. F. Menestrier

maintains that, as the emperors of the east there were two on the throne at the same time, struck their coins with the impression of a double traverse, which each of them in one hand, they did the same with the other, but, instead of doubling it, represented two heads; in which they were followed by the emperors of the West. F. Papebrooke inclines to think the use of the eagle with two heads to be merely arbitrary; though it is probable, that it was first introduced on the occasion of two emperors at the same time, as the eagle on medals, according to M. Spoken symbol of divinity and providence; but, in all other antiquaries, of emperors and princes on whose medals it is most found are, the Ptolemies, and the Seleucids. Syria. An eagle with the word *Consecratus* presses the apotheosis of an emperor.

EAGLE, in ancient Irish coinage, a silver penny, current in Ireland in the first year of Edward I., about A. D. 1272; named, *lionines*, *rosades*, and many other coins of the same period, from the figures with which they were impressed. The current coin of Ireland was then a composition of copper and silver in a certain proportion, but so much below the standard of England that they were not worth quite half so much. They were imported out of France and other foreign countries. When Edward was established on the throne, he set up mints in Ireland for coining the penny, and decried the use of the eagle and other kinds of base coins; making it the consequence of effects, to import any more of them.

EAGLE, in architecture, is a figure of a bird, anciently used as an attribute, or cognomen, of Jupiter, in the capital and friezes of the most of temples consecrated to that god.

EAGLE, in astronomy, a constellation in the northern hemisphere, having its right ascension equidistant to the equinoctial. See *AGE* and *ASTRONOMY*. There are also three stars nominated, among the Arab astronomers, i. e. eagle, viz. 1. *Nasr sobail*, the eagle; 2. *Nasr althair*, the flying eagle; and 3. *Nasr alveke*, the resting eagle.

EAGLE, in heraldry, is accounted one of the most noble bearings in armoury; and is never to be given to none but such as greatly excel in valour and courage, or who have done great services to their sovereigns; in which it may be allowed a whole eagle, or as much as the head, or only the head or other parts, in proportion to their exploits.

EAGLE, in ornithology. See *FALCON*.

EAGLE, BLACK, an order of knighthood, instituted in 1701, by the elector of Brandenburg, on his being crowned king of Prussia. The knights wear an orange colored riband, to which is suspended the annexed cross.





**EAGLE, WHITE**, a Polish order of knighthood, created in 1325 by Uladislaus V. on marrying Casimir with a daughter of the great king of Lithuania. The badge of this order, by the knights, is a gold cross of eight points, enamelled gules, bordered argent, canopied with flames of fire; charged in the middle with a white eagle, bearing on his breast a cross of the same, environed with the arms and trophæum of the electorate of Saxony; and on the side is a cypher of the king's name, with the motto, *PRO FIDE, REGE, LEGE*. The whole surmounted with a small crown of diamonds. The collar is composed of golden eagles, crowned and chained. On all days, besides state days, knights wear the cross at the extremity of a blue riband scarf-wise. They have it also embroidered on the left side of their cloaks and

**EAGLE, RED**, a very ancient order in Bavaria, of which the monarch is sovereign. It is conferred both for military and civil persons, and is generally conferred on officers who have obtained the rank of lieutenant-general. The badge is a medal of gold, of an angular form, enamelled white, upon which is displayed a red eagle. It is worn scarf-wise, and is attached to a broad red riband, edged with white.



**EAGLE, SPREAD**, signifies an eagle with two heads, as the example. But it is not heraldic to say, an eagle with two heads displayed. According to Porrey, the reason for the emperor of Germany having an eagle with two necks, is: on the union of the emperor of Romania, now a province of Turkey in Europe, with the emperor of Germany, which were an eagle displayed sable, the same as those of the emperor, were joined into one body, leaving it two necks as they are.



**EAGLE ISLAND**, an island on the South Pacific Ocean, on the coast of New Holland, visited by Captain Cook in his first voyage, is principally inhabited by a monstrous kind of bird, the nest of which measured no less than twenty-six feet in circumference and two feet eight inches in height. In the Philosophical Transactions, vol. 4, there is an account of one of these nests still existing. But the bird to which it belonged was not known. That which our navigators saw was built of mud, and lay upon the ground.

**EAGLESTONE**. See *ÆTITES*.

**EAGER, n. s.** *Æger*, in Runic, is the ocean; in Icelandic, is to agitate; to incite. A swelling above another tide, observable in the river Severn. But Dryden himself says he used the eagle in the Trent, and this term, we now express, as a provincialism, in other parts of England, the first coming in of the tide.

Dissembled Hate or vanquished Love,  
Its more than common transport could not hide,  
But like an eagle rides in triumph o'er the tide.

*Dryden.*

**EALDERMAN, n. s.** Sax. *ealderman*, a Saxon magistrate; an *ALDERMAN*, which see.

**EALLANGHEIRRIG**, a small island in Argyleshire, situated at the mouth of Loch Riddon, in the parish of Inverchaolain, memorable in the annals of the seventeenth century. In 1685, when the duke of Monmouth attempted an invasion of the country, the unfortunate Archibald, earl of Argyle, having collected an army of 3000 men, retired to this island, which he fortified very strongly, and here deposited his spare arms and ammunition. Soon after, upon the appearance of some ships of war, the garrison surrendered, and the whole ammunition falling into the hands of the royal party, put an end to any further hostile operations on the part of that unfortunate nobleman, who with his party, found means to escape, but was soon afterwards taken, tried for high treason, and beheaded.

**EAME, n. s.** Sax. *eam*; Dut. *com*, uncle; a word still used in the wilder parts of Staffordshire.

Daughter, says she, fly, fly; behold thy dame  
Foreshows the treason of thy wretched eame!

*Fairfax.*

**EAR, n. s.**

**EAR-BORED, adj.**

**EAR-DEAFENING,**

**EAR-DRUM, n. s.**

**EAR-KISSING, adj.**

**EARLESS,**

**EAR-MARK, n. s. & v. a.**

**EAR-PIERCING, adj.**

**EAR-RING, n. s.**

**EAR-SHOT,**

**EAR-WAX,**

**EAR-WIG,**

**EAR-WITNESS.**

Sax. *eare*; Goth. *eyr* and *auso*; Dan. *ere* or *oore*; Swed. *are*; Teut. *ahr*, *ohr*; Fr. *oreille*; Ital. *orecchio*; Lat. *auris*. Junius derives the Gothic verb *hausjan*, to hear, from the above (*auso*) noun, and both from the Greek *οὐς*. The organ of hearing; and sometimes

the prominent part of that organ only; also the handle or prominent part of a vessel. Attention to a suit or person; the power of ascertaining sounds or harmony: also the spike of corn, or that part which contains the seed. To be, to fall, or go together by the ears, is to quarrel or scuffle, in which those organs sometimes obtain rough treatment. To set by the ears is to excite to strife or quarrelling. To be up to the ears is to be deeply immersed. Ear-bored is, marked in the ear; sometimes to be so marked was a token, as among the Jews and Romans, of servitude. Ear-deafening is stunning. To ear-mark, to mark (cattle, generally) on the ear. Ear-shot is the reach or compass of the ear, with regard to hearing sounds: ear-wig, a species of forficula, imagined to creep into the ear. Ear-witness, one who has heard what he attests. Earless, without ears.

And he began to seye to hem, for in this day this scripture is fulfilled in youre ears. *Wiclif. Luke iv.*

In that tyme Jhesus wente bi cornes in the Sabot dai, and hise discipulis hungreden and bigunnen to plucke the *earis* of corn, and to ete. *Id. Matt. xii.*

His ears are open unto their cry. *Psalm xxxiv. 15.*

His master shall bore his ear through with an awl

*Isaiah.*



- The frere arose,  
But I suppose,  
Amased was his bed,  
He shoke his *eares*  
And from grete feares,  
He thought hym well yfied.
- Sir T. More.
- Poor naked men laboured one another with shagged  
sticks, or dully fell together by the *ears* at fisty-cuffs.
- More.
- Sir J. Perrot ordered the Irish to mark all their  
cattle with pitch or *ear-mark*, on pain of forfeiture.
- Cor. Hist. Ireland.
- For feare lest we like rogues should be reputed  
And for *care-marked* beasts abroad be bruited.
- Spenser.
- All present were made *car witnesses*, even of each  
particular branch of a common indictment.
- Hooker.
- With gold and silver they increase his store,  
And gave the precious *earrings* which they wore.
- Saulys.
- Their warlike force was sore weakened, the city  
beaten down about their *ears*, and most of them  
wounded.
- Knolles.
- An unworthie councillor is a wicked charme in the  
king's *care*, a sword of terror in the aduice of tyranny.
- Breton. 1616.
- You have heard of the news abroad : I mean the  
whispered ones; for they are yet but *ear-hissing* ar-  
guments.
- Shakespeare.
- The burst  
And the *cardeafening* voice of the oracle,  
Kin to Jove's thunder.
- Id.
- O, farewell! —  
The spirit-stirring drum, the *ear-piercing* fife,  
The royal banner; and all quality,  
Pride, pomp, and circumstance of glorious war! *Id.*  
What fire is in my *ears*? Can this be true?  
Stand I condemned? *Id. Much Ado.*  
Aristippus was earnest suitor to Dionysius for some  
grant, who would give no *ear* to his suit: Aristippus  
fell at his feet, and then Dionysius granted it.  
*Bacon's Apophthegms.*  
Himself he on an *earwig* set;  
Yet scarce he on his back could get,  
So oft and high he did curvet. *Drayton's Nymphiad.*  
Princes, that will but hear, or give access  
To such officious spies, can ne'er be safe:  
They take in poison with an open *ear*,  
And, free from danger, become slaves to fear.
- Ben Jonson.
- Nor can I bide to pen some hungrie scence  
For thick-skin *eares*, and undiscerning eyne.
- Bp. Hall. Satires.
- O age well thriven and well fortunate,  
When ech man hath a muse appropriate;  
And shee like to some servile *care-boared* slave,  
Must play and sing when and what he would have.
- Id.
- This gold is now grown to a calf; let no man think  
that form came forth casually out of the melted *ear-*  
*rings*: this shape was intended by the Israelites, and  
perfected by Aaron.
- Id. Contemplations.
- There are some vessels, which, if you offer to lift  
by the belly or bottom, you cannot stir them; but are  
soon removed, if you take them by the *ears*.
- Taylor's Rule of Holy Living.
- He laid his sense closer, and in fewer words, ac-  
cording to the style and *ear* of those times. *Denham.*  
The leaves on trees not more,  
Nor bearded *ears* in fields, nor sands upon the shore.
- Dryden.
- Gomez, stand you out of *earshot*.—I have some-  
thing to say to your wife in private.
- Id. Spanish Friar.
- Better  
than dray  
Fools  
away wit  
A mea  
out fight  
The a  
some da  
therefore  
sides of  
Be no  
our *ears*.  
It is t  
An  
I  
Or  
Bec  
Or  
I may  
phrase,  
head an  
ture, bu  
In ca  
pleasure  
of that  
Eloqu  
nobler s  
use, fra  
them by  
If  
He ga  
Ea  
And  
Valsa  
of the  
make di  
She  
she had  
A lad  
The  
witnesses  
Earw  
From  
large ea  
An  
To na  
But e  
Now the  
With ta  
With a  
For whi  
Though  
He ca  
Blows t  
And tai  
Lit b  
Runs th  
On the  
Starts t



R. See ANATOMY, INDEX, and DEAF, the structure of this important organ is developed. Suetonius mentions the beauties of Augustus's ear; and Ælian, describing the beauties of Aspasia, observes she had short ears. Martial also ranks large ears among deficiencies. Among the Athenians, it was a mark of servitude. Several naturalists and physicians have held, that cutting off the ear renders persons barren and unprolific; and this operation was what first occasioned legislators to cut off the ears of thieves, &c., to be cut off, they should produce their like.

EAR, in botany, is usually called *spica*. The ears and seeds of wheat, rye, barley, lavender, &c. are called ears. The stem of the ear means the ear of straw; the knot of the ear, the lobes or sheaves wherein the grains are enclosed, &c.

EAR, in music. See MUSIC. In music we universally acknowledge a kind of insensibility, distinct from the external one of sight; which we call a good ear. And the distinction we should probably acknowledge in regard to our other senses, were our senses of the differences equally clear. Some like this is universally acknowledged with regard to a critical and accurate perception of the objects of sight; though, in familiar metaphor, these sensations are referred to a sense that has no connexion with sight. Thus a greater capacity of perceiving the beauties of painting, architecture, &c. is called a fine taste.

EAR, *v. a. & v. n.* Norm. Fr. *care*; Sax. *erian*; Brit. *acren*; Germ. *erren*; Goth. *arian*; Lat. *erare*. *Ear*, says Mr. H. (Diversions of Purley ii. 417, 8), is that one ereth, or eareth, i. e. plougheth; the person of the indicative *erian*, *erare*, to ere, or plough. *Erd*, i. e. ereth, er'd, that which is ploughed; the past tense of the same verb. *Ear*, to plough; to shoot into ears. Earable, the origin of our modern word ARABLE, which signifies a plowing of land.

EAR-TRUMPETS; instruments used by persons who are deaf, to strengthen the sensation of

They are of various forms, and are intended to compensate for the want of the external ear to augment its power when the internal ear performs their functions but imperfectly. The purpose of the external ear, both in men and women, is to collect, by its funnel form, all the sound (if we may be allowed the expression) and conduct them to the internal organs, of the sense of hearing. All the artificial instruments, then, ought to resemble, in form, the natural ear. In ancient times, they were made of trumpet, of moderate size, and usually provided with handles, by which they might be held to the ear. They were so fitted that the smaller end entered the ear, and the wider was directed to the quarter from which the sound was to proceed. But these instruments were soon found inconvenient, both on account of their size and necessity of continually holding them to the ear. Another objection was, that they did

not sufficiently conceal the defect they were designed to remedy, and therefore they were soon thrown aside. New instruments were made without these defects. One resembles a small silver funnel, with a long winding channel in its interior, which terminates at the beginning of the auditory passage. On the broad, bent rim there are holes, with ribbons passing through them, to fix the machine to the external ear. A second form consists of a lacerated tin tube, with numerous windings, having the narrow end communicating with the auditory passage, and the exterior, wider end made fast to the external ear. In the same way, two of these instruments might be connected by an elastic hoop, and fitted, at the same time, to both ears. A third instrument consists of a sort of hollow tin case, curving so as to fit the head, having a broad aperture in the middle of the front surface, and terminated by two tubes bent inwards. This hoop is so fixed under the hair, that the aperture in the middle is exactly over the upper part of the forehead, and the lateral tubes communicate with the right and left auditory passages. The great advantage of this last instrument is, that it receives directly sounds which come from before.

EARL, *n. s.* Sax. *eorl*, which Spelman and others have thought synonymous with ealdorman; but see Turner's Anglo-Sax. vol. ii. 233. Wachter thinks earl a diminutive of *ere*, Sax.; Belg. *eer*; Ger. *er* (ere, English): hence seniority and priority. A nobleman who ranks next to a marquis is an earl-marshall, a superintendent of high or military solemnities.

An EARL ranks between a marquis and a viscount. The title is so ancient, that its original cannot be clearly traced out. It is, however, certain, that among the Saxons they were called ealdormen, quasi elder men, signifying the same with senior or senator among the Romans: and also schiremen, because they had each the civil government of a division or shire. On the irruption of the Danes they changed their names to eorles, which, according to Camden, signified the same in their language. In Latin they are called comites from being the king's companions and associates. After the Norman conquest they were for some time called counts, from the French; but they did not long retain that name, though their shires are thence called counties, and their wives countesses, to this day. It is now become a mere title: their lordships have no official connexion with the government of the county; which is now entirely devolved on the sheriff, the earl's deputy, or vice-comes. An earl is created by cincture of sword, mantle of state put upon him by the king himself, a cap and a coronet put upon his head, and a charter in his hand. An earl's coronet is composed of eight pearls raised upon points, with small leaves between, above the rim, as in the diagram annexed.



EARL MARSHAL. See MARSHAL.



The frere arose,  
But I suppose,  
Amased was his bed,  
He shoke his *ears*  
And from grete feares,  
He thought hym well yfled.

*Sir T. More.*

Poor naked men laboured one another with shagged  
sticks, or dully fell together by the *ears* at fisty-cuffs.

*More.*

Sir J. Perrot ordered the Irish to mark all their  
cattle with pitch or *ear-mark*, on pain of forfeiture.

*Car. Hist. Ireland.*

For feare lest we like rogues should be reputed  
And for *ear*-marked beasts abroad be bruited.

*Spenser.*

All present were made *ear* witnesses, even of each  
particular branch of a common indictment. *Hooker.*

With gold and silver they increase his store,  
And gave the precious *earrings* which they wore.

*Saulys.*

Their warlike force was sore weakened, the city  
beaten down about their *ears*, and most of them  
wounded. *Knolles.*

An unworthie counsellor is a wicked charme in the  
king's *ear*, a sword of terror in the aduice of tyranny.

*Breton. 1616.*

You have heard of the news abroad: I mean the  
whispered ones; for they are yet but *ear-kissing* ar-  
guments. *Shakspeare.*

The burst

And the *ear* deafening voice of the oracle,  
Kin to Jove's thunder.

*Id.*

O, farewell! —

The spirit-stirring drum, the *ear-piercing* fife,  
The royal banner; and all quality,  
Pride, pomp, and circumstance of glorious war!

What fire is in my *ears*? Can this be true?  
Stand I condemned?

*Id. Much.*

Aristippus was earnest suitor to Dionysius for  
grant, who would give no *ear* to his suit: Ari-  
fell at his feet, and then Dionysius granted it.

*Bacon's Apoph.*

Himself he on an *earwig* set;  
Yet scarce he on his back could get,  
So oft and high he did curvet. *Drayton's N.*

Princes, that will but hear, or give acce-  
To such officious spies, can ne'er be safe:  
They take in poison with an open *ear*,  
And, free from danger, become slaves to

Nor can I hide to pen some hungry  
For thick-skin *ears*, and undiscerning

*B.*

O age well thriven and well fortun'd  
When eeh man hath a muse approv'd  
And shee like to some servile *ear*.  
Must play and sing when and wh

*T.*

*im-*

*rade*

*tion of*

*Burke.*

This gold is now grown to a c  
that form came forth casually  
*rings*: this shape was intended  
perfected by Aaron.

There are some vessels, v  
by the belly or bottom, you  
soon removed, if you take t

*Tay.*

He laid his sense close  
cording to the style and  
The leaves on  
Nor bearded *ears* in fel

*Byron.*

Gomez, stand you  
thing to say to your v

earnian, to pur-  
sue; deserve; la-

Better pass  
than draw the v

Fools go toge  
away with the

A mean rasc  
out fighting his

The *ear* bei  
some danger

therefore hath  
sides of the ho

Be not alarm  
our *ears*.

It is usual t

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low, abject; and this term, in composition, frequently expresses the idea of low, or grovelling: earth-flax is a fibrous, flaxy-looking fossil: earthing an inhabitant of earth; a mortal: earthnut, a pignut, or root of the appearance of a nut. The other compounds seem to require no explanation.

Nile ye deme that I came to sende pees into *erthe*:  
I cam not to sende pees, but wand.

Wiclif. *Matthew* 10.

I saigh whanne he hadde opened the sixte seel,  
and lo a greet *erthemouynq* was maad.

Id. *Apocalips* 6.

The whole *earth* was of one language. *Gen.* xi. 1.

Whereby he [Virgil] would insinuate that there is an igneous, luminous, or æthereal vehicle alwaies intimately adhering to the soul, though it be much slaked or damped with the gross and crude moisture of the body during this *earthly* peregrination.

More. *App. to Def. of Phil. Cab.* fol. 134.

Our common necessities, and the lack which we all have as well of ghostly as of *earthly* favours, is in each kind easily known.

Hooker.

Great grace that old man to him given had,  
For God he often saw, from heaven hight,  
All were his *earthly* eyen both blunt and bad.

Spenser.

All the world by thee at first was made,  
And daily yet thou dost the same repair:  
Ne ought on *earth* that merry is and glad,  
Ne ought on *earth* that lovely is and fair,  
But thou the same for pleasure didst prepare.

Id.

Nought so vile that on the *earth* doth live,  
But to the *earth* some special good doth give.

Shakespeare.

About his shelves  
Green *earthen* pots, bladders, and musty seeds  
Were thinly scattered.

Id.

Long mayest thou live in Richard's seat to sit,  
And soon lie Richard in an *earthly* pit.

Id.

Teach me, dear creature, how to think and speak;  
Lay open to my *earthly* gross conceit,  
Smothered in errors.

Id.

They can judge as fitly of his worth,  
As I can of those mysteries which heaven  
Will not have *earth* to know.

Id. *Coriolanus*.

But I remember now  
I'm in this *earthly* world, where to do harm  
Is often laudable; to do good, sometime  
Accounted dangerous folly.

Id. *Macbeth*.

Who can impress the forest, bid the tree,  
Unfix his *earthbound* root?

Id.

You have scarce time  
To steal from spiritual leisure a brief span,  
To keep your *earthly* audit.

Id. *Henry VIII*.

If you be born so near the dull-making cataract of Nilus, that you cannot hear the planet-like music of poetry; if you have so *earth-creeping* a mind that it cannot lift itself up to look to the sky of poetry;  
\* \* \* \* \* Thus much curse I must lend you in the behalf of all poets, that while you live, you live in love, and never get favour for lacking skill of a sonnet.

Sir P. Sidney.

But from this *earth*, this grave, this dust,  
My God shall raise me up I trust.

Raleigh.

The great winding-sheets that bury all things in oblivion are two, deluges and earthquakes.

Bacon.

Worms are found in snow commonly, like *earth-worms*, and therefore it is not unlike that it may likewise put forth plants.

Id. *Nat. Hist*.

It is heaven upon *earth* to have a man's mind move in charity, rest in providence, and turn upon the poles of truth.

Lord Bacon.

Such *earth-fed* minds  
That never tasted the true beams of love.

These tumults were like an earthquake, the very foundations of all, than which nothing world hath more of horror.

Peasants:—*earth-bred* worms!

*Earthly* greatness is a nice thing, and much chariness in the managing, as the case of it cannot require.

There is many a rich stone laid up in the *earth*, many a fair pearl laid up in the sea, that never was seen, nor never shall.

Bp. Hall. *Custom*

*Earth* up with fresh mould the roots of the culas which the frost may have uncovered.

Ecclips's C

We should affirm, that all things were in that heaven were but *earth* celestialised, and heaven terrestrialised; or that each part above once upon its affinity below.

Broun's *Vulgar*

Nor is my flame  
So *earthly*, as to need the dull material force  
Of eyes, or lips, or cheeks.

Desham

Wherefore did Nature pour her bounties  
With such a full and unwithdrawing hand,  
Covering the *earth* with odours, fruits, and  
Thronging the seas with spawn innumerable  
But all to please and sate the curious taste!

When faith and love, which parted  
never,

Had ripened thy just soul to dwell with God  
Meekly thou didst resign this *earthly* load  
Of death, called life

By the *earthshaking* Neptune's mace,  
And Tethy's grave majestic pace.

Him lord pronounced, he, O indignity  
Subjected to his service angel-wings,  
And flaming ministers to watch and tend  
Their *earthly* charge.

Id. *Pars*

The master saw the madness rise;  
His glowing cheeks, and ardent eyes;  
And, while he heaven and *earth* decried,  
Changed his hand and checked his pride

In ten set battles we have driven back  
These heathen Saxons, and regained us  
As *earth* recovers from the ebbing tide  
The wounds I make but sow new enemies  
Which, from their blood, like *earthworms* live

Was it his youth, his valour, or success  
These might perhaps be found in other  
'Twas that respect, that awful homage  
That fearful love which trembled in his  
And with a silent earthquake shook his

Those *earthly* spirits black and envious  
I'll call up other gods of form more fair

The fox is *earthed*; but I shall send  
riars in after him.

Id. 8

This solid globe we live upon is called  
which word, taken in a more limited  
such parts of this globe as are capable,  
to the air, to give rooting and nourishment  
so that they may stand and grow in it.

Where there are *earthworms*, in as  
though the roots lie deep in the ground  
stalks be dead, the swine wall by their  
where they grow.

Upon a shower, after a drought,  
land snails innumerable come out of  
places.



reason of its vast caverns and sub-  
has been miserably torn by earth-  
whole face of it is quite changed.

*Addison on Italy.*

great, for ever king,  
born race and measures right  
habitants! *Prior.*  
e footstool of God, that stage which  
all time, seemeth magnificent.

*Drummond.*

break up for barley to sow,  
least, ere ye sow it bestow. *Bass.*  
of earths are, 1. Boles. 2. Clays.  
ires. 5. Tripelas.

*Hill's Mat. Medica.*

the coarser sort is called plaister or  
earthflax, or salamander's hair.

*Woodward.*

digging the ground by Padua, he  
earthen pot, in which there was  
in this lesser a lamp clearly burning.

*Wilkins.*

amed by the admission of new air,  
res are opened, as we see in fat  
livers sorts. *Id. Math. Mag.*

solemn business and endeavour, at  
in the stream of our thoughts from  
vine objects. *Atterbury.*

ned the most proper for stiff black  
is long, large, and broad, with a  
quare earthboard, so as to turn up a

*Mortimer.*

thed, and wolves abhorred the day,  
s ensnared the nightly prey.

*Tickel.*

lowed, in spite of all her art,  
r lurking at her heart. *Pope.*

udrawn the fierce earthshaking power,  
allas watched the fav'ring hour;  
s she bade the winds to fly,  
lustering brethren of the sky. *Id.*  
rth-crested man! *Young.*

d furies more did shake  
as, and kept earth-loving man awake.

*Armstrong.*

mon thing for the honour of an  
o be wounded through the sides of  
*Mason.*

aranthine flower on earth  
only lasting treasure, truth.

*Cooper.*

bishop! well he plays his part,  
me, and infidel in heart;  
s, earthly in his plan,  
t, elsewhere a lady's man. *Id.*  
t man, on camels camels rush,  
hosts, and nations nations crush,—  
he winged islands fall,  
thy ocean covers all! *Darwin.*

ve raised to heaven the humble vale,  
nustain's mighty mass entomb'd;  
Atlantic rolls wide continents have

*Beattie.*

st bread, the garden's homeliest

immer luxury of fruits,  
n humbleness supply  
s board would scarce deny. *Byron.*

*Impart*

leaven to earthly joys,  
m and not blunt the dart—  
y which all destroys—  
ut the soul the deadly weed which  
*Id.*

How the lit lake shines, a phosphoric sea,  
And the big rain comes dancing to the earth!  
And now again 'tis black,— and now, the gleec  
Of the loud hills shakes with its mountain-mirth,  
As if they did rejoice o'er the young earthquake's  
birth. *Id.*

EARTH, in ancient philosophy. See CHEMIS-  
TRY and ELEMENT.

The EARTH, in astronomy, is one of the primary  
planets. See ASTRONOMY. 'Although the rela-  
tive densities of the earth and most of the other  
planets have been known a considerable time, it  
is but very lately that we have come to the  
knowledge of the absolute gravity or density of  
the whole mass of the earth. This, says Dr.  
Hutton, I have calculated and deduced from the  
observations of Dr. Maskelyne, astronomer royal,  
at the mountain Schehallien in the years 1774, 5,  
and 6. The attraction of that mountain on a  
plummet, being observed on both sides of it, and  
its mass being computed from a number of sec-  
tions in all directions, and consisting of stone; these  
data being then compared with the known attrac-  
tion and magnitude of the earth, gave by propor-  
tion its mean density; which is to that of water  
as nine to two, and to common stone as nine to  
five; from which very considerable mean density,  
it may be presumed, that the internal parts con-  
tain great quantities of metals. From the den-  
sity now found,' adds this writer, 'its quantity of  
matter becomes known, being equal to the pro-  
duct of its density by its magnitude.'

Mr. Boyle suspected that there are great,  
though slow, internal changes, in the mass of the  
earth. He argues from the varieties observed in  
the change of the magnetic needle, and from the  
observed changes in the temperature of climates.  
But as to the latter, there is reason to doubt that  
he could not have diaries of the weather sufficient  
to direct his judgment. *Boyle's Works, Abr.*  
Vol. I, p. 292, &c.

Respecting the figure of the earth, the ancients  
had various opinions: some, as Anaximander  
and Leucippus, held it cylindrical, or in the  
form of a drum: but the most general opinion  
was, that it was flat; that the visible horizon was  
the boundary of the earth, and the ocean the  
boundary of the horizon: that the heavens and  
earth above this ocean were the whole visible  
universe: and that all beneath the ocean was  
Hades. Of this opinion were some of the Chris-  
tian fathers, as Lactantius, St. Augustine, &c.  
Such of the ancients, however, as understood any  
thing of astronomy, and especially the doctrine of  
eclipses, must have been acquainted with the cir-  
cular figure of the earth; as the ancient Babylo-  
nian astronomers, who had calculated eclipses  
long before the time of Alexander, and Thales  
the Grecian, who predicted an eclipse of the sun.  
It is now indeed agreed on all hands, that the form  
of the terraqueous globe is globular or very nearly  
so. See ASTRONOMY. This is equally evident  
from the eclipses of the sun and of the moon;  
in all of which the earth's shadow appears circu-  
lar upon the face of those bodies, what way  
soever it be projected, whether east, west, north,  
or south; and howsoever its diameter vary,  
according to the greater or less distance from the  
earth. The spherical figure of the earth is also



evinced from the rising and setting of the sun, moon, and stars; all which happen sooner to those who live to the east and later to those living to the west, and that more or less so, according to the distance. So also, going or sailing to the north, the north-pole and northern stars become more elevated, and the south-pole and southern stars more depressed; the elevation northerly increasing equally with the depression southerly; and either of them proportionably to the distance gone. The same thing happens in going to the south. Besides, the oblique ascensions, descensions, emersions, and amplitudes of the rising and setting of the sun and stars, in every latitude, are agreeable to the earth's spherical form: all which could not happen if it were of any other figure. The globular form of the earth is farther confirmed by its having been often sailed round: the first of these important voyages was made in 1519, by Ferdinand Magellan, who accomplished it in 1124 days. In 1557 Sir Francis Drake performed the same voyage in 1056 days: in 1586 Sir Thomas Cavendish performed it in 777 days; Simon Cordes, of Rotterdam, in 1590, in 1575 days: in 1598 Oliver Noort, a Hollander, in 1077 days; Van Schouten, in 1615, in 749 days; Jacob Heremites and John Huygens, in 1623, in 802 days. Many others have since performed it, particularly Anson, Bougainville, and Cook; sometimes sailing round by the east sometimes by the west, till at length they arrived again in Europe, whence they set out; and, in the course of their voyage, observed that all the phenomena, both of the heavens and the earth, correspond to, and prove this spherical figure.

The natural cause of this form of the globe is, according to Sir Isaac Newton, the great principle of attraction, with which the Creator has endued all the matter in the universe; and by which all bodies, and all the parts of bodies, mutually attract one another. This is also the cause of the sphericity of the drops of rain, quicksilver, &c. The inequality of the surface of the earth, by mountains and valleys, is nothing considerable; the highest eminence being scarcely equivalent in its proportion to the bulk of the earth to the minutest protuberance on the surface of an orange. Its difference from a perfect sphere, however, is more considerable in another respect, by which it approaches nearly to the shape of an oblate spheroid; being a little flattened at the poles, and raised about the equatorial parts, so that the axis from pole to pole is less than the equatorial diameter.

What gave the first occasion to the discovery of this important circumstance was, the observations of some French and English philosophers in the East Indies, and other parts, who found that pendulums, the nearer they came to the equator, performed their vibrations slower: whence it follows, that the velocity of the descent of bodies, by gravity, is less in countries nearer to the equator; and consequently that those parts are farther removed from the centre of the earth, or from the common centre of gravity. See the History of the Royal Academy of Sciences, by Du Hamel, p. 110, 156, 206; and L'Histoire de l'Académie Roy. 1700 and 1701. These observations having established the fact also stimulated M. Huygens and Sir Isaac Newton to in-

vestigate the cause of this phenomenon; which they attributed to the revolution of the earth about its axis. If the earth were in a solid state, its rotation round its axis would necessarily make it put on such a figure, because, the centrifugal force being greatest towards the equator, the fluid would there rise and swell more, so that its figure really should be so now, were it necessary, to keep the sea in the equinoctial region from overflowing the earth about those parts. See this curious subject well treated by Huygens, in his discourse *De Causâ Gravitationis*, p. 34, where he states the ratio of the polar diameter that of the equator, as 577 to 578. And Newton, in his *Principia*, first published in 1687, demonstrates from the theory of gravity, that the figure of the earth must be that of an oblate spheroid, generated by the rotation of an ellipse about its shortest diameter, provided all the parts of the earth were of a uniform density throughout; and that the proportion of the polar to the equatorial diameter of the earth, would be that of 689 to 692, or nearly that of 223 to 224, as .9956522 to 1. This proportion of the two diameters was calculated by Newton in the following manner: having found that the centrifugal force at the equator is  $\frac{1}{289}$  of gravity, he assumes, as an hypothesis, that the earth is in the diameter of the equator as 100 to 101, and thence determines what must be the centrifugal force at the equator to give the earth such a form, and finds it to be  $\frac{1}{289}$  of gravity: then, by proportion, if a centrifugal force equal to  $\frac{1}{289}$  of gravity would make the earth higher at the equator than at the poles by  $\frac{1}{101}$  of the whole height at the poles, a centrifugal force that is  $\frac{1}{289}$  of gravity will make it higher by a proportioned excess, which by calculation is  $\frac{1}{289}$  of the height at the poles; and thus he discovered, that the diameter at the equator is to the diameter at the poles, or the axis, as 230 to 229. But this computation supposes the earth to be every where of a uniform density; whereas if the earth is more dense near the centre, then bodies at the poles will be more attracted by this additional matter being nearer; and therefore the excess of the semi-diameter of the equator above the semi-axis, will be different. According to the proportion between the two diameters, Newton farther computes, from the different motions of a degree, that the equatorial diameter will exceed the polar by thirty-four miles and  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Nevertheless, Messrs. Cassini, both father and son, did one in 1701, and the other in 1713, attempted to prove, in the *Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences*, that the earth was an oblate spheroid; and in 1718, M. Cassini again undertook, from observations, to show that, on the contrary, the longest diameter passes through the poles; which gave occasion for Mr. John Bernoulli, in his *Essai d'une Nouvelle Physique Céleste*, printed at Paris in 1735, to triumph over the observations of Cassini, apprehending that these observations would invalidate what Newton had demonstrated. And in 1720 M. De Mairan advanced experiments, supposed to be strengthened by geometrical demonstrations, farther to confirm the assertions of Cassini. But in 1735 two companies of mathematicians were employed, one for a northern, and another for a southern expedition,



ult of whose observations and measurements proved that the earth was flatted at the poles. The proportion of the equatorial diameter to the polar, as stated by the gentlemen on the northern expedition for measurement of the meridian, is as 1 to 0.9891; Spanish mathematicians as 266 to 265, or 0.99624: by M. Bouguer as 179 to 178, or 0.99441. As to all conclusions, howsoever deduced from the length of pendulums in different places, it is to be observed, that they are all upon the supposition of the uniformity of the earth, which is a very improbable supposition; as justly observed by Dr. Horsley in a letter to captain Phipps: 'you finish your observations by concluding, relating to the pendulum, that these observations give a figure of the earth nearer to Sir Isaac Newton's computation, than any others that have hitherto been made.'

and then you state the several figures of the earth as you imagine, by former observations, or your own. Now it is very true, that, if the meridians be ellipses, or if the figure of the earth be that of a spheroid generated by the rotation of an ellipsis, turning on its shorter axis, the particular figure, or the ellipticity of the earth, or the generating ellipsis, which your observations are nearer to what Sir Isaac Newton saith it to be, if the globe were homogeneous, than it can be derived from former observations. It is not what you imagine. Taking the length of the pendulum in latitude  $79^{\circ} 50'$  exactly as it is, the difference between the equatorial and the polar diameter is about as much as the Newtonian computation makes it, if the hypothesis of homogeneity would require you to reckon it, to be greater. The proportion of 212 to 211 should indeed, according to your observations, be the proportion of the diameter which acts upon the pendulum at the poles to that which acts upon it at the equator. But this is not the same with the proportion of the equatorial diameter to the polar. If the globe were homogeneous the equatorial diameter would exceed the polar by  $\frac{1}{250}$  of the length of the latter: the polar force would also exceed the equatorial force by the like part. But, if the difference between the polar and equatorial force be greater than it may be the case in an heterogeneous earth (and seems to be the case in ours), then the difference of the diameters should, accordingly, be less than  $\frac{1}{250}$ , and vice versa. I

think this is by no means obvious, at first so far otherwise, that the mistake, which we have fallen into, was once very general. Of the best mathematicians were misled by an implicit reliance upon the authority of Newton, who had certainly confined his investigations to the homogeneous spheroid, and had not considered the heterogeneous only in a loose and general way. The late Mr. Clairault was the first to set the matter right, in his elegant and accurate treatise on the figure of the earth. That treatise is now in many hands in the hands of mathematicians, among whom I imagine there are few who have considered the subject attentively, and do not acquiesce in the author's conclusions. In the second part of that treatise, it is said, that putting  $r$  for the polar force,  $\Pi$  for the equatorial,  $\delta$  for the true ellipticity of the

earth's figure, and for the ellipticity of the homogeneous spheroid,

$$\frac{r - \Pi}{\Pi} = 2\epsilon - \delta: \text{therefore } \delta = 2\epsilon - \frac{r - \Pi}{\Pi}$$

and, therefore, according to your observation,  $\delta = \frac{1}{211}$ . This is the just conclusion from your observations of the pendulum, taking it for granted that the meridians are ellipses: which is an hypothesis upon which all the reasonings of the theory have hitherto proceeded. But, plausible as it may seem, I must say that there is much reason from experiment to call it in question. If it were true, the increment of the force which actuates the pendulum as we approach the poles, should be as the square of the sine of the latitude: or, which is the same thing, the decrement, as we approach the equator, should be as the square of the cosine of the latitude. But whoever takes the pains to compare together such of the observations of the pendulum in different latitudes, as seem to have been made with the greatest care, will find that the increments and decrements do by no means follow these proportions; and, in those which I have examined, I find a regularity in the deviation which little resembles the mere error of observation. The unavoidable conclusion is, that the true figure of the meridians is not elliptical. If the meridians are not ellipses, the difference of the diameters may indeed, or it may not, be proportioned to the difference between the polar and the equatorial force; but it is quite an uncertainty, what relation subsists between the one quantity and the other; our whole theory, except so far as it relates to the homogeneous spheroid, is built upon false assumptions, and there is no saying what figure of the earth any observations of the pendulum give.

Dr. Horsley then lays down the following table, which shows the different results of observations made in different latitudes; in which the first three columns contain the names of the observers, the places of observation, and the latitude of each; the fourth column shows the quantity of  $r - \Pi$  in such parts as  $\Pi$  is 100,000, as deduced from comparing the length of the pendulum, at each place of observation, with the length of the equatorial pendulum as termed by M. Bouguer, upon the supposition that the increments and decrements of force, as the latitude is increased or lowered, observe the proportion which theory assigns. Only the second and the last value of  $r - \Pi$  are concluded from comparisons with the pendulum at Greenwich and at London, not at the equator. The fifth column shows the value of  $\delta$  corresponding to every value of  $r - \Pi$ , according to Clairault's theorem:

Observers.	Places.	Lat.	$r - \Pi$ .	$\delta$
Bouguer	Equator	$0^{\circ} 0'$		
Bouguer	Porto Bello	9 34	741.8	$\frac{1}{211}$
Green	Otaheitee	17 29	563.2	$\frac{1}{218}$
Bouguer	San Domingo	18 27	591.0	$\frac{1}{218}$
Abbé de La Caille	Cape of Good Hope	33 55	731.5	$\frac{1}{211}$
- - -	Paris	48 50	585.1	$\frac{1}{211}$
The Académiciens	Pello	66 48	565.9	$\frac{1}{218}$
Capt. Phipps	- - -	79 50	471.2	$\frac{1}{211}$



and published by Mr. Robertson, serves to find the proportion between the axis and the equatorial diameter, from measures of a degree of the meridian in two different latitudes, supposing the earth an oblate spheroid. Let  $A P p$  (PLATE II. MISCELLANIES) be an ellipse representing a section of the earth through the axis  $Pp$ ; the equatorial diameter, or the greater axis of the ellipse, being  $Aa$ ; let  $E$  and  $F$  be two places, where the measure of a degree has been taken; these measures are proportional to the radii of curvature in the ellipse at those places; and if  $CQ$ ,  $CR$ , be conjugates to the diameters whose vertices are  $E$  and  $F$ ,  $CQ$  will be to  $CR$  in the subtriplicate ratio of the radius of curvature at  $E$  to that at  $F$ , by Cor. 1, Prop. 4, part 6, of Milnes's Conic Sections, and therefore in a given ratio to one another; also the angles  $QCP$ ,  $RCP$ , are the latitudes of  $E$  and  $F$ ; so that, drawing  $QV$  parallel to  $Pp$ ,  $QXYW$  to  $Aa$ , these angles being given, as well as the ratio of  $CQ$  to  $CR$ , the rectilinear figure  $CVQXRY$  is given in species; and the ratio of  $VC^2 - ZC^2 (= QX \times XW)$  to  $RZ^2 - QV^2 (= RX \times XS)$  is given, which is the ratio of  $CA^2$  to  $CP^2$ ; therefore the ratio of  $CA$  to  $CP$  is given. Hence, if the sine and cosine of the greater latitude be each augmented in the subtriplicate ratio of the measure of the degree in the greater latitude to that in the lesser, then the difference of the squares of the augmented sine, and the sine of the lesser latitude, will be to the difference of the squares of the cosine of the lesser latitude, and the augmented cosine, in the duplicate ratio of the equatorial to the polar diameter. For  $Cq$  being taken in  $CQ$  equal to  $CR$ , and  $qv$  drawn parallel to  $QV$ ,  $Cv$ , and  $vq$ ,  $CZ$  and  $ZR$  will be the sines and cosines of the respective latitudes to the same radius; and  $CV$ ,  $VQ$ , will be the augmentations of  $Cv$  and  $Cq$  in the ratio named. Hence, to find the ratio between the two axes of the earth, let  $E$  denote the greater, and  $F$  the lesser of the two latitudes,  $M$  and  $N$  the respective measures taken in each; and

let  $P$  denote  $\sqrt{\frac{M}{N}}$ : then

$$\sqrt{\frac{\cos.^2 F - P^2 \times \cos.^2 E}{P^2 \times \sin.^2 E - \sin.^2 F}} \text{ is } = \frac{\text{less axis}}{\text{greater axis}}$$

It also appears from the above problem, that when one of the degrees measured is at the equator, the cosine of the latitude of the other being augmented in the subtriplicate ratio of the degrees, the tangent of the latitude will be to the tangent answering to the augmented cosine, in the ratio of the greater axis to the less. For, supposing  $E$  the place out of the equator, then, if the semi-circle  $P l m n p$  be described, and  $lC$

cos.  $E x^2 \sqrt{\frac{M}{N}}$  Then  $\frac{\cos. E}{\tan.}$

But  $M$ , or the length of an actual mensuration in difference from the following table:—

Name.	
Maupertuis, &c.	66
Cassini and	49
La Caille	45
Boscovich	43
De la Caille	33
Juan and Ulloa	31
Bouguer	29
Condamine	26

Now, by comparing the following ones; the second following; and in like manner, fifth, with each of the following obtained twenty-five, resulting relation of the axes or diameters of all of which is 1 to 0.9951989. If the meridian line drawn through  $49^\circ 22'$ , and of  $45^\circ$  meridian line drawn through northern and southern experiments with those of Maupertuis the north, and that of Bouguer there will result six differences of the two axes: the arithmetic, which is that of 1 to 0.99 considered as the ratio of less: which is as 230 to 214, or very near the ratio of 1 to 0.99. Now the magnitude of the earth, that is, the diameters, may be deduced from this problem. For, as half the greater axis  $Aa$  is the radius, it is given in magnitude measured there, and thence the circumference given. Thus, the circumference equal to the radius being 5730, the number be multiplied by 3.14159, the circumference of a degree at the equator, stated it, the product will be the circumference of the greater axis; and this is the ratio of the less axis to the greater axis 0.9953467 to 1; whence the difference is 6564366 toises, or 79 miles: and the differences about thirty-seven miles.



vol. ii. p. 206, &c. Suite des Mem. de 1718, p. 247, and Maclaurin's Fluxions book i. chap. xiv. And very nearly the ratio is deduced from the lengths of pendulums vibrating in the same time, in different latitudes; provided it be again allowed, that the lines are real ellipses, or the earth a true spheroid, which, however, can only take place in the case of a uniform gravity in all parts of the surface.

Thus, in the new Petersburg Acts, for the year 1789, are accounts and calculations of experiments relative to this subject, by M. Kraft. Experiments were made at different times in various parts of the Russian empire. This author has collected and compared them, and deduced the proper conclusions from them: thus, that the length  $x$  of a pendulum that vibrates in any given latitude  $\lambda$ , and in a vacuum, is of the nature of  $10^\circ$  of Reaumur's thermometer determined by this equation:

$439.178 + 2.321 \sin^2 \lambda$ , lines of a French

pendulum, or  $39.0045 + 0.206 \sin^2 \lambda$ , in English inches, the temperature of  $53^\circ$  of Fahrenheit's thermometer. This expression nearly agrees, not only with all the experiments made on the pendulum in Russia, but also with those of Mr. Maskelyne in England, and those of Mr. Lyons in France. It also shows the augmentation of the length of the pendulum from the equator to the parallel of a given latitude  $\lambda$ : for, putting  $g$  for the gravity under the pole,  $G$  for that under the pole, and  $y$  for the length of the pendulum at the latitude  $\lambda$ , M. Kraft finds

$y = 39.0052848 \sin^2 \lambda + g$ ; and therefore  $G = 39.0052848 \sin^2 \lambda + g$ . From this proportion of gravity in different latitudes, the same author infers, that if the earth is a homogeneous ellipsoid, its oblateness must be  $\frac{1}{230}$ , instead of  $\frac{1}{229}$ ; ought to be the result of this hypothesis, but on the supposition that the earth is a heterogeneous ellipsoid, he finds its oblateness, deduced from these experiments, to be  $\frac{1}{229}$ , which agrees with that resulting from the measurement of some of the degrees of the meridian.

This confirms an observation of M. De Laplace, that if the hypothesis of the earth's homogeneity be given up, then the theory, the measurement of degrees of latitude, and experiments on the pendulum, all agree in their result with the oblateness of the earth. See Memoires de l'Acad. 1783, p. 17. In the Philos. Trans. 1791, p. 236, Mr. Dalby has given calculations on measured degrees of the meridian, from whence he infers, that those measured in middle latitudes, will answer to an ellipsoid whose axes are in the ratio of 230 to 229. As to the deviations of some of the others, towards the poles and equator, he thinks they are caused by the errors in the observed degrees.

*Cosmogony*, or knowledge of the original formation of the earth, the materials of which it is composed, and by what means they were arranged in the order in which we see them, is a subject which, though perhaps beyond the reach of human sagacity, has exercised the ingenuity of philosophers in all ages. To enter into the

various theories that have been formed upon this subject, would, however, not only swell this article beyond our bounds, but be fatiguing to many readers. As far as human industry has hitherto penetrated, it has been found that the substances of which the earth is composed are neither ranged in a regular series, according to their specific gravities, nor yet thrown together in total disorder, as if by accident or chance. But the depth of the earth, from the surface to the centre, is nearly 4000 miles; and yet the deepest mine in Europe, that at Cotteberg, in Hungary, is not more than 1000 yards deep; so that little is as yet known of its interior parts. From what has been discovered, however, of those parts which lie most contiguous to our observation, naturalists have compared the structure of the earth to the coats of an onion, or the leaves of a book. And indeed, except in some of those immense mountains which have existed from the creation, or at least from the deluge, where the matter, from whatever cause, is more homogeneous, the earth is found to consist of various strata or layers, which differ according to the circumstances of climate and situation. The surface generally consists of a confused mixture of decayed animal and vegetable substances and earths rudely united together but, upon digging below this surface, the materials of the globe are found arranged in a more regular manner. Heaps of stone are indeed frequently found, which do not consist of layers, but are confused masses of unequal thickness and are called rocks. The strata are generally extended through a whole country, and perhaps, with some interruptions and varieties, through the globe itself. When the country is flat, these extensive bodies are found most regular, being in that case nearly parallel to the horizon, though often dipping downwards in a certain angle; in many places the beds have a wave, as where the country consists of gently waving hills and vales; and here also they are in general dip. In passing over the ground the soil is found, perhaps to the extent of a mile, mostly composed of sand; and perhaps for another it consists chiefly of clay: which is occasioned by the edges of the different strata lying with an obliquity to the horizon. By a similar projection, mountains, or ridges of mountains, are produced which commonly have what is called a back and a face, the former smoother, and the latter more rugged. It is generally found, also, that the ascent is more gradual on the one side of a mountain than on the other; and this is occasioned by the strata, which have risen above the general level of the country, being abruptly broken off. The order, number, situation with respect to the horizon, depth, intersections, fissures, color, consistence, &c., of these strata have been considered by Dr. Woodward with great attention. The origin and formation of them all is ascribed by him to the deluge. He supposes that, at that dreadful revolution, all sorts of terrestrial bodies had been dissolved and mixed with the waters, forming altogether, a chaos or confused mass; and he also supposes, that this mass of terrestrial particles, intermixed with water, was at length precipitated to the bottom; and that, in general, according to the order of gravity, the



The notion of the magnetism of the earth was started by Gilbert; and Boyle supposes magnetic effluvia moved from one pole to the other. Vol. I. p. 285, 290. Dr. Knight also thinks that the earth may be considered as a great loadstone, whose magnetical parts are disposed in a very strong irregular manner; and that the south pole of the earth is analogous to the north pole in magnets, that is, the pole by which the magnetical stream enters. See MAGNET. He observes that all the phenomena attending the direction of the needle, in different parts of the earth, in a great measure correspond with what happens to the needle, when placed upon a large terrella; if we make allowances for the different dispositions of the magnetical parts, with respect to each other, and consider the south pole of the earth as a north pole with regard to magnetism. The earth might become magnetical by the iron ores it contains, for all iron ores are capable of magnetism. The globe might, notwithstanding, have remained unmagnetical, unless some cause had existed capable of making that repellent matter producing magnetism move in a stream through the earth. Now, the doctor thinks that such a cause does exist; for, if the earth revolves round the sun in an ellipsis, and the south pole of the earth is directed towards the sun, at the time of its descent towards it, a stream of repellent matter will thence be made to enter at the south pole, and issue out at the north. And he suggests, that the earth's being in its perihelion in winter may be one reason why magnetism is stronger in this season than in summer. This cause for the earth's magnetism must continue, and perhaps improve it from year to year. Hence, the doctor thinks it probable, that the earth's magnetism has been improving ever since the creation, and that this may be one reason why the use of the compass was not discovered sooner. See Dr. Knight's *Attempt to Demonstrate*, that all the phenomena in nature may be explained by Attraction and Repulsion, prop. 87.

The magnitude of the earth has been variously determined by different authors, both ancient and

and who added 25,000 stadia Eratosthenes. Possidonius, Cicero, next measured the altitudes of a star, and meridian; and he concluded at 240,000 stadia, according only at 180,000 according to in his Geography, says that M. geographer, attempted some kind; and, in lib. i. cap. 3, he himself had tried to perform way different from any other by means of places under d but he does not say how number, for he still made which had been found out by professor of mathematics at L the Arabian geographer Al about A. D. 1300, that about mon, an Arabian king, having some skilful mathematicians, to find out the circumference cordingly they chose the field where they measured under from north to south, till the one degree lower; which m equal to fifty-six miles, or fi so that, according to them, earth is 20,160 or 20,340 n after this before any more at At length, however, the sa about A. D. 1620, with great measuring large distances bet found one degree equal to 2 of which is twelve Rhinland nineteen Dutch miles, and phery 6840 miles; a mile him, 1500 perches, or 18,0 See his Eratosthenes Batavi undertook this measurement in 1635, by measuring the di to York with a chain, and ta ridian altitude, June 11th, of about five feet radius, fi tained 367,200 feet, or sixti



th they found a degree contained 11 feet. See *Mesure de la Terre*, M. Cassini, jun. in 1700, renewed with a quadrant of ten feet radius latitude, and another of 34 feet for sides of the triangles; and found a his calculation, containing 57,292 feet sixty-nine and a half English sults of many other measurements; and from the mean of all which, dimensions are stated by Dr. Hutton the truth. The circumference is the diameter 7957 $\frac{1}{2}$  miles; the 3,944,206 square miles; the solid 100,000,000 cubic miles. The seas parts of the earth, by a measure-best maps, contain 160,522,026 the inhabited parts 38,922,180; rope contains 4,456,065; Asia, Africa, 9,654,807; and America,

ws some curious inferences, in the oxes, from the round figure of the hat if any part of the surface of quite plane, a man could no more upon it, than on the side of a

That the traveller's head goes a han his feet; and a horseman than moving in a greater circle. 3. That f water, being raised perpendicu- of the water will be continually et the vessel still remain full; and, y, if a vessel of water be let per- down, though nothing flow out, yet o be full: consequently, there is ntained in the same vessel at the stain than on the top; because the e water is compressed into a se- smaller sphere below than above. *conomie*, lib. i. cap. 2.

i chemistry, are such bodies as ollowing properties: insoluble in y so; at least becoming insoluble d with carbonic acid: little or no ; at least, when combined with : fixed, incombustible, and inca- pure, of being altered by the fire; hen heated by combustibles: not to metals by all the ordinary unction, or, when reduced by scientific ossessing but an evanescent metallic

essing these qualities were ranked, ong the unreducible elements, and nine were classified under this be- s. 2. Strontites. 3. Lime. 4. Mag- umina, or clay. 6. Silica. 7. Zirconia. 9. Ytria. To the above ubstances, Berzelius has added a e calls thorina.

liant discovery by Sir H. Davy, in metallic bases of potassa, soda, ites, and lime, subverted the ancient g the earths, and taught us to re- all belonging, by most probable he metallic class. See *CHEMISTRY*

x. See *AMIANTHUS*.

ISE. See *ARCHITECTURE*, Index.

EARTH NUTS, or GROUND NUTS. See *ARACHIS* and *GROUND NUTS*.

EARTH NUTS, or PIG NUTS. See *BUNIUM*.

EARTH PUCCERONS. See *PUCCERON*.

An EARTHQUAKE is a sudden and violent concussion of the earth, generally accompanied with strange noises under ground, or in the air; often destroying whole cities at once, throwing down rocks, altering the course of rivers, and producing the most terrible devastations. Though there is hardly any country known, in which shocks of an earthquake have not at some time or other been felt, yet there are some much more subject to them than others. Northern countries, in general, are less subject to earthquakes than those situated near the equator, or in the southern latitudes; but this does not hold universally. The islands of Japan, which are situated pretty far north, are nevertheless, exceedingly liable to these dreadful convulsions. Islands, in general, are also more subject to them than continents; but neither does this hold without exceptions. Particular parts of continents, and particular islands, are more subject to them than others lying in the neighbourhood, and differing little from them in external appearance. Portugal is more subject to earthquakes than Spain, and the latter much more than France; Mexico and Peru more than the other countries of America, and Jamaica more than the other Caribbee islands. Earthquakes are frequent, though not often violent, in Italy; but in Sicily they are often terribly destructive. Asia Minor has been remarkably subject to them from the remotest antiquity; and the city of Antioch in particular has suffered more from earthquakes than any other in that country. The same phenomena are said also to occur very frequently in the extremities of Asia, even in very high latitudes.

Although no natural phenomenon is more calculated to impress the human mind with terror, and consequently to be well remembered and taken notice of, than an earthquake, yet the philosophy of them is but lately arrived at any degree of perfection; and, even at this day, the history of earthquakes is incomplete. The destruction occasioned by them engrosses the mind too much to admit of philosophical speculations at the time they happen; the same thing prevents the attentive consideration of the alterations that take place in the atmosphere after the earthquake is over, and which might probably throw some light on the causes which produced it; and the suddenness of its coming on prevents an exact attention to those slight appearances in the earth or air which, if carefully observed, might serve as warnings to avoid the destruction. From the observations that have been made, however, the following phenomena may be deduced, and reckoned pretty certain. 1. Where there are any volcanoes or burning mountains, an earthquake may reasonably be expected more frequently than in other countries. 2. If the volcano has been long quiet, a violent earthquake is to be feared, and vice versa. But to this there are many exceptions. 3. Earthquakes are generally preceded by long droughts, but they do not always come on as soon as the drought ceases. 4. They are also preceded by electrical



riages; sometimes a rushing noise like wind, and sometimes explosions, like the firing of cannon, are heard. Sometimes the ground heaves perpendicularly upwards, and sometimes rolls from side to side. Sometimes the shock begins with a perpendicular heave, after which the other kind of motion commences. A single shock is but of very short duration, the longest scarcely lasting a minute; but they frequently succeed each other at short intervals for a considerable length of time. 8. During the shock, chasms are made in the earth; from which sometimes flames, but oftener great quantities of water, are discharged. Flame and smoke are also emitted from places of the earth where no chasms can be perceived. Sometimes these chasms are but small; but, in violent earthquakes, they are often so large, that whole cities sink down into them at once. 9. The water of the ocean is affected even more than the dry land. The sea swells up to a prodigious height; much more than we could suppose it raised by the mere elevation of its bottom by the shock. Sometimes it is divided to a considerable depth, and great quantities of air, flames, and smoke, are discharged from it. The same irregular agitations happen to the waters of ponds, lakes, and even rivers. 10. The shock is felt at sea as well as on land. Ships are affected by a sudden stroke, as if they had run aground or struck upon a rock. 11. The effects of earthquakes are not confined to one particular district or country, but often extend to very distant regions; though no earthquake has yet been known extensive enough to affect the whole globe at one time. In those places also where the shock is not felt on dry land, the irregular agitation of the waters above mentioned, is perceived very remarkably. All these positions are verified by the account of those earthquakes which have been particularly described by witnesses of the best character.

A terrible earthquake happened at Calabria in 1638, which affords an exception to the second general position above laid down. In Italy there had been an eruption of Mount Vesuvius five years before; and in Sicily there had been an eruption of *Ætna* only two years before this earthquake. The event, however, plainly showed that the cause of the earthquake, whatever it was, had a connexion not only with Mount *Ætna*, which lies in the neighbourhood, but also with the volcano of *Stromboli*, which is sixty miles distant. 'On the 24th of March,' says Kircher, 'we launched, in a small boat, from the harbour of Messina, in Sicily, and arrived the same day at the promontory of Pelorus. Our destination was for the city of Euphemia, in Calabria; but, on account of the weather, we were

out even the shores from me together with the dreadful noiseous stench, which was strong me with apprehensions that a calamity was impending. To wear a very unusual appearance have seen a lake in a violent covered over with bubbles, with of its agitations. My surprise by the calmness and serenity, a breeze, not a cloud, which to put all nature thus into me warned my companion that approaching; and, after some the shore with all possible diligence *Tropæa*. But we had scarcely a college in that city, when our with a horrid sound, resembling nite number of chariots drive the wheels rattling, and the Soon after this, a most dreadful, so that the whole town stood seemed to vibrate, as scale of a balance that continued motion, however, soon grew being no longer able to keep thrown prostrate upon the ground time, finding that I remained general concussion, I resolved safety, and running as fast the shore. I did not 'scarcely found the boat in which I had companions also. Leaving the tion, we prosecuted our voyage and the next day came to *Stromboli*, although the earth still lent agitations. But we were our inn, when we were once turn to our boat; and in about saw the greatest part of the in which we had set up, and burying all its inhabitants. Proceeding onward in our length landed at *Lopizium*, between *Tropæa* and *Euphemia* we were bound. Here, where eyes, nothing but scenes of appeared; towns and castles like *Stromboli*, though at sixty n ing forth flames in an unceasing a noise which I could distinguish attention was quickly turned to contiguous danger. The an approaching earthquake, we were grown acquainted with the consequences. It every grow louder, and to approach place on which we stood by



ly; so that, being unable to stand, my sons and I caught hold of whatever shrub next us, and supported ourselves in that manner.

After some time, the violent paroxysm we again stood up, in order to prosecute our voyage to Euphemia, which lay within the mean time, while we were preparing for this purpose, I turned my eyes towards the city, but could see only a frightfully mud, that seemed to rest upon the place. We were more surprised us, as the weather was serene. We waited, therefore, till the day passed: then turning to look for the city was totally sunk, and nothing but a dismal putrid lake was to be seen where it

In the year 1692 an earthquake happened in Sicily, attended with almost all the terrible phenomena above stated. In two minutes it sunk the town of Port Royal, and sunk them in a gulf of forty fathoms deep. It was attended with a hollow rumbling noise, like that of the streets rose like the waves of the sea, lifting up the houses, and then immediately throwing them down into deep pits. All the houses discharged their waters with the most violent agitation. The sea burst over its bounds, and engulfed all that stood in its way. The shocks of the earth were in some places so great, that the streets appeared twice as broad as before. In many places it opened and closed again, and continued this agitation for several days. Of these openings great numbers were seen at one time. In some the people were allowed up at once; in others, the earth opened under them by the middle, and crushed them to pieces, while others, more fortunate, were thrown up in one chasm, and thrown out upon another. Other chasms were large enough to swallow up whole streets; and others, more formidable, spouted up immense quantities of water, drowning such as the earthquake reached. The whole was attended with a most offensive smell, the noise of falling stones at a distance, &c.; and the sky suddenly turned dull and reddish, like a glowing sunset, greatly as Port Royal suffered, more were left standing in it, than on the whole island. Scarcely a planting-house, or a house, was left standing in all Jamaica. A great part of them were swallowed up, houses, trees, and all in one gap: in lieu of which, there appeared great pools of water; which, rising up, left nothing but sand, without that ever tree or plant had grown there. Although the shock was so violent, that houses were thrown some yards out of their places, yet they continued standing. A Mr. had his plantation removed half a mile from the place where it stood, without any considerable alteration. All the wells in the island, except those of Port Royal, from one fathom to seven deep, threw their water out at the great violence. Above twelve miles from the sea the earth gaped and spouted out, with prodigious force, vast quantities of water into the air: yet the greatest violences were in the mountains and rocks; and it is a singular phenomenon, that the nearer the mountains

the greater the shock; and that the cause thereof lay among them. Most of the rivers were stopped up for twenty-four hours, by the falling of the mountains; till, swelling up, they formed new channels, tearing up, in their passage, trees, &c. After the great shock, those people who escaped got on board ships in the harbour, where many continued above two months: the shocks all that time being so violent, and coming so thick, sometimes two or three in an hour, accompanied with frightful noises, like a rushing wind, or a hollow rumbling thunder, with brimstone blasts, that they durst not come ashore. The consequence of the earthquake was a general sickness, from the noisome vapors belched forth, which swept away above 3000 people.

In 1693 an earthquake happened in Sicily, which may justly be accounted one of the most terrible of which we have any account. It shook the whole island, and even Naples and Malta shared in the shock. It was impossible for any body in this country to keep on their legs on the dancing earth; nay, those that lay on the ground were tossed from side to side, as on a rolling billow: high walls leaped from their foundations several paces, &c. The mischief it did is amazing; almost all the buildings in the country were thrown down; fifty-four cities and towns, besides an incredible number of villages, were either destroyed or greatly damaged. Catania, one of the most famous, ancient, and flourishing cities in the kingdom, had the greatest share in the tragedy. Anthony Serrovita, being on his way thither, at the distance of a few miles, observed a black cloud, like night, hovering over the city, when there arose from the mouth of Mount Gibello great spires of flame, which spread all around. The sea all of a sudden began to roar and rise in billows; and there was a blow as if all the artillery in the world had been at once discharged. The birds flew about, the cattle ran crying, and the horses stopped short, trembling; so that he and his companions were forced to alight. They were no sooner off, but they were lifted from the ground above two palms; when looking towards Catania, he with amazement saw nothing but a thick cloud of dust in the air. Of that magnificent city, there was not the least footstep to be seen. S. Bonajutus assures us, that of 18,900 inhabitants, 18,000 perished therein.

The great earthquake, however, which happened on the 1st of November, 1755, at Lisbon, affords the clearest example of all the phenomena above mentioned, having been felt violently in many places both on land and at sea, and extended its effects to the waters in many other places where the shocks were not perceived. At Lisbon, in Portugal, its effects were most severe. In 1750 there had been a sensible trembling of the earth felt in this city: for four years afterwards there had been an excessive drought: in so much that some springs, formerly very plentiful of water, were dried, and totally lost. The predominant winds were north and north-east, accompanied with various, though very small, tremors of the earth. The year 1755 proved very wet and rainy; the summer cooler than usual; and for forty days before the earthquake



quick but short vibrations, the foundations of all the city, so that many buildings instantly fell. Then, with a pause scarcely perceptible, the nature of the motions was changed, and the houses were tossed from side to side, with a motion like that of a waggon violently driven over rough stones. This second shock laid almost the whole city in ruins, with a prodigious slaughter of the people. The earthquake lasted in all about six minutes. At the moment of its beginning, some persons on the river, nearly a mile from the city, heard their boat make a noise as if it had run aground, though they were then in deep water; and at the same time they saw the houses falling on both sides of the river. The bed of the river Tagus was in many places raised to its surface. Ships were driven from their anchors, and jostled together with great violence; nor did their masters know whether they were afloat or aground. A large new quay sunk to an unfathomable depth, with several hundreds of people upon it; nor was one of the dead bodies ever found. The bar was at first seen dry from shore to shore; but suddenly the sea came rolling in like a mountain; and about Belem Castle the water rose fifty feet almost in an instant. About noon there was another shock, when the walls of several houses that yet remained opened from top to bottom more than a quarter of a yard, and afterwards closed again so exactly, that scarce any mark of the injury was left.

At Colares, about twenty-nine miles from Lisbon, and two miles from the sea, on the 31st October the weather was clear, and uncommonly warm for the season. About four o'clock P.M. there arose a fog from the sea, which overspread the valleys, a thing very unusual at that season. Soon after, the wind changing to the east, the fog returned to the sea, collecting itself, and becoming exceedingly thick. As the fog retired, the sea rose with a prodigious roaring. On the 1st November the day broke with a serene sky, the wind continuing at east; but about nine o'clock the sun began to grow dim; and about half an hour after was heard a rumbling noise like that of chariots, which increased to such a degree, that it became equal to the explosions of the largest cannon. Immediately a shock of an earthquake was felt, which was quickly succeeded by a second and third; and at the same time several light flames of fire issued from the mountains, resembling the kindling of charcoal. In these three shocks the walls of the buildings moved from east to west. In another situation, from whence the sea coast could be discovered, there issued from one of the hills called Fojo, a great quantity of smoke, very thick, but not very black. This increased with the fourth shock,

and was heard; and almost instant the earth began to shake. A minute or two the river rose six feet, and continued to do. It ran up at first with so much broke a ship's hawser. In so opened, and seemed to discharge of air: and the agitation in the about a league beyond the bar, posed to have been discharged. Ube's, a sea-port town about 10 of Lisbon, was entirely swallowed up by repeated shocks and the vast. Huge pieces of rock were detached from the promontory at the town, which consists of a cliff containing fine jasper of different colors. The same earthquake was felt over in Catalonia, Arragon, and Valmonte (near where the Guadalquivir Bay of Cadiz), a little before the 1st November, the earthquake been immediately preceded by noise. Here the shocks continued for fifteen minutes, damaged all things, throwing down some, and irreparably shattered. In less than an hour after, the sea and river, overflowed their banks with great under water all the coasts of the to the city, and flowing into the water came on in vast black with foam at the top, and demolished one-half of a tower at the bar. In the adjacent strands every thing was ably lost; for all that was over the beach became a sea, without the of what it was before. Many for, though they went aboard part of these foundered; and out to sea, the unhappy passengers, that they threw them. The day was serene, and not stirring. At Cadiz, some minutes after the earthquake began, and last minutes. The water of the cisterns rushed backwards and forwards, froth arose. At ten minutes after was seen coming from the sea, a tance, at least sixty feet high, dashed against the west part of is very rocky. Though these deal of its force, it at last the walls, beat in the breast work, of the building, of eight or the distance of forty or fifty wave was gone, some parts of the water were left quite dry, for



the same violence with which it came. At four after eleven came a second wave, but that four other remarkable ones; the first ten minutes before twelve, the second ten minutes before one; the third ten minutes before two; and the fourth ten minutes before two. The waves, but smaller, and gradually lessened with uncertain intervals till the

At Gibraltar the earthquake was not felt after ten. It began with a tremulous motion of the earth, which lasted about half a

Then followed a violent shock: after trembling of the earth for five or six seconds then another shock not so violent as the first which went off gradually as it began. The shock lasted about two minutes. Some of the people in the battery were seen to rise, others to see the earth having an undulating motion. People were seized with giddiness and some fell down; others were stunned and many that were walking or riding in motion in the earth, but were sick. The shock lasted six feet every fifteen minutes; and then followed that boats and all the small craft near the shore were left aground, with numbers of fish. The flux and reflux lasted till next day, having decreased gradually from 2

At Madrid the earthquake came on at the same time as at Gibraltar, and lasted about six

At first every body thought they were walking on a swimming in their heads; and many that the houses were falling. It was in coaches, nor by those who walked on except very slightly; and no accident happened except that two lads were killed by the fall of a stone cross from the porch of a church. At Seville a violent shock was felt, the bells of the steeples; the water of a well overflowed and as suddenly retired. Saint Lucar de Barreda (mouth of the Guadalquivir) was violently

At Seville (sixteen leagues above) several houses were shaken down; the famous tower of Giralda, La Giralda, opened in the four and the waters were so violently agitated, that the vessels in the river were driven

earthquake was also felt almost as severely as it had been in Europe. Great parts of the city were destroyed. At Arzila (a town in Spain) at 10 A.M. the sea suddenly rose with petuosity, that it lifted up a vessel in the bay, and dropped it with such force on the land, that it was broken to pieces; and a boat was found sketched within land from the sea. At

Mequinez, great numbers of houses fell, and multitudes of people were buried in the ruins. At Morocco, by the falling of houses, people lost their lives; and about eight miles from the city the earth opened and swallowed up a village with all the inhabitants, the place known by the name of the Sons of the Earth, to the number of about 8000 or 9000 persons, together with all their cattle, and, soon after, the earth closed again in the same manner as before. At Saltee, a great damage was done. Near a third part of the houses were overthrown; the waters rushed into the city with great rapidity, and left behind

them great quantities of fish. At Tangier the earthquake began at 10 A.M. and lasted ten or twelve minutes. The sea came up to the walls (a thing never heard of before), and went down immediately with the same rapidity with which it arose, leaving a great quantity of fish behind it. These commotions were repeated eighteen times, and lasted till 6 P.M. At Tetuan the earthquake began at the same time it did at Tangier, but lasted only seven or eight minutes. There were three shocks so extremely violent, that it was feared the whole city would be destroyed. In the city of Funchal, in the island of Madeira, a shock of this earthquake was first perceived at thirty-eight minutes past 9 A.M. It commenced with a rumbling noise in the air, like that of empty carriages passing hastily over a stone pavement. The observers felt the floor immediately after move with a tremulous motion, vibrating very quickly. The shock continued more than a minute; during which space the vibrations, though continual, were weakened and increased in force twice very sensibly. The increase after the first remission of the shock was the most intense. The noise in the air accompanied the shock during the whole of its continuance, and lasted some seconds after the motion of the earth had ceased; dying away like a peal of distant thunder rolling through the air. At three quarters past ten, the sea, which was quite calm, it being a fine day and no wind stirring, retired suddenly some paces; then rising with a great swell, without the least noise, and as suddenly advancing, overflowed the shore, and entered the city. It rose fifteen feet perpendicular above the high water mark, although the tide, which flows there seven feet, was then at half ebb. The water immediately receded; and after having fluctuated four or five times between high and low water mark, it subsided, and the sea remained calm as before. In the northern part of the island the inundation was more violent, the sea there retiring above 100 paces at first, and suddenly returning, overflowed the shore, forcing open doors, breaking down the walls of several magazines and storehouses, leaving great quantities of fish ashore, and in the streets of the village of Machico. All this was the effect of one rising of the sea, for it never afterwards flowed high enough to reach the high-water mark. It continued, however, to fluctuate here much longer before it subsided than at Funchal; and in some places farther to the westward, it was hardly, if at all, perceptible.

Such were the phenomena with which this remarkable earthquake was attended in those places where it was violent. The effects of it, however, reached to an immense distance; and were perceived chiefly by the agitations of the waters, or some slight motion of the earth. The utmost boundaries of this earthquake to the south are unknown; the barbarity of the African nations rendering it impossible to procure any intelligence from them, except where the effects were dreadful. On the north, however, we are assured, that it reached as far as Norway and Sweden. In the former, the waters of several rivers and lakes were violently agitated. In the latter, shocks were felt in several provinces, and



all the rivers and lakes were strongly agitated, especially in Dalecarlia. The river Dala suddenly overflowed its banks, and as suddenly retired. At the same time a lake three miles distant, which had no communication with it, bubbled up with great violence. At Fahlun, a town in Dalecarlia, several strong shocks were felt.

Shocks of this great earthquake were felt in several places of France: commotions of the waters were observed at Angoulesme, Bleville, Havre de Grace, &c.; but considerable shocks were felt at Bayonne, Bourdeaux, and Lyons. In many places of Germany its effects were also very perceptible, and throughout the duchy of Holstein. In Brandenburg, the water of a lake called Libsec, ebbcd and flowed six times in half an hour, with a dreadful noise, the weather being then perfectly calm. The same agitation was observed in the waters of the lakes Muplgast and Netzo; and at this last place they emitted an intolerable stench. In Holland, the agitations were more remarkable. At Alphen on the Rhine, between Leyden and Woerden, in the afternoon of November 1st, the waters were agitated to such a degree, that buoys were broken from their chains, large vessels snapped their cables, smaller ones were thrown out of the water upon the land, and others lying on land were set afloat. At Amsterdam, about 11 A. M., the air being perfectly calm, the waters were suddenly agitated in the canals, so that several boats broke loose; chandeliers were observed to vibrate in the churches; but no motion of the earth, or concussion of any building was observed. At Leyden also, between half an hour after 10 and 11 A. M., the waters rose suddenly in the canals, and made several perceptible undulations. Round the island of Corsica, the sea was violently agitated, and most of the rivers of the island overflowed their banks. Throughout the Milanese, shocks were felt; at Turin there was felt a very violent one, and in Switzerland many rivers turned suddenly muddy without rain. The lake of Neufchatel swelled near two feet above its natural level for a few hours. An agitation was also perceived in the waters of the lake of Zurich. At the island of Antigua, there was such a sea without the bar as had not been known in the memory of man; and after it the water at the wharfs, which used to be six feet deep, was not two inches. At Barbadoes, about 2 P. M. the sea ebbed and flowed in an unusual manner; ran over the wharfs and streets into the houses, and continued thus ebbing and flowing till ten at night.

This agitation of waters was perceived in various parts of Great Britain. At Barlborough, in Derbyshire, between 11 and 12 A. M., in a boat house on the west side of a large body of water called Pibley dam, was heard a surprising and terrible noise; a large swell of water came in a current from the south, and rose two feet on the sloped dam-head at the north end of the water. It then subsided; but returned immediately, though with less violence. The water was thus agitated for three quarters of an hour; growing gradually weaker and weaker every time, till it entirely ceased. At Bushbridge and

Cobham in Surry, at Dunstaki in Suffolk, Oxfordshire, Derbyshire, and near the city of Durham, at half after ten in the morning, like phenomena are recorded to have appeared. At Eyam-bridge, in the Peak of Derby, the overseer of the lead mines, sitting in his work room about eleven o'clock, felt a sudden shock which raised him from his chair, and almost plastered him from the sides of the room. The room was so violently shaken, that he imagined the engine shaft had been falling in. At this time two miners were employed in carting, or drawing along the drifts of the mines, the one and the materials to be raised up at the shaft. The drift in which they were working was about thirty yards deep, and the space from one end to the other fifty yards or upwards. The miner at the end of the drift had just loaded his cart, and was drawing it along; when he was surprised by a shock, which terrified him from his employment, and while he was consulting with his fellow-workmen what means they should take for their safety, they were surprised by a second shock more violent than the first. Another miner who worked about twelve yards below told them that the violence of the second shock had been so great, that it caused the rocks to grind upon one another. His account was interrupted by a third shock, which, after an interval of four or five minutes, was succeeded by a fourth; and, about the same space of time after, by a fifth; none of which were so violent as the second. They heard, after every shock, a loud rumbling in the bowels of the earth, which continued about half a minute, gradually decreasing, or seeming to remove to a greater distance. At White Rock in Glamorganshire, about two hours ebb of the tide, and near three quarters after 6 P. M., a vast quantity of water rushed up with a prodigious noise; floated two large vessels, the least of them above 200 tons; broke their moorings, drove them across the river, and almost overset them. The whole rise and fall of this extraordinary body of water did not last above ten minutes, nor was it felt in any other part of the river, so that it seemed to have rushed out of the earth at that very place. At Loch Lomond in Scotland, about half an hour after 9 A. M., all of a sudden, without the least puff of wind, the water rose against its banks with great rapidity, but immediately subsided, as it was as low as any person then present had ever seen it in the greatest summer drought. Instantly it returned towards the shore, and in five minutes rose again as high as before. The agitation continued at the same rate till fifteen minutes after 10 A. M. taking five minutes to rise, and as many to subside. From fifteen minutes after ten to eleven, the height of every rise came somewhat short of that immediately preceding, taking five minutes to flow, and as many to ebb, till the water was entirely settled. The greatest perpendicular height of this swell was two feet six inches. A still more remarkable phenomenon attending the earthquake in this lake was, the large stone lying at some distance from the shore but in water so shallow that it could not be seen, was forced out of its place in the water upon dry land, leaving a deep furrow in



all along the way in which it had moved. At Ness, about half an hour after nine, a great agitation was observed in the water. Then the river Oich, which runs on the side of Fort Augustus, into the head of the loch was observed to swell very much, and run out from the loch with a pretty high wave, two or three feet higher than the ordinary level.

The motion of the wave was against the current, and it proceeded rapidly for about 200 paces up the river. It then broke on a shallow, raised three or four feet on the banks, after which it returned gently to the loch. It continued flowing in this manner for about

the effects of this earthquake were to be remarkable agitations of the water, to those already described.

Above are the most striking phenomena which the earthquake of November 1st, 1755, produced on the surface of the earth. Those which happened below ground cannot be known. The changes observed in springs &c., which in many places very remarkable. At Colares, in the afternoon of the 31st of October, the water in the fountain was greatly decreased: on the morning of the 1st of November it ran very muddy; after the earthquake, returned to its usual quantity and clearness. On the mountains of rocks were split; and there were rents in the ground, but none considerable.

In some places where formerly there was no water, springs burst forth, which began to run. Some of the largest mountains in Portugal were impetuously shaken from their foundation; most of them at their summits, split and rent in a peculiar manner, and huge masses of them were thrown down into the subjacent valleys. The rock Alvidar, near the hill Fojo, a parapet was broken off, which was separated from its foundation into the sea. At Oporto, on the river Macaas, during the earthquake many springs of water burst forth, some up eighteen or twenty feet, throwing up various colors, which remained on the surface.

A mountainous point, seven or eight miles from St. Ube's, cleft asunder, and threw out vast masses of rock. In Barbary a mountain was rent in two; the two halves fell in different ways, and buried two large towns. In Sicily, a mountain burst open and a fissure issued from it as red as blood. At Tancred, the fountains were dried up, so that there was no water to be had till night. A remarkable change was observed in the medicinal baths of Toplitz, a village in Bohemia famous for its baths. These waters were discovered in the year in which time the principal spring of Toplitz had constantly thrown out hot water of the same quantity, and of the same quality. On the morning of the earthquake, between 11 and 12 A. M. the principal spring cast out such a quantity of water, that in half an hour the baths ran over. About half an hour after this, the spring had flowed turbid and muddy; then, having stopped entirely for a minute, it broke forth again with prodigious violence, driving before it a considerable quantity

of reddish ochre. After this it became clear and flowed as pure as before. It still continues to do so; but the water is in greater quantity, and hotter, than before the earthquake. At Angoulesme in France, a subterraneous noise like thunder was heard; and presently after the earth opened, and discharged a torrent of water mixed with red sand. Most of the springs in the neighbourhood sunk in such a manner, that for some time they were thought to be quite dry. In Britain no considerable alteration was observed in the earth, except that, near the lead mine in Derbyshire, a cleft was observed about a foot deep, six inches wide, and 150 yards in length.

The shocks of this earthquake were felt most violently at sea. Off St. Lucar, the captain of the Nancy frigate felt his ship so violently shaken, that he thought she had struck the ground; but, on heaving the lead, found he was in a great depth of water. Captain Clark from Denia, in N. lat.  $36^{\circ} 24'$ , between 9 and 10 A. M., had his ship shaken and strained as if she had struck upon a rock, so that the seams of the deck opened, and the compass was overturned in the binnacle. The master of a vessel bound to the American Islands, being in N. lat.  $25^{\circ}$ , W. long.  $40^{\circ}$ , and writing in his cabin, heard a violent noise, as he supposed, in the steerage; and shortly after the ship seemed as if she had been suddenly jerked up and suspended by a rope fastened to the mast head. Coming on deck, he found a violent current crossing the ship's way to the leeward. In about a minute, this current returned with great impetuosity, and, at a league distant, three craggy-pointed rocks appeared throwing up water of various colors resembling fire. These phenomena, in two minutes, ended in a black cloud, which ascended very heavily, and after it had risen above the horizon, no rocks were to be seen. Between 9 and 10 A. M. another ship, forty leagues west of St. Vincent, was so strongly agitated, that the anchors, which were lashed, were thrown up. Immediately after this, the ship sunk in the water as low as the main chains. The lead showed a great depth of water, and the line was tinged of a yellow color and smelt of sulphur. The shock lasted about ten minutes, but they felt smaller ones for twenty-four hours. Such were the phenomena of this very remarkable and destructive earthquake, which extended over a tract of at least 4,000,000 of square miles.

The earthquakes, which in 1783 ruined a great part of Italy and Sicily, though much more confined in their extent, than that of 1755, seem to have been not at all inferior in violence. Sir William Hamilton thus states their effects, 'If on a map of Italy, and with your compass on the scale of Italian miles you measure off twenty-two,' says this writer, 'and then fixing the central point in the city of Oppido, form a circle, the radii of which will be twenty-two miles; you will include all the towns, villages, &c., that have been utterly ruined, the spots where the greatest mortality happened, and where there have been the most visible alterations on the face of the earth: then extend your compass on the same scale to seventy-two miles, preserving the same centre, and form another circle, you will include the



ended between  $38^{\circ}$  and  $39^{\circ}$  of N. lat.; that the greatest force of the earthquake had been exerted from the foot of those mountains of the Apennines called Dijo, Sacro, and Caulene, extending west to the Tyrrhene sea; that the towns, villages and farm-houses nearest these mountains, situated either on the hills or the plain, were totally ruined by the shock of the 5th of February about noon; that even the more distant towns had been greatly damaged by the subsequent shocks of the earthquakes, and effectually by those of the 7th, 26th, and 28th, of February, and that of the 1st of March; that from the first shock of the 5th of February, the earth had been in a continual tremor; and that the motion of the earth had been either whirling like a vortex, horizontal, or by pulsations, or by beatings from the bottom upwards. This variety of motions increased the apprehensions of the miserable inhabitants, who expected every moment that the earth would open under their feet, and swallow them up. These phenomena had been attended with irregular and furious gusts of wind: and from all these causes, the face of that part of Calabria comprehended between  $38^{\circ}$  and  $39^{\circ}$  was entirely altered. See CALABRIA. The number of lives lost was estimated at 32,367; but Sir William Hamilton is of opinion, that, including strangers, it could not be less than 40,000. The fate of the inhabitants of Scilla was extremely affecting. On the first shock of the earthquake, February 5th, they had fled to the sea-shore, where they hoped for safety; but in the night a furious wave overflowed the land for three miles, sweeping off in its return 2473 of the inhabitants, among whom was the prince himself, who were at that time either on the strand, or in boats near the shore.

Sir William Hamilton landed on the 6th of May at Pizzo in Calabria Ultra. This town is situated on a volcanic tufa, and had been greatly damaged by the earthquake of February 5th, but completely ruined by that of the 28th March. He was told that the volcano of Stromboli, which is in full view of the town, though distant about fifty miles, had smoked less and thrown up a

down; and that they gave evidence of its approach. 'I have observed, that, in those suffered most by earthquakes, the neighing of a horse, the cawing of a goose, always drove people to flight, and was the occasion of many Ave Marias being repeated, after the shock.' From Monteleone he passed through many a swampy plain, in many parts of which had been more or less their vicinity to the plain. He had not a house left standing when he saw Soriano, and the Do heap of ruins. Passing through of St. Pietro, in his way to distant view of Sicily and th which then sent forth a cons before his arrival at Rosarno swampy plain, in many parts shown small hollows in the e an inverted cone. They were as was the soil near them. that, during the earthquake, fountain of water, mixed w driven up from each of the derable height. Before this the river was dry; but soon overflowed its banks. The had been constant with respect in the plain, during the dread of February. In the other phenomenon had been exhibited always low and rushy. Bet Rosarno they passed the strong timber bridge, 700 p cracks made in the banks an river by the earthquake, it in one part; and, the level were placed having been v bridge had taken an undulat rail on each side was curious separated parts having been then passable. The town of R of Monteleone's palace, was



ents had quitted. Their course down the was sufficiently rapid to prove that it had been a perfect level. The earthquake, he says, had opened some depositories of rain in the clay hills which surround the valley; water, mixed with the loose soil, taking large suddenly through the undermined surmounting it up with the large olive and mulberry-trees, and a thatched cottage, floated the piece of ground, with all its vegetation, a mile down the valley, where it then with most of the trees erect. These two were about a mile long and half a mile wide. 'I travelled,' says he afterwards, 'four days in this plain, in the midst of such misery as can be described. The force of the earthquake was so great, that all the inhabitants of the towns were buried, alive or dead, in the ruins of their houses in an instant. The town of Oppido was large, but ill situated between two ravines, that were subject to overflow: 2100 out of 2500, lost their lives here on the fatal 5th of February.' At Casal Nuova the princess Gerace, with 4000 of her subjects, perished on the day by the explosion. Some who had dug alive out of the ruins, told our author, they had felt their houses fairly lifted up without having the least previous notice. An instant of Casal Nuova was at that moment on the verge of overlooking the plain; when, feeling the ground turning round, instead of the town he saw a thick cloud of white dust like smoke, the natural effect of the crushing of the buildings, the mortar flying off. Casal Nuova was so completely destroyed by this dreadful shock, that not a house nor street remained, but all lay in a confused heap of ruins. Castillace, and Milite, were both in the same situation. Terra Nuova, situated in the same plain, stood between two ravines, which, with the torrents from the mountains, had cut deep and wide chasms in the sandy clay soil of which it is composed. At Casal Nuova the ravine is not less than 500 feet deep, and three quarters of a mile broad. 'Here,' says the great depth of the ravine, and the violent motion of the earth, two huge portions of the matter, on which a great part of the town stood, had consisted of some hundred houses, had been hurled into the ravine, and nearly across it, at the distance of half a mile from the place where they formerly stood; and what is very extraordinary, many of the inhabitants who had taken a singular leap in their houses, were nevertheless dug out alive, and some unhurt.' Sir William's guide there, who was both a priest and a physician, having been buried in the ruins of his house by the first shock, was immediately blown up by it and delivered by the second. There are many well attested instances of the same instance having happened in different parts of Calabria. Part of the rock on which the city of Oppido was detached, with several houses, into the ravine: 'But that,' says Sir William, 'is a trifling circumstance in comparison of the very great tracts of land, with plantations of vines and olives, which had been detached from one side of the ravine to the other, though the distance is more than half a mile. It is well attested, that a countryman, who was

ploughing his field in this neighbourhood with a pair of oxen, was transported with his field and team clear, from one side of a ravine to the other, and that neither he nor his oxen were hurt. Having walked over the ruins of Oppido, I descended into the ravine, and examined carefully the whole of it. Here I saw indeed the wonderful force of the earthquake, which has produced exactly the same effects as those described in the ravine at Terra Nuova, but on a scale infinitely greater. The enormous masses of the plain, detached from each side of the ravine, lie sometimes in confused heaps, forming real mountains, and having stopped the course of two rivers, one of which is very considerable, great lakes are already formed; and if not assisted by nature or art, so as to give the rivers their due course, must infallibly be the cause of a general infection in the neighbourhood. Sometimes I met with a detached piece of the surface of the plain, of many acres in extent, with the large oaks and olive trees, with corn or lupins under them, growing as well and in as good order at the bottom of the ravine as their companions, from whence they were separated, do on their native soil, at least 500 feet higher, and at the distance of about three quarters of a mile. I met with whole vineyards in the same order in the bottom, that had likewise taken the same journey. As the banks of the ravine, from whence these pieces came, are now bare and perpendicular, I perceived that the upper soil was a reddish earth, and the under one a sandy white clay, very compact, and like a soft stone. The impulse these huge masses received, either from the violent motion of the earth alone, or that assisted with the additional one of the volcanic exhalations set at liberty, seems to have acted with greater force on the lower and more compact stratum, than on the upper cultivated crust: for I constantly observed, where these cultivated lands lay, the under stratum of compact clay had been driven some hundred yards farther, and lay in confused blocks; and, as I observed, many of these blocks were in a cubical form. The under soil, having had a greater impulse, and leaving the upper in its flight, naturally accounts for the order in which the trees, vineyards, and vegetation fell, and remain at present in the bottom of the ravine. In another part of the bottom of the ravine, there is a mountain composed of the same clay soil, and which was probably a piece of the plain detached by an earthquake at some former period: it is about 250 feet high, and 400 feet diameter at its basis. This mountain, as is well attested, has travelled down the ravine near four miles; having been put in motion by the earthquake of the 5th of February. The abundance of rain which fell at that time, the great weight of the fresh detached pieces of the plain, which I saw heaped up at the back of it, the nature of the soil, of which it is composed, and particularly its situation on a declivity, account well for this phenomenon; whereas the reports which came to Naples, of a mountain having leaped four miles, had rather the appearance of a miracle. I found some single timber trees also, with a lump of their native soil at their roots, standing upright in the bottom of the ravine, and which



had been detached from the bottom of the plain above-mentioned. I observed also, that many confused heaps of the loose soil, detached by the earthquake from the plains on each side of the ravine, had actually run like volcanic lava (having probably been assisted by the heavy rain) and produced many effects much resembling those of lava, during their course down a great part of the ravine. At Santa Cristina, near Oppido, the like phenomena have been exhibited, and the great force of the earthquake of the 5th of February seems to have been exerted on these parts, and at Casal Nuova, and Terra Nuova.' At Reggio the shock had been much less violent than in the places he had hitherto visited; and 'though there was not a house in it inhabited or habitable, yet' says he, 'after having been several days in the plain, where every building is levelled with the ground, a house with a roof, or a church with a steeple, was to me a new and refreshing object.' In this place he had an account from the archbishop of the earthquakes of 1779 and 1780, which obliged the inhabitants, in number 16,400, to remain in barracks for several months, without having done any considerable damage to the town. He was informed also, that all animals and birds are in a greater or less degree much more sensible of an approaching shock of an earthquake, than any human being; but that geese, above all, seem to be the soonest and most alarmed at the approach of a shock; if in the water, they quit it immediately; and will not be driven into it for some time after. The shock which damaged Reggio came on gently, so that the people had time to make their escape, and only 126 were killed; but in the plain this shock was as instantaneous as it was violent and destructive. On the 14th of May, Sir William Hamilton left Reggio, and set sail for Messina. He found that the shock, though very violent there, had been far inferior to what he had seen the effects of in other places. Many houses, even in the lower part of the town, were standing, and some little damaged; but, in the upper and more elevated situations, the earthquakes seemed to have scarce had any effect. 'A strong instance (says our author) of this is, that the convent of Santa Barbara, and that called the Novitiato de Gesniti, both on an elevated situation, have not a crack in them; and that the clock of the latter has not been deranged in the least by the earthquakes, which have afflicted this country for four months past, and which still continue in some degree.' Notwithstanding this comparative mildness, the shock at Messina had been very terrible. All the beautiful front of the palazzate, which extended in very lofty uniform buildings, in the shape of a crescent, had been in some parts totally ruined, in others less; and there were cracks in the earth of the quay, a part of which had sunk above a foot below the level of the sea. During the earthquake, fire had been seen to issue from the cracks of the quay; but our author is persuaded that this was only a vapor charged with electrical fire, or inflammable air. Here also he was informed, that the shock of the 5th of February had been from the

bottom upwards; but the subsequent ones generally horizontal or vorticose. A remarkable circumstance was observed at Messina, and through the whole coast of Calabria, which had been most affected by the earthquake, viz. that small fish called cicirelli, resembling the English white bait, but larger, and which usually lie at the bottom of the sea buried in the sand, had ever after the commencement of the earthquake to the time this account was written, continued to be taken near the surface, and that in such abundance as to be common food for the poorer of the people; whereas before the earthquake this fish was rare, and reckoned among the greatest delicacies. Fish of all kinds also were taken in greater abundance on these coasts after the commencement of the earthquake than before; which our author supposes to have been occasioned either by the volcanic matter being heated the bottom of the sea, or that the continual tremor of the earth had forced them out of their retreats. At Messina, Sir William was told that on the 5th of February, and for three days following, the sea, about a quarter of a mile from the citadel, rose, and boiled in an extraordinary manner, and with a most horrid and alarming noise; the water in other parts of the strait being perfectly calm. 'This,' says he, 'seems to point out exhalations or eruptions from cracks at the bottom of the sea, which may probably have happened during the violence of the earthquakes; all of which I am convinced have here a volcanic origin.'

In various parts of South America, earthquakes have been equally tremendous and fatal. It is remarkable that the city of Lima, the capital of Peru, situated in about 12° of S. lat. although scarcely ever visited by tempests, and equally unacquainted with rain as with thunder and lightning, has been singularly exposed to the fury of earthquakes, which happen here so frequently, that the inhabitants are under continual apprehensions of being, from their weakness and violence, buried in the ruins of their own houses: yet these earthquakes, though so sudden, have their presages; one of the principal of which is a rumbling noise in the bowels of the earth, about a minute before the shocks are felt, that seems to pervade all the adjacent surrounding part; this is followed by dismal howlings of the dogs, who seem to prance at an approaching danger. The beasts of burden passing the streets stop, and by a natural instinct spread open their legs, the better to secure themselves from falling. On these occasions, the terrified inhabitants fly from their houses and the streets with such precipitation, that, if it happens in the night, they appear quite naked, the urgency of the danger at once banishing a sense of delicacy or shame. Thus the streets exhibit such odd and singular figures as may afford matter of diversion, were it possible to be diverted in so terrible a moment. This public concourse is accompanied with the cries of children waked out of their sleep, blended with lamentations of the women, whose agonizing prayers to the saints increase the commotion and confusion. The men are also not



to refrain from giving vent to their rage, so that the whole city exhibits a dreadful consternation and horror.

Earthquakes that have occurred at the West of Spanish America are very numerous. Since the establishment of the Spaniards in 1532; but the damage was much less considerable than in some of the succeeding years. After, Lima was again visited by an earthquake, so dreadful, that it is still commemorated every year. In 1609 was a third, which overturned many

On the 27th of November, 1630, such great damage was done in the city by an earthquake, that, in acknowledgment of its not having been entirely demolished, a festival on the 1st is annually celebrated. Twenty-four years afterwards, on the 3rd of November, the lately edifices in the city, and a great number of houses, were destroyed by a similar shock; but the inhabitants retiring, few perished. Another dreadful percussion

occurred in 1678; but one of the most terrible was on the 28th of October, 1687. It began at the morning, and destroyed many of the public buildings and houses, in which a number of the inhabitants perished; but this was more than a prelude to what followed.

For two hours afterwards the shock continued, with such impetuous concussions, that the city lay in ruins, and the inhabitants felt themselves happy in being only spectators of the devastation by having saved their lives, with the loss of all their property. This second shock the sea, retiring consequently, and then returning in mountainous waves, entirely overwhelmed Callao, which is at a great distance from Lima, and all the adjacent country, together with the miserable inhabitants. From this time six other earthquakes struck at Lima previous to that of 1746, on the 1st of October, at half an hour after ten at night, when the concussions began with such violence, that, in little more than three minutes, the greatest part, if not all the buildings in the city were destroyed, burying under their ruins the inhabitants who had not made sufficient provision for the streets and squares, the only place of safety. At length the horrible effects of the first shock ceased; but the tranquillity of short duration, the concussions swiftly following each other. The fort of Callao also lay in ruins; but what it suffered from the earthquake in its building was inconsiderable, compared to the dreadful catastrophe that followed; for the sea, as is usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, lay in mountainous waves, foaming with violence of the agitation, and suddenly inundated Callao and the neighbouring country in the night. This, however, was not entirely

caused by the first swell of the waves; for the sea, returning further, returned with still greater violence, and covered both the walls and buildings of the place; so that what even escaped the first inundation, was totally swallowed up by those succeeding mountainous waves. Twenty-three ships and vessels, great numbers, were then in the harbour, nineteen of

which were sunk, and the other four, among which was a frigate named *St. Fermin*, were carried by the force of the waves to a considerable distance up the country. This terrible inundation and earthquake extended to other parts on the coast, and several towns underwent the same fate as the city of Lima; where the number of persons who perished, within two days after it began, amounted, according to the bodies found, to 1300, beside the maimed and wounded, many of whom lived only a short time in great torture.

Various theories have been invented to explain the phenomena of earthquakes. Till lately, the hypotheses of modern philosophers were much the same with those of the ancients. Anaxagoras supposed the cause of earthquakes to be subterranean clouds bursting out into lightning, which shook the vaults that confined them. Others imagined that the arches, which had been weakened by continual subterranean fires, at length fell in. Others derived these double convulsions from the rarefied steam of waters heated by some neighbouring fires (an hypothesis revived in modern times by M. Dolomieu); whilst some, among whom was Epicurus, and several of the Peripatetics ascribed them to the ignition of certain inflammable exhalations. This last hypothesis has been adopted by many of the most celebrated moderns, as Gassendus, Kircher, Schottus, Varenus, Des Cartes, Du Hamel, Honorius, Fabri, &c. The philosopher last mentioned, indeed supposed, that waters prodigiously rarefied by heat, might sometimes occasion earthquakes. The others supposed, that there are many and vast cavities under ground, which have a communication with one another: some of which abound with waters; others with vapours and exhalations, arising from inflammable substances, as nitre, bitumen, sulphur, &c. These combustible exhalations they supposed to be kindled by a subterranean spark, or by some active flame gliding through a narrow fissure from without, or by the fermentation of some mixture; and when this happens, that they may necessarily produce pulses, tremors, and ruptures at the surface, according to the number and diversity of the cavities, and the quantity and activity of the inflammable matter. This hypothesis they illustrated by a variety of experiments, such as mixtures of iron filings and brimstone buried in the earth, gun-powder confined in pits, &c., by all which a shaking of the earth will be produced. Dr. Woodward suggests another hypothesis. He supposes that the subterranean heat or fire, which is continually elevating water out of the abyss, which, according to him, occupies the centre of the earth, to furnish rain, dew, springs, and rivers, may be stopped in some particular part. When this obstruction happens, the heat causes a great swelling and commotion in the waters of the abyss; and at the same time, making the like effort against the superincumbent earth, that agitation and concussion of it is occasioned which we call an earthquake. M. Amontons, supposing the atmosphere to be about forty-five miles high, and that the density of the air increases in proportion to the absolute height of the superincumbent column of fluid,



creases the spring of the air above what it has in its natural state, in our climate, by a quantity equal to a third of the weight wherewith it is pressed. Whence we may conclude, that a degree of heat, which on the surface of the earth will only have a moderate effect, may be capable of a very violent one below. And, as we are certain that there are in nature degrees of heat much greater than that of boiling water, it is possible there may be some whose violence, further increased by the immense weight of the air, may be sufficient to break and overturn this solid orb of 43,528 fathoms; whose weight, compared to that of the included air, would be but a trifle.

In March, 1749, an earthquake was felt at London and several other places in Britain. Dr. Stukely, who had been much engaged in electrical experiments, began to suspect that phenomena of this kind ought to be attributed not to vapors or fermentations generated in the bowels of the earth, but to electricity. In a paper published by him on this subject, he rejects all the above hypotheses for the following reasons:—1. That there is no evidence of any remarkable cavernous structure of the earth; but that, on the contrary, there is reason to presume that it is in a great measure solid, so as to leave little room for internal changes and fermentations within its substance; nor do coal-pits, when on fire, ever produce any thing resembling an earthquake. 2. In the earthquake at London, in March 1749, there was no such thing as fire, vapor, smoke, smell, or an eruption of any kind observed, though the shock affected a circuit of fifty miles in diameter. This consideration alone, of the extent of surface shaken by an earthquake, he thought sufficient to overthrow the supposition of its being owing to the expansion of any subterraneous vapors. For, as small fire-balls bursting in the air propagate a sulphureous smell to the distance of several miles, it cannot be supposed that so immense a force, acting instantaneously on that compass of ground, should never break the surface of it.

cept electricity. So in Asia must have been 300 miles in base, and 200 in the axis; gun-powder that has been in motion of it, much less any so far below the surface, could A subterraneous explosion in the manner in which ships even fish, are affected during subterraneous explosion with gradual swell, and not give to the water as would make From these circumstances that an earthquake was a shock as those in electrical experiments hypothesis was confirmed attending earthquakes, particularly 1750, which gave rise The weather, for five or six been uncommonly warm; south-west, without rain; so have been in a state peculiar electrical shock. Before the don, all vegetables had been u and electricity is well known tation. The aurora borealis about that time; and, just before had been twice repeated in never been seen before. In southerly, contrary to what land; so that the Italians, and earthquakes were frequent, earthquake. The year had fire-balls, lightning, and com are meteors of an electrical circumstances, nothing, he produce an earthquake, but a non-electric body; which is from the atmosphere. Hence non-electric cloud discharge i part of the earth, in that hi an earthquake must necessarily charge from an excited tube tion in the human body, so t tric matter from many miles



shakes) he thought could be accounted for on electrical principles; for, in a subterranean eruption, the direct contrary would happen. Arses and sulphureous smells, which are sometimes observed in earthquakes, might, he thought, be more easily accounted for on the supposition of their being electrical phenomena, than their being occasioned by eruptions from the bowels of the earth. So also the suddenness of the concussion, felt at the same instant over such a large surface, and the little violence also which earthquakes generally occasion, sufficiently point out what sort of motion is not a convulsion of the bowels of the earth, but a uniform vibration along its surface, like that of a musical string, or a glass, when struck on the edge with one's finger. The circumstance of earthquakes chiefly affecting the low, moist places along rivers, &c., is a further argument of their being electrical phenomena. As illustrated by a particular account of the earthquake in which the earthquake was conveyed. The argument he uses is taken from the effects which it had on persons of weak constitutions, who for a day or two after it happened, troubled with pains in the back, rheumatisms, hysterics, and other disorders; just in the same manner as could have been after an actual electrification to some, these disorders proved fatal. The hypothesis was advanced by Signior Becchi, without knowing any thing of Dr. Stukely's series.

Priestley, in his History of Electricity, writes, upon these theories, that a more probable hypothesis may be formed out of them both. He says he, 'the electric matter to be accumulated in one part of the surface of the earth, on account of the dryness of the season not being able to diffuse itself; it may force its way into the higher regions of the air, forming clouds in the passage out of the vapors which float in the atmosphere, and occasion a sudden shower, which may further promote the passage of the electric fluid.'

The whole surface, thus unloaded, will receive a concussion, like any other conducting substance, on parting with, or receiving, a quantity of the electric fluid. The rushing noise will be sweep over the whole extent of the country. And upon this supposition also the electric fluid, in its discharge from the country, will follow the course of the rivers, and also take advantage of any eminences to facilitate its passage into the higher regions of the air.' Dr. Stukely, making experiments with a battery on the passage of the electrical fluid over different conducting substances, and, among these, over water, and remarking a resemblance between the passage over the surface of the water, and which Dr. Stukely supposed to sweep the surface of the earth, when a considerable quantity of the electric fluid is discharged to the clouds during an earthquake, immediately suspected that the water which it passed, and which was visibly set into a tremulous motion, must receive a vibration resembling that which is given to the surface of the sea on such occasions. To try this, he himself, and others present, put their hands in the water at the time that the electric flash was made over its surface; and they felt a sudden

concussion given to them, exactly like that which affects ships at sea during an earthquake. This percussion was felt in various parts of the water, but was strongest near the place where the explosion was made. 'This similarity in the effect,' he says, 'is a considerable evidence of a similarity in the cause. Pleased with this resemblance of the earthquake, I endeavoured to imitate that great natural phenomenon in other respects: and, it being frosty weather, I took a plate of ice, and placed two sticks about three inches high on their ends, so that they would just stand with ease; and upon another part of the ice I placed a bottle, from the cork of which was suspended a brass ball with a fine thread. Then, making the electrical flash pass over the surface of the ice, which it did with a very loud report, the nearer pillar fell down, while the more remote stood; and the ball which had hung nearly still, immediately began to make vibrations about an inch in length, and nearly in a right line from the place of the flash. I afterwards diversified this apparatus, erecting more pillars, and suspending more pendulums, &c.; sometimes upon bladders stretched on the mouth of open vessels, and at other times on wet boards swimming in a vessel of water. This last method seemed to answer the best of any; for the board representing the earth, and the water the sea, the phenomena of them both during an earthquake may be imitated at the same time; pillars, &c., being erected on the board, and the electric flash being made to pass either over the board, over the water, or over them both.' The last three hypotheses, though somewhat differing, yet agree in the main; but, if a particular solution of the phenomena is required, every one of them will be found deficient: nor does the theory of this subject appear to have been sufficiently understood to be worth pursuing much further; we only therefore add that the late Dr. Mason Goode attempts to account for the phenomena of earthquakes by the old theory of subterraneous fires.

That fires to an enormous extent, and produced by various causes, may exist at different depths beneath the surface of the earth, must, he thinks, be clear to every one who has attentively considered the subject: and he quotes a curious series of experiments, lately conducted by Sir James Hall, to prove that where the substances in which such fires occur lie profound, and are surmounted by a very deep and heavy superincumbent pressure; and, more especially, where they, at the same time, contain large portions of elastic gases; the effects of such fires will be prodigiously greater, and more diversified, than where these circumstances are absent.

Earthquakes and volcanoes may be reckoned, for the most part, as this writer supposes, among the most powerful and extraordinary of these effects; and, as resulting from those chemical changes which the agency of fire principally produces in the interior of the solid crust of the globe. They have, probably, little further connexion with electricity, he says, than as causes that occasionally destroy the equilibrium; for although some authors have inferred, from the great velocity with which the shock of an earthquake is transmitted from place to place, that its



nature must be electrical; yet others have, with greater probability, attributed the rapid succession of the effects to the operation of a single cause, acting like subterranean heat, at a great distance below the earth's surface. There are, however, some circumstances which indicate such a connexion between the state of the atmosphere and the approach of an earthquake, as cannot easily be explained by any hypothesis. The shocks of earthquakes, and the eruptions of volcanoes, continues Dr. G., are in all probability modifications of the effects of one common cause; the same countries are liable to both of them; and, where the agitation produced by an earthquake extends farther than there is any reason to suspect a subterranean commotion, it is probably propagated through the earth nearly in the same manner as a noise is conveyed through the air. See VOLCANO.

**EARWAX.** See ANATOMY.

**EARWIG,** in zoology. See FORFICULA.

**EASDALE,** a small island of the Hebrides, annexed to Argyshire, about one mile and a half in diameter. It is famous for having afforded a great quantity of slate (*ardesia tegularis*). This, indeed, occupies the whole island, which is also traversed in many places with basaltic veins, and thin layers of quartzose and calcareous stones.

<b>EASE,</b> <i>n. s. &amp; v. a.</i>	Sax. eath; Goth. <i>azek</i> ;
<b>EASEFUL,</b> <i>adj.</i>	Fr. <i>aïse</i> ; Ital. <i>agio</i> , which
<b>EASELESS,</b> <i>adj.</i>	Menage derives from Lat.
<b>EASE-LOVING,</b>	<i>otium</i> , becoming <i>ocium</i> ,
<b>EASEMENT,</b> <i>n. s.</i>	<i>ogium</i> , <i>ogeo</i> . Quiet; rest;
<b>EASY,</b> <i>adj.</i>	tranquillity; peace; re-
<b>EASILY,</b> <i>adv.</i>	pose; freedom from pain,
<b>EASINESS,</b> <i>n. s.</i>	disturbance, labor, or en-

gagement. The verb seems to be derived from the noun, and means to relieve, deliver, or rescue from trouble, disturbance, burden, or pain; or to alleviate, soothe, or assuage pain or trouble. Easeful and easy are peaceful; tranquil. Easeless, the opposite of this. Easement is relief; assistance; support; and in law, a service that one neighbour has of another by charter or prescription, without profit; as a way through his ground, a sink, &c.

I seye to you that to Sodom it schal be *esier* than to that cytee in that day. *Wiclif. Luk. 10.*

I will *ease* me of mine adversaries. *Isaiah i. 24.*

The chambers and the stablis werin wide,  
And well we werin *esid* at the best. *Chaucer.*

She sodeinly enhaunceth them aloft.  
And sodeynly mischeueth all the flocke.  
The head that late lay *easily* and full soft,  
In stede of pylows lyeth after on the blocke.

*Sir T. More.*

The service of God, in the solemn assembly of saints, is a work, though *easy*, yet withal very weighty, and of great respect. *Hooher.*

Since the custom of *easiness* to alter and change laws is so evil, no doubt but to bear a tolerable sore is better than to venture on a dangerous remedy. *Id.*

Complain, queen Margaret, and tell thy grief;  
It shall be *eased*, if France can yield relief.

*Shakspeare.*

I spy a black, suspicious, threatening cloud,  
That will encounter with our glorious sun,  
Ere he attain his *easeful* western bed.

*Id. Henry VI.*

You may sooner, by imagination, *quod* a motion, than raise or cease it; as it make a dog go slower, than to make him

Sounds move swiftly, and at great d they require a medium well disposed, an mission is *easily* stopped. *Id. Noh*

We should not find her half so brau  
To lead it to the wars and to the sea  
To make it suffer watchings, hanger  
When it might feed with plenty, rest

Send me some tokens that my hope  
Or that my *easeless* thoughts may sleep

Believe me, friends, loud tumults  
With half the *easiness* that they are n

Old friends are best. King James v  
his old shoes; they were *easiest* for his

Bold adventure to discover wide  
That dismal world, if any clime perch  
Might yield them *easier* habitation.

Baited with reasons not unpleasib  
Win me into the *easy* hearted man,  
And hug him into snarls.

An aching head will be no more *easie*  
crown than a common night cap. *See*

Is it not to bid defiance to all manki  
their universal opinions and designs,  
passing your life as well and *easily*,  
pass it as ill and as miserable as you ca

Is it a small crime to wound himself  
heart, to deprive himself of all the pleas  
or enjoyments of life?

That which we call *ease* is only an i  
freedom from pain.

If ere night the gathering clouds we  
A song will help the beating storm to b  
And that thou mayest not be too late a  
Sing, and I'll *ease* thy shoulders of thy

As if with sports my sufferings I coul  
The seeming *easiness* of Pindarick r  
it spread; but it has not been consider  
The priest on skins of offering takes  
And nightly visions in his slumber sees  
With such deceits he gained their own  
Too prone to credit his perfidious arts.

Lucan, content with praise, may lie a  
In costly grots and marble palaces.  
Help and *ease* children the best you  
no means bemoan them.

No body feels pain that he wishes n  
of, with a desire equal to that pain, an  
from it.

The safest way to secure honesty,  
foundations of it early in liberality, and  
part with to others whatever they have  
selves.

Keep your thoughts *easy* and free, th  
wherein the mind is capable of receiv  
mations.

I think the reason I have assigne  
interest in that rest and *easiness* we enjoy

Give to him, and he shall but laugh at  
save his life, but, when you have don  
own.

Abstruse and mystick thoughts you a  
With painful care, but seeming *easiness*  
For truth shines brightest through the



easy and difficulty are relative terms, and relate to power; and a thing may be difficult to a man, which yet may be easy to the same person assisted with a greater strength. *Tillotson*.  
I vainly feel whether at this instant we are easy or happy or miserable. *Smalridge*.

How for sacrifice our sorrows ease?  
Our tears reverse his firm decrees? *Prior*.  
Soon provoked, she easily forgives;  
Each she suffers, as she much believes. *Id.*  
A marriage of love is pleasant; a marriage of industry; and a marriage where both meet—happy. *Addison's Spectator*.

Men are easy in their circumstances, they are easily enemies to innovations. *Id. Freeth*.  
Though he speaks of such medicines as procure ease and ease pain, he doth not determine their use. *Arbuthnot*.

Ease in writing comes from art, not chance;  
To move easiest who have learned to dance. *Pope*.

See the easy vigour of a line,  
Denham's strength and Waller's sweetness join. *Id.*

Peace, under a colour of friendship to religion, men to it by the easiness of the terms it offers. *Rogers*.

yourselves ease from the fatigue of waiting. *Swift*.

As the advantage of a free lodging, and some conveniences. *Id.*

Should be allowed each of them such a rent to make them easy. *Id.*

Snake resolves, and pass into decrees,  
Tensions of the mind! with how much ease  
Resolves, doth passion make a flaw,  
Leaving to nothing, what was raised to law. *Churchill*.

the fate of mankind, too often, to seem insensible  
What they may enjoy at the easiest rate. *Sterne*.

Men have their particular sins, which do most unsettle them, so they have their particular temptations which do most easily overcome them. *Mason*.  
Easier to suppress the first desire than to satisfy that follow it. *Franklin*.

Scruples thus silenced, Tom felt more at ease,  
And with his comrades the apples to seize;  
Heated and protested, but joined in the plan;  
Heated in the plunder, but pitied the man. *Cowper*.

THE, among painters, the frame whereon a picture was laid.

THE PIECES are such small pieces, either of pictures or landscapes, as are painted on a wall, thus called to distinguish them from larger pictures drawn on walls, ceilings, &c.

THE, in the sea-language, signifies the letting a rope or the like. Thus, to ease the cable or sheet, is to let them go slack; to ease the helm, is to let the ship go more large, before the wind, or more larboard.

THE, n. s. & adj. } Sax. east; Belg. oost;  
EASTLY, adj. } Swed. and Teut. oest;  
EASTLING, n. s. } Goth. aust, east (austa, to put forth). Mr. Tooke  
EASTERN, adj. } thinks, from *grst*, angry,  
EASTLAND, } enraged, 'those who can-  
EASTWARD. } nounce it, usually supplying its place with  
EAST is Mod. Goth. for the morn, and  
EAST, the dawn, much more probable derivations.  
EAST, eu says, ab Heb. מִזְרֵחַ, à radice עָרָא, to

come or go forth. An easterling is an inhabitant of the east; eastland, pertaining to that quarter of the world; eastward, in that direction.

He oft in battle vanquished

Those spoilful, rich, and swarming Easterlings. *Spenser*.

I would not be the villain that thou thinkest  
For the whole space that 's in the tyrant's grasp,  
And the rich East to boot. *Shakespeare. Macbeth*.

When the easterly winds or breezes are kept off by some high mountains from the vallies, whereby the air, wanting motion, doth become exceeding unhealthy. *Raleigh*.

The gorgeous East, with richest hand,  
Pours on her kings barbarick pearl, and gold. *Milton*.

The angel caught  
Our lingering parents, and to the eastern gate  
Led them direct. *Id.*

The moon, which performs its motion swifter than the sun, gets eastward out of his rays, and appears when the sun is set. *Browne's Vulgar Errors*.

What shall we do, or where direct our flight?  
Eastward, as far as I could cast my sight,  
From opening heavens, I saw descending light. *Dryden*.

These give us a view of the most easterly, southerly, and westerly parts of England. *Graunt's Bills of Mortality*.

They counting forwards towards the East, did allow 180 degrees to the Portugals eastward. *Abbot*.  
The eastern end of the isle rises up in precipices. *Addison*.

Melancholy is a kind of demon that haunts our island, and often conveys herself to us in an easterly wind. *Id.*  
Like eastern kings a lazy state they keep. *Pope*.

Water he chuses clear, light, without taste or smell,  
Drawn from springs with an easterly exposition. *Arbuthnot*.

Eastern tyrants from the light of heaven  
Seclude their bosom slaves. *Thomson*.

Eastern Java there  
Kneels with the native of the furthest west;  
And Æthiopia spreads abroad the hand,  
And worships. *Cowper*.

There mildly dimpling, Ocean's cheek  
Reflects the tints of many a peak  
Caught by the laughing tides that lave  
These Edens of the eastern wave. *Byron. Bride of Abydos*.

EAST, one of the four cardinal points of the world; being that point of the horizon where the sun is seen to rise when in the equinoctial. In Italy, and throughout the Mediterranean, the east wind is called the levante: in Greek ανατολη and ανατολης, because it comes from the side of the sun, απ' ηλίου; in Latin, eurus.

EASTER, n. s. Sax. eastræ; Dut. ooster; Germ. ostern. The day on which the Christian church commemorates our Saviour's resurrection. See below.

Didst thou not fall out with a taylor for wearing his new doublet before Easter? *Shakespeare. Romeo and Juliet*.

Victor's unbrother-like heat towards the Eastern churches, in the controversy about Easter, fomented that difference into a schism. *Decay of Piety*.

EASTER is called by the Greeks, Πάσχα, and by the Latins Pascha, from פֶּסַח, a Hebrew word signifying passage, applied to the Jewish feast of



the passover. It is called Easter in English, from the Saxon goddess Eostre, whose festival was held in April. The Asiatic churches kept their Easter upon the very same day that the Jews observed their passover, and others on the first Sunday after the first full moon in the new year. This controversy was determined in the council of Nice; when it was ordained that Easter should be kept upon one and the same day, which should always be Sunday, in all Christian churches in the world. But though the Christian churches differed as to the time of celebrating Easter, yet they all agreed in showing particular respect and honor to this festival. On this day, prisoners and slaves were set free, and the poor liberally provided for. The eve or vigil of this festival was celebrated with more than ordinary pomp, which continued till midnight, it being a tradition of the church that our Saviour rose a little after midnight; but in the east the vigil lasted till cock-crowing. It was in conformity to the custom of the Jews, in celebrating their passover on the fourteenth day of the first month, that the primitive fathers ordered that the fourteenth day of the moon, from the calendar new moon which immediately follows the 21st of March, at which time the vernal equinox happened upon that day, should be deemed the paschal full moon, and that the Sunday after should be Easter-day; and it is upon this account that the English rubric has appointed it upon the first Sunday after the first full moon immediately following the 21st day of March. Whence it appears that the true time for celebrating Easter, according to the intention of the council of Nice, was to be the first Sunday after the first full moon following the vernal equinox, or when the sun entered into the first point of Aries; and this was pope Gregory's principal design in reforming the calendar, to have Easter celebrated according to the determination of the council of Nice. For finding Easter, see CHRONOLOGY.

EASTER ISLAND, an island in the South Sea, thought to have been first discovered, in 1686, by one Davis an Englishman, who called it Davis's Land. It was next visited by commodore Roggewein, a Dutchman, in 1722, who gave it the name of Easter Island, and published many fabulous accounts concerning the country and its inhabitants. It was also visited by a Spanish ship in 1770, the captain of which gave it the name of St. Carlos. The most authentic account of this island, however, which has appeared, is that of captain Cook and Mr. Forster, who visited it in March 1770. According to them, the island is about ten or twelve leagues in circumference, and of a triangular figure; its greatest length from north-west to south-east is about four leagues, and its greatest breadth two. The hills are so high that they may be seen at the distance of fifteen or sixteen leagues. The north and east points of the island are of a considerable height; between them, on the south-east side, the shore forms an open bay, in which captain Cook thinks the Dutch anchored in 1722. He himself anchored on the west side of the island, three miles north from the south point. This, he says, is a good road with easterly winds, but a dangerous one when the wind blows from the contrary quarter,

as the other on the south-east side is with easterly winds: so that there is no accommodation to be had for shipping round the island. The island is extremely barren, it bears evident marks not only of a volcano but of having been not very long ruined by an eruption. As they approached the south point, Mr. Forster informs us that he observed broken rocks, whose cavernous appearance, and black and ferruginous color, to indicate that they had been thrown out by a terraneous fire. Two detached rocks, at a quarter of a mile off this point; one singular on account of its shape, as a huge column; and both were inhabited by fowls of sea-fowls. On landing, they found the ground covered with rocks and stones of all sizes, which seemed to have acquired a black and rough texture. Several shrivelled spots grew among these stones, and when the late appearance of the country. To the advanced, the more ruinous the face of the country seemed to be. The roads were rugged, and filled with heaps of rocks among which the Europeans could not pass but with the greatest difficulty; sometimes leaped from one stone to another, prising agility and ease. As they went along the island, they found still of the same nature; till at last they found a large rock of black melted lava, which to contain some iron, and on which there was no soil nor grass, nor any mark of vegetation withstanding this general barrenness there are several large tracts covered with a cultivated soil, which produces potatoes of a yellow color, as sweet as carrots, plantain, sugar-canes. The soil is a dry but the inhabitants use the grass which grows between the stones in other parts of the island for the manure, and for preserving their vegetables from the heat of the sun. The most remarkable curiosity belonging to this island is the number of colossal statues; of which very few remain entire. These statues are only on the sea-coast. On the east side of the island were seen the ruins of three stone works, on each of which had been one of these large statues; but they were all broken from two of them, and one from the third. The first was broken or defaced by the fall, had fallen measured fifteen feet and six broad over the shoulders: each statue had its head a large cylindric stone of a wrought perfectly round. Others that measured nearly twenty-seven feet and six broad over the shoulders, and the larger one was seen standing, the shadow of which was sufficient to shelter all the party, of nearly fifty persons, from the heat of the sun. The workmanship is rude, but not the features of the face ill formed; the nose long, according to the distortion of the country, and the bodies have hardly a human figure about them. The soil of the island is in general brackish, there being no fresh water, which is toward



of a brown color and middle size. They are rather thin; go entirely by punctures on their bodies, and are to all the inhabitants of the islands. Their greatest singularity is in their ears, the lobe of which is so that it almost rests on their shoulder; with a very large hole, capable of passing five fingers with ease. The rings made of the leaf of the sugar-cane are very elastic, and for this purpose are like a watch-spring. Some were the same cloth used in Otaheite, of a light orange color with turmeric. A surprising circumstance with respect to the natives is the apparent scarcity of them. The nicest calculation that has ever been brought of the number of inhabitants of the island to be above 700, and of the natives bore no proportion in number to the Europeans. Either they have but few females, or the natives were restrained from appearing on the ship. Those who appeared gave a very loose description. The natives are in general low, small, and scarcely capable of doing persons; but there are some of constructed in the form of an infinity or sixty feet long, and ten or twelve several entrances on one side; these exceed three feet in height, and in addition they have also a kind of wellings. Their canoes are few, and of carrying above four men; but to vessels, they support them by means of sugar-canes, neatly covered with tar and a half long by fifteen feet. The workmanship is tolerably good. Voyagers have found them everywhere. Fish are not plentiful on the island, and sea birds are far from numerous, the only quadruped that has been seen. Easter Island is thirty-six miles long. Long. 109° 46' W., lat.

that part of Labrador, or New Brunswick, extends eastward of James's Bay. RIVER, a river of Canada, also which enters James's Bay, in lat. 78° 45' W.

COMPANY. See INDIA.

EAST TOWN, a town of the United States, in the county of Talbot, formerly Court-House. It is seated on the Chesapeake Bay, near the branches of the river, twelve miles above its confluence with the Chesapeake; five miles south by the river; fifty south-east by south of Philadelphia. EASTOWN, a township of Massachusetts county, famous for its manufactures of iron and steel, and a manufacture of cotton is seated near the head of the river, six miles north-west of the town, and twelve west of Bridgewater. EAST TOWN, a town of New York, in Washington county, seated at the mouth of

the Lehigh, on the west side of the Delaware. Twelve miles north-east of Bethlehem, and seventy north of Philadelphia.

EAST RIVER, a river, or channel, of North America, between Long Island and New York Island, and between the state of Connecticut and Long Island. It is often called Long Island Sound. 2. A river of West Florida, which runs into Pensacola Bay, in long. 86° 50' W., lat. 30° 34' N. 3. A river of America, which runs into the West River, in the province of Maine, in long. 67° 20' W., lat. 44° 48' N.

EAT, *v. a. & v. n.* Sax. *ecan*; Belg. *ecan*; Goth. *etan*, or *etan*; Sw. *eta*; Erse. *eta*; Lat. *edere*; Gr. *ediv*. To take food; to masticate and swallow food; devour; hence, generally, to gnaw; consume; wear or waste away; corrode. Eatable means that may be, or any thing that is, eaten.

And alle *eceten* the same spiritual mete, and alle drunken the same spiritual drynk, thei drunken of the same spiritual stoon folewyng hem, and that stoon was Crist. *Wiclif. 1 Cor. x.*

Locusts shall eat the residue of that which is escaped from the hail, and shall eat every tree which groweth. *Exodus x. 4.*

The righteous eateth to the satisfying of his soul, but the belly of the wicked shall want. *Prov. xiii. 25.*

And will not suffer hem by non assent, Neyther to ben yberied ne yberent, But maketh houndes ete hem in despyte. *Chaucer. Cant. Tales.*

And as of old time God decreed his wondrous benefits of the deliverance of his people, to be kept in memory by the eating of the passover, with his rites and ceremonies. *Homilies of the Church.*

Thou art past the tyrant's stroke; Care no more to cloath and eat. *Shakespeare. Cymbeline.*

Thou best of gold art worst of gold; Other less fine in carat is more precious, Preserving life in medicine potable: But thou, most fine, most honored, most renowned, Hast eat thy bearer up. *Id. Henry IV.* A knave, a rascal, an eater of broken meats. *Id.* The difference between a rich man and a poor man is this—the former eats when he pleases, and the latter when he can get it. *Sir W. Raleigh.*

Other states cannot be accused for not staying for the first blow, or for not accepting Polyphemus's courtesy, to be the last that shall be eaten up. *Bacon's War with Spain.*

The Caribees and the cannibal, almost all, are eaters of man's flesh. *Abbot's Description of the World.*

They cannot hold, but burst out those words which afterwards they are forced to eat. *Hakewill. On Providence.*

As if the lotus grew only here, the virtue of whose fruit is to cause the eaters an oblivion of all others oils. *Houel.*

As riches increase, says Solomon, so do the mouths that devour them. The master's mouth has no more than before. The owner, methinks, is like Oenon in the fable, who is perpetually winding a rope of hay, and an ass at the end perpetually eating it. *Cowley.*

If the taste of this fruit maketh the eaters like gods, why remainest thou a beast? *Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

Eating cares, Lydian airs. *Milton.*



Credit were not to be lost  
By a brave knight-errant of the post,  
That *eats*, perfidiously, his word,  
And swears his ears through a two inch board.

*Hudibras.*

They entail a secret curse upon their estates, which  
does either insensibly waste and consume, or *eat* out  
the heart and comfort of it.

*Tillotson.*

An hungry traveller stept into an *eating-house* for  
his dinner.

*L' Etrange.*

If you all sorts of persons would engage,  
Suit well your *estables* to every age.

*King's Art of Cookery.*

EATH, *adj.* & *adv.* Sax. *eað*. Easy; not  
difficult. An old word.

EATON, or ETON, a town of England, in  
Buckinghamshire. See ETON.

EATAW, a small river of South Carolina,  
which runs into the Santee. Near the source of  
this river, in 1781, a battle was fought between  
the British, under colonel Stuart, and the Ame-  
ricans under general Greene; in which the former  
had 500 men killed and wounded; both sides  
claiming the victory.

EAU DE COLOGNE, or water of Cologne,  
a fragrant water, made originally, and in most  
perfection, in Cologne. Formerly many won-  
derful powers were ascribed to this water, but it  
was probably never so much in demand as at  
present, in Europe and America, and number-  
less recipes have been given for its manufacture.  
It was invented by a person named Farina, in  
whose family the secret, as they say, continues to  
be preserved, since chemistry has not been able,  
as yet, to give the analysis of it. It is imitated,  
however, every where. The consumption of this  
perfume has increased much ever since the seven  
years' war; and there exist, at present, fifteen  
manufactories of it in Cologne, which produce  
several millions of bottles yearly; much, also, is  
manufactured at Paris, in Saxony, and other  
places. One of the many recipes to make eau  
de Cologne is the following:—

Alcohol, or spirit of wine, at 30°, two pints.

Oleum neroli

— de cedro

— de cedrat

— cort aurant

— citri

— bergamot

— rosmarin

} 24 drops.

Seed of small cardamum, two drachms.

Distil it in the Mary-bath, until three-fourths of  
the alcohol have evaporated.

EAU DE LUCE, a fragrant alkaline liquor which  
was some years ago in great repute. We are told  
by Mr. Nicholson, in his Journal, that, having  
learned from a philosophical friend that the com-  
mon recipes for making this compound did not  
succeed, and that the use of mastic in it had  
hitherto been kept a secret, he made the follow-  
ing experiments to procure a good eau de luce.  
One dram of the rectified oil of amber was  
dissolved in four ounces of the strongest ardent  
spirit of the shops; its specific gravity being 840  
at 60° of Fahrenheit. A portion of the clear  
spirit was poured upon a larger quantity of  
fine powdered mastic than it was judged could  
be taken up. This was occasionally agitated

without heat; by which means the gum  
for the most part gradually dissolved. Part  
of the oily solution was poured into a glass  
to this was added one part of the mastic.  
No opacity or other change. Four parts of strong caustic volatile alkali  
then poured in and immediately the  
fluid was of a dense opaque white col-  
our, having a slight ruddy tinge when the light  
through a thin portion of it. In a ve-  
ture, four parts of the alkali were added  
of the solution of mastic; it appeared  
dense and more yellowish white than  
mixture. More of the gum resinous  
was then poured in; but it still ap-  
peared opaque than that mixture. It was  
transmitted light. The last experi-  
ment repeated with the oily solution instead  
mastic. The white was much less  
either of the foregoing compounds, an-  
site opacity was not given by aug-  
menting the dose of the oily solution. No ruddiness  
remarkable appearance was seen by  
light. These mixtures were left at  
two days; no separation appeared.  
The compounds containing mastic,  
pound, consisting of the oily solution  
became paler by the separation of a  
top. In a subsequent number of the  
we find the following recipe by  
author's correspondents, who had  
proved its value by experience. 'Dissolve  
twelve grains of the whitest pieces  
selected for this purpose and powder  
ounces of alcohol; and, when nearly  
add twenty grains of elemi. When  
resins are dissolved, add ten or fifteen  
rectified oil of amber, and fifteen  
essence of bergamot: shake the  
together, and let the fæces subside.  
The solution will be of a pale amber color.  
Add in very small portions to the  
ammonia pure, until it assumes a  
pale greenishness, shaking the phial well after each  
addition as directed by Macquer. The  
causticity of the ammonia are of no  
sequence. If, upon the addition of  
one drop or two of the tincture, a  
coagulated precipitate is formed,  
unlike that which appears on drop-  
ping of silver into water slightly  
acidulated with common salt, it is too strong,  
and should be diluted with alcohol. A considerable  
quantity of the tincture, perhaps one to four,  
employed to give the liquor the proper  
opacity.'

EAVES, *n. s. plur.*

EAVES'DROP, *v. n.*

EAVES'DROPPER, *n. s.*

the descent of  
ing parts of  
old Fr. *aive*, *eve*, was also water. It  
a roof; and, colloquially, the water  
from them. To eavesdrop is likewise  
what comes from the eaves, or the  
windows.

Under our tents I'll play the eavesdrop  
To hear if any mean to shrink from us.

His tears run down his beard like eavesdrops  
From eaves of reeds.



very night he comes  
all sorts, and songs composed  
hiness : it nothing stands us  
from our eaves; for he persists,  
ay on't.

*Id. All's Well that Ends Well.*

ning of winter the drops of the eaves  
more slowly down than they use, it  
d and frosty winter. *Bacon.*

red with a shower still,  
ust hath blown his fill,  
he rustling leaves  
drops from off the eaves. *Milton.*  
g down from the eaves of houses.

*Woodward.*

pers are called evil members of  
alth, in the stat. of West. 1. c. 33.  
unished either in the court-leet  
ntment and fine, or in the quarter-  
dictment and binding to good

cient geography, a mountain of  
hechem. Between it and Geri-  
h side of it, there is a valley of  
n Ebal and Gerizim (the former  
and barren, and the latter  
ant and fertile), the Hebrews  
six tribes on each, who echoed  
blessings and curses pronounced  
n the intervening valley. *Deut.*  
*Josh. viii. 30, &c.*

*v. n. ? Belg. ebbe; Sax. ebba;*  
*Swed. ebb; Fr. ebe,* de-  
lux of the tide; and as a verb to  
he tide toward the sea. Hence,  
decline; decay; deterioration:  
decline; or waste away.

at my mutabilitie,  
at a droppe of my richesse,  
kith to withdrawin me,  
ist thou my roialtie oppresse?  
*ebbe* and flowin more and lesse,  
hath might to shine, rain, and haile.

*Chaucer.*

shed all the war, and brought all  
ebb which you speak of.

*Spenser on Ireland.*

Though my tide of blood  
lowed in vanity till now,  
rn and ebb back to the sea.

*Shakespeare.*

nan's life, after it once turneth and  
nneth with a perpetual ebb and fall-  
never floweth again.

*Raleigh's History.*

love's natural station is, may still  
id, and journeying down the hill;  
er growing beauties; so  
with them who homeward go.

*Donne.*

on his wide watery glass  
of the fresh wave largely drew,  
which made their flowing shrink  
lake to tripping ebb, that stole  
towards the deep. *Milton.*

rift an ebb the flood drove backward,  
neath the scaly herd.

*Dryden's All for Love.*

ie tide of fortune left their shore,  
aster than it flowed before.

*Id. Æneid.*

Thus all the treasure of our flowing years,  
Our ebb of life for ever takes away. *Roscommon*  
But oh, he ebbs! the smiling waves decay!  
For ever lovely stream, for ever stay! *Halifax*

Hither the seas at stated times resort,  
And shove the loaden vessels into port;  
Then with a gentle ebb retire again,  
And render back their cargo to the main.

*Addison on Italy.*

What is it he aspires to?

Is it not this? To shed the slow remains,  
His last poor ebb of blood in your defence.

*Id. Cato.*

I do not think a philosopher obliged to account for  
every phenomenon in nature, or drown himself with  
Aristotle for not being able to solve the ebbing and  
flowing of the tide. *Swift.*

Games of chance are traps to catch school boy  
novices and gaping country squires, who begin with a  
guinea, and end with a mortgage; whilst the old  
stagers in the game keep their passions in check,  
watch the ebb and flow of fortune, till the booby they  
are pillaging sees his acres melt at every cast.

*Cumberland.*

EBBSFLEET, anciently Wyppedsfleet, a  
hamlet of the Isle of Thanet, Kent, at the mouth  
of the river Stour, where the Saxons landed in  
447 under Hengist and Horsa. In 463 a cele-  
brated battle was fought in this vicinity between  
the Britons and Saxons, when the former were  
defeated. The Saxon leader Wypped, who is  
said to have fallen on this occasion, gave name to  
this hamlet.

EBENEZER, (Heb. the stone of help), the  
name of a field where the Philistines defeated  
the Hebrews, and seized on the sacred ark; and  
where afterwards, at Samuel's request, God dis-  
comfited the Philistines with thunder and hail,  
and gave the Hebrews a noted deliverance. On  
this occasion Samuel set up a stone, and gave it  
this designation, to mark that the Lord had  
helped them; and from it the whole field adja-  
cent received its name. It is said to have been  
about forty miles south-west of Shiloh. *1 Sam.*  
*iv. 1., and vii. 12.*

EBENEZER, a town of the United States, in  
Georgia, the capital of Effingham county, seated  
on the south-west bank of Savannah River.  
Twenty-five miles N.N.W. of Savannah, seventy-  
five south-east of Louisville, and 860 south-west  
of Philadelphia.

EBENUS, the ebony tree. See AMERIMNUM.

EBERSBERG, a town of Upper Austria,  
situated on the river, and in the circle of the  
Traun, which is here divided into many branches,  
and crossed by a bridge of great length. Here  
is a castle said to have been built in the year  
900; and in the neighbourhood was fought a  
severe action between the Austrians and French  
in May, 1809. It is eight miles north-west of  
Ens.

EBERSDORF, a small town of Lower Aus-  
tria, on the right bank of the Danube, where  
Buonaparte had his head-quarters previous to the  
battle of Aspern in May, 1809. Inhabitants  
1165. Eight miles E.S.E. of Vienna.

EBERSTHAL, or EBERSTAL, a town of Ger-  
many, in the circle of the Lower Rhine, and  
electorate of Mentz, two miles south of Krau-  
theim; but on which side of the Rhine, and



consequently whether annexed to the French republic or not, we cannot discover, as neither of these towns is to be found in the maps.

EBION, the author of the heresy of the Ebionites, was a disciple of Cerinthus and his successor. To the errors of his master, he had added new opinions of his own. He began his preaching in Judea; he taught in Asia, and even at Rome. His tenets infected the Isle of Cyprus. St. John opposed both Cerinthus and Ebion in Asia; and it is thought that he wrote his gospel, in the year 97, particularly against this heresy.

EBIONITES, ancient heretics, who rose in the very first age of the church, and formed themselves into a sect in the second century, denying the divinity of Jesus Christ. Epiphanius gives a long and exact account of the origin of the Ebionites, making them to have risen after the destruction of Jerusalem, when the first Christians, called Nazarenes, went out of it to live at Pella. The Ebionites seem to have been a branch of Nazarenes: Origen distinguishes two kinds of Ebionites; the one believing that Jesus Christ was born of a virgin, and the other that he was born after the manner of other men. The first were orthodox in every thing, except that to the Christian doctrine they joined the ceremonies of the Jewish law, with the Jews, Samaritans, and Nazarenes; together with the traditions of the Pharisees. They differed from the Nazarenes, chiefly as to what regards the authority of the sacred writings; for the Nazarenes received all for scripture contained in the Jewish canon; whereas the Ebionites rejected all the prophets, and all St. Paul's epistles. They received nothing of the Old Testament but the Pentateuch; which should intimate them to have descended rather from the Samaritans than from the Jews. They agreed with the Nazarenes in using the Hebrew gospel of St. Matthew, otherwise called the Gospel of the Twelve Apostles; but they had corrupted their copy in many places; and, particularly, had left out the genealogy of our Saviour, which was preserved entire in that of the Nazarenes, and even in those used by the Cerinthians. Some, however, have made this gospel canonical, and of greater value than our present Greek gospel of St. Matthew: See NAZARENES. Besides the Hebrew gospel of St. Matthew, the Ebionites had adopted several other books, under the names of St. James, John, and the other apostles; they also made use of the Travels of St. Peter, which are supposed to have been written by St. Clement.

EB'ON, *n. s.* ? Also formerly written EBEN. EB'ONY, *Lat.* *ebenus*; *Fr.* *ebene*, of *Gr.* *εβενος*, ab Heb. *הבן*, Minsheu. A particularly hard, black, and heavy wood: hence any thing remarkably black or dark.

If the wood be very hard, as *ebony*, or *lignum vitae*, they are to turn, they use not the same tools they do for soft woods. *Maxon's Mech. Exer.*

Oft by the winds extinct the signal lies,

Ere night has half rolled round her *ebon* throne.

*Gay.*

And now the sorceress bares her shrivelled hand,  
And circles thrice in air her *ebon* wand;

Flushed with  
The pliant  
There  
The table  
With  
Or were

EBONY.  
the most  
green, but  
ferent ac-  
able wood  
it is obtain  
West Indi  
preferred  
jet black,  
astringent,  
rind, infu  
and cure  
took guaia  
agreeable  
when green  
dance of  
their gods  
wood. It  
pey, after  
now much  
since the  
other hard  
makers, in  
woods pas  
color, by  
galls; and  
them with

EBOR,  
city of the  
York. The  
Constantin  
was a Roman  
Legio Sex  
British lan  
EBRU  
hommedan  
Ebruhar,  
fess great  
worldly thi  
Mussulman  
they do not  
this labor  
that the pu  
templation  
and Mahomet  
cells.

EBRIE  
EBRIOS  
ness. Eb  
drunkenne

That reli  
will neither  
tended perv  
Here I  
And thin  
With  
And cold

EBRO,  
Iberus, wh  
on the coast  
Biscay an  
continuing



rapidity into the Mediterranean, about below Tortosa. Of its two mouths the south is artificial, and of easier access the other, which is nearly choked. The stream is in general very rapid, adapted for navigation, being full of shoals: it is, however, useful in supplanting canals of Arragon with water. It is said to have been less obstructed in former times.

**ENCY, n. s.** } Lat. *ebullitio*, of *bullia*,  
*et, adj.* } a bubble. Rising or  
*ON, n. s.* } boiling up in bub-  
 of effervescence or swelling.

tion of gold and silver disagree; so that there is great ebullition, darkness, and precipitation of a black powder. *Bacon.*

*qua fortis*, will fall into ebullition with caution; as also a crasse and fumid exhalation from the combat of the sulphur of iron and nitrous spirits of aqua fortis.

*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

*fortis*, or spirit of vitriol, poured upon, dissolves the filings with a great heat is not the heat and ebullition effected by fusion of the parts; and does not their that the acid parts of the liquor rush out of the metal with violence, and run through the pores, till they get between its outmost and the main mass of the metal? *Newton.* Cold, as well as heat, may be produced in water, for if sal ammoniac, or any pure salt, dissolved in water, be mixed with an acid, with a greater degree of cold, *Arbuthnot on Aliments.*

It was the ebullition of that passion which was mentioned school business. *Burns.*

in ancient geography, the greater of islands called Pityusæ, in the Mediterranean the east coast of Spain, south-west of Sicily.

Famous for its pastures and for the wine called Ilica.

**R, or MECASTOR**, in antiquity, an island where Castor was invoked. It was a custom never to swear by Castor, nor the island.

**NA**, in ancient geography, the royal city and capital of Media, built by Deioces.

**Medes**, according to Herodotus: Seleucus; but that could not be, as mentioned by Demosthenes. It was on a gentle declivity, twelve stadia from the Orontes, and was in compass 150 stadia.

stood the royal treasury and tombs. It was an open unwall'd town, but had a very high wall, encompassed with seven walls rising above each other. The extent of the city was equal to the whole extent of the plain according to Herodotus; the situation of the city, as being a gentle ascent, it was of a different color.

**TRIC, adj. & n. s.** } Fr. *eccentric*  
*ICAL,* } *que*; Ital. *Span.*  
*CITY, n. s.* } and Port. *eccen-*  
*eccentricus*; Gr. *εξκεντρικός*, i. e. *εκ*,  
*τροπος*, centrum. Without, or deviat-

centre; hence, metaphorically, irregular. Eccentricity is oddity; habit different from established rules or methods.

Whatsoever affairs pass such a man's hands, he crooketh them to his own ends; which must needs be often *eccentric* to the ends of his master.

*Bacon's Essays.*

Astronomers, to solve the phenomena, framed to their conceits *eccentric* and epicycles, and a wonderful engine of orbs. *Bacon.*

The duke at his return from his *eccentricity*, for so I account favorites abroad, met no good news.

*Wotton.*

This motion, like others of the times, seems *eccentric* and irregular. *King Charles.*

In regard of *eccentricity*, and the epicycle wherein it moveth, the motion of the moon is unequal. *Browne.*

They build, unbuild, contrive,

To save appearances: they gird the sphere

With centrick and *eccentric*, scribbled o'er,

Cycle, and epicycle, orb in orb. *Milton.*

By reason of the sun's *eccentricity* to the earth, and obliquity to the equator, he appears to us to move unequally. *Holder.*

A character of an *eccentric* virtue, is the more exact image of human life, because it is not wholly exempted from its frailties. *Dryden.*

Then from whatever we can to sense produce,  
 Common and plain, or wondrous and abstruse,

From nature's constant or *eccentric* laws,

The thoughtful soul this general inference draws,

That an effect must presuppose a cause. *Prior.*

How few are found with real talents blest!

Fewer with nature's gifts contented rest,

Man from his sphere *eccentric* starts astray;

All hunt for fame, but most mistake the way. *Churchill.*

Whence is it that planets move all one and the same way in orbs concentric, while comets move all manner of ways in orbs very *eccentric*?

*Newton's Opticks.*

*Eccentricity* of the earth is the distance between the focus and the centre of the earth's elliptic orbit. *Harris.*

But on examining it more nearly, you find much *eccentricity* and confusion. It is not a monarchy in strictness. *Burke.*

Try now the merits of this blessed exchange  
 Of modest truth for wit's *eccentric* range. *Cowper.*

**ECHELLENSIS** (Abraham), a learned Maronite, employed in the Paris edition of the Polyglott Bible. He, however, quarrelled with two of his coadjutors, and was then employed in making an Arabic translation of the Scriptures, at Rome. While he was professor of the Oriental languages at Rome, he was chosen by the great duke Ferdinand II., to translate from Arabic into Latin, the fifth, sixth, and seventh of Apollonius's Conics, in which he was assisted by John Alphonso Borelli, who added commentaries to them. He died at Rome, in 1664.

**ECCHYMOISIS, n. s.** *Εκχυμωσις*. Livid spots or blotches in the skin, made by extravasated blood.

*Ecchymosis* may be defined an extravasation of the blood in or under the skin, the skin remaining whole. Laxations are accompanied with tumour and *ecchymosis*. *Wienman.*

**ECCHYMOISIS**; from *εκχω*, to pour out, or from *εκ*, out of, and *χυμος*, juice; an effusion of humors from their respective vessels under the integuments; or, as Paulus Aegineta says, 'When the flesh is bruised by the violent collision of any object, and its small veins broken, and the blood is gradually discharged from them.' This blood,



when collected under the skin is called an ecchymosis, the skin in the mean time remaining entire; sometimes a tumor is formed by it, which is soft and livid, and generally without pain. If the quantity of blood is not considerable, it is usually resorbed; if much, it suppurates; it rarely happens that any farther inconvenience follows; though, in a very bad habit of body, a mortification may be the result.

**ECCLESHALL**, a market town of Staffordshire, pleasantly situated on a branch of the river Sow, seven miles and a half north-west of Stafford, and 148 north-west from London. The houses are neat, and there is a good church and charity school. It is supposed to be named from the Latin word *ecclesia*, the bishop of Litchfield having formerly had a palace here. In the civil war it was garrisoned for the king, but, being afterwards taken by the parliamentary forces, it was nearly destroyed; after which it was rebuilt by bishop Lloyd. Market on Friday.

**ECCLESIASTES**, a canonical book of the Old Testament, the design of which is to show the vanity of all sublunary things. It was composed by Solomon; who enumerates the several objects on which men place their happiness, and then shows the insufficiency of all worldly enjoyments. The Talmudists make king Hezekiah to be the author of it; Grotius ascribes it to Zorobabel, and others to Isaiah; but the generality of commentators believe this book to be the produce of Solomon's repentance, after he had experienced the pleasures, follies, and vanities of life.

**ECCLESIASTIC**, *adj.* & *n. s.* } Lat. *ecclesiasticus*; of, or relating to, the church.

Is discipline an *ecclesiastical* matter or civil? If an *ecclesiastical*, it must belong to the duty of the ministers. *Hooker.*

The ambition of the *ecclesiasticks* destroyed the purity of the church. *Burnet's Theory.*

Clergymen, otherwise little fond of obscure terms, yet in their sermons are liberal of those which they find in *ecclesiastical* writers. *Swift.*

A church of England man has a true veneration for the scheme established among us of *ecclesiastick* government. *Id.*

It was justly so called; being thus distinguished, not only from the religion of Moses, the sanctions whereof related to the present life, but also from every human scheme of moral, political, or *ecclesiastical* legislation. *Beattie.*

**ECCLESIASTICAL COURTS**. In the time of the Anglo-Saxons, there was no distinction between the lay and the ecclesiastical jurisdiction; the county court was as much a spiritual as a temporal tribunal; the rights of the church were ascertained and asserted at the same time, and by the same judges, as the rights of the laity. For this purpose the bishop of the diocese, and the alderman, or the sheriff of the county, sat together in the county court, and had there the cognizance of all causes, as well ecclesiastical as civil; a superior deference being paid to the bishop's opinion in spiritual matters, and to that of the lay judges in temporal; and thus the presence of the bishop added weight and reverence to the sheriff's proceedings. But it soon became an established maxim in the papal system of

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of the English law having broken through the yoke imposed on it by its clerical chancellor and asserted the doctrines of judicial as civil liberty,) continued till the middle of the eighteenth century, to be upheld by the courts; when the legislature was obliged to pose, to teach them a lesson of similar nature. By the statute of 13 Car. II. cap. 12, is enacted, that it shall not be lawful for a layman, or ecclesiastical judge, to administer the oath usually called the oath of office, or any other oath whereby he may be bound to confess, accuse, or purge himself of a criminal matter, whereby he may be liable to censure or punishment. When all the facts and proofs are concluded, they are referred to the consideration, not of a jury, but of a judge; who takes information by hearing witnesses on both sides, and thereupon forms a declaratory decree, or definitive sentence, at his discretion: from which there generally is an appeal to the several stages mentioned in the articles above referred to; though, if the same appeal be made by him in fifteen days, it is by the statute 25 Hen. VIII. cap. 19.

**ECCLIASTICAL STATE**, in geography, a name given to the pope's dominions in Italy, which consisted before the late revolutions of the empire of Campagna, St. Peter's Patrimony, Ancona, Urbino, Romagna, Bologna, Ferrara. The first five of these were erected by the French into the Roman republic; the last three into the Cisalpine. Avignon, and Venetia, France, became included in the French empire. See **PAPAL STATES**.

**ECCLIASTICUS**, an apocryphal book, so called from its being read in the church, ecclesia, or of piety and instruction, but not of divine authority. The author was a Jew, Jesus, or Joshua, the son of Sirach. The book is called the Wisdom of the son of Sirach.

**ECOPROTICKS**, *n. s.* *Ec* and *κοπρος*. Medicines as gently purge the belly, so as to carry away no more than the natural excrement lodged in the intestines.

The body ought to be maintained in its daily excretion by such means as are *ecoprotick*.

*Harvey on the Plague.*

**ECOMIN**, a river of Lower Canada, rising in the mountains to the southward of the St. Lawrence, into which it falls, two miles above the mouth. The margin is a flat rock, with only a thin covering of soil. But there is some good land in its neighbourhood.

**ECENEIS**, the remora, in ichthyology, a fish belonging to the order of thoracici. The body is flat, naked, depressed, and marked with a series of transverse ridges; it has ten rays in the anchiostege membrane, and the body is covered with scales.

There are three species, of which the following one is the most worthy of note:—*remora*, the sucking fish with a forked tail, sixteen adhesion on the head. This species is found adhering so strongly to the sides of ships and other great fish, by means of the suckers of its head, as to be got off with difficulty.

It was believed, by all the ancients, to possess wonderful powers, and to be able, by its power, to the bottom, to arrest the motion of a

ship in its fullest course; and, in love affairs, to deaden the warmest affections of both sexes.

**ECHEVIN**, in the old French and Dutch polity, a magistrate elected by the inhabitants of a city or town, to take care of their common concerns, and the decoration and cleanliness of the city. At Paris, before the revolution, there were a *prevôt* and four *echevins*; in other towns, a mayor and *echevins*. At Amsterdam there were nine *echevins*; and at Rotterdam, seven. In France they took cognizance of rents, taxes, the navigation of rivers, &c. In Holland they judged of civil and criminal causes; and, if the criminal confessed himself guilty, they could see their sentence executed without appeal.

**ECHINADES**, otherwise called the Nisia Islands, a group of islets at the entrance of the gulf of Lepanto, which they almost seem to close on the side of Epirus.

**ECHINITES**, in natural history, the name by which authors call the fossilie centronia, frequently found in our chalk pits. See **CENTRONIA**.

**ECHINOPHORA**, in botany, a genus of the digynia order, and pentandria class of plants; natural order forty-fifth, umbellatæ. The male florets are lateral, with the central one hermaphrodite: SEED one, sunk into an indurated involucre. Species two, found on the south coast of Great Britain.

**ECHINOPS**, in botany, a genus of the polygamia segregata order, and syngenesia class of plants; natural order forty-ninth, composite: CAL. uniflorous; cor. tubulated, and hermaphrodite; receptacle bristly; pappus indistinct. Species six, natives of the Levant, and south of Europe.

**ECHINORINCHUS**, a genus of the vermes intestina: the body is round, proboscis cylindrical, retractile, and crowned with hooked prickles. They are found fixed firmly to the viscera of various animals, generally the intestines; and often remain on the same spot during the whole life of the animal; they are mostly gregarious, and are easily distinguished from the tænia by their round inarticulate body. There are forty-eight species, infesting the mammalia, birds, reptiles, and fish.

**ECHINUS**, *n. s.* } Lat. A hedge-hog; a shell-fish set with prickles:

**ECHINATE**, *adj.* } in botany, the prickly head, cover of the seed, or top of any plant: in architecture, a member or ornament, taking its name from the roughness of the carving, resembling the prickly rind of a chestnut, or the thorny coat of a hedge-hog. Echinated is bristled, or full of prickles. This ornament is used by modern architects in cornices of the Ionic, Corinthian, and Composite orders; and generally set next to the abacus, being carved with anchors, darts, and ovals or eggs.

An echinated pyrites in shape approaches the echynated chrystalline balls. *Woodward on Fossils.*

Many nodules of flint resemble in colour as well as in form the shells of the *echinus* or sea-urchin; others resemble some coralloids both in form and color.

*Darwin.*

**ECHINUS**, in zoology, a genus of insects belonging to the order of vermes mollusca. The body is roundish, covered with a bony crust, and



often beset with moveable prickles; and the mouth is below and consists of five valves. There are 108 species, all natives of the sea.

1. *E. esculentus*, or eatable echinus, is of a hemispherical form, covered with sharp strong spines above half an inch long, commonly of a violet color, moveable, adherent to small tubercles elegantly disposed in rows. These are their instruments of motion by which they change their place. This species is taken in dredging, and often lodges in cavities of rocks just within low-water mark. They are eaten by the poor in many parts of England, and by persons of rank abroad. Anciently they were a favorite dish. They were the first dish in the famous supper of Lentulus, when he was made flamen Martialis, or priest of Mars.

2. *E. lacunosus*, or oval echinus, is of an oval depressed form; on the top it is of a purple color, marked with a quadrefoil, and the spaces between tuberculated in waved rows; the lower side studded, and divided by two smooth spaces. Length four inches. When clothed it is covered with short thick-set bristles, mixed with very long ones.

3. *E. marinus*, the sea urchin, has an arched shell varying in its figure in different individuals; and, besides a great number of protuberances, has two remarkable apertures for the mouth and the anus.

**ECHINUS TERRESTRIS**, the land urchin. See **ERINACEUS**.

**ECHITES**, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, and pentandria class of plants; natural order thirtieth, contortæ. There are two long and straight follicles: seed pappous; cor. funnel-shaped, with the throat naked.

**ECHITES CORYMBOSA**, a species of this genus, is said to yield the caoutchouc, or elastic gum according to Jacquin. See **GUM, ELASTIC**.

**ECHIU**, viper's bugloss, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, and pentandria class of plants; natural order forty-first, asperifoliæ: cor. is irregular, with the throat naked. Species twenty-seven; none of them have any remarkable property except the *E. vulgari*, or common bugloss, the flowers of which are very grateful to bees. It is a native of many parts of Britain. The stem is rough with hairs and tubercles. The leaves are spear-shaped, and rough with hair. The flowers come out in lateral spikes. They are first red, afterwards blue; sometimes purple or white. Cows and sheep are not fond of the plant; horses and goats refuse it.

**ECHO**, *n. s.*, *v. n.*, & *v. a.* Span. *echo*, *eco*; Fr. and Port. *echo*; Lat. *echo*; Gr. *ἠχώ*. A resounding or giving again of the voice or any sound. The sound returned. As a neuter verb, to resound; be sounded back: as a verb active to send back, return, what has been uttered.

At the parting

All the church echoed.

*Shakespeare. Tuning of the Shrew.*

Babbling echo mocks the hounds,

Replying shrilly to the well-tuned horns,

As if a double hunt were heard at once. *Id.*

Wilt thou hunt?

Thy hounds shall make the welkin answer them,  
And fetch shrill echoes from their hollow earth. *Id.*

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veral causes sufficiently whimsical. The pretended it was a person of that name orphosed, and that she affected to take up ode in particular places, for they found e was not to be met with every where. e moderns, who know sound to consist in ain tremor or vibration in the sonorous municated to the contiguous air, and means to the ear, give a more consistent t of echo. See ACOUSTICS. A tremulous riking on another solid body, may be repel- out destroying or diminishing its tremor; nsequently, a sound may be redoubled by lition of the tremulous body to the air. mple reflection on the sonorous air is ough to solve the echo; for then every urface of a solid hard body, being fit to a voice or sound, would redouble it; we find does not hold. To produce an erefore, it should seem, that a kind of eration or vaulting were necessary, to and, by collecting, to heighten and e, and afterwards reflect the sound; as d is the case in reflecting the rays of here a concave mirror is required. In often as a sound strikes perpendicularly all, behind which is any thing of a vault , or even another parallel wall, so often be reverberated in the same line, or other t ones. For an echo to be heard, there- is necessary that the ear be in the line of on; for the person who made the sound its echo, it is necessary he be perpendi- o the place which reflects it: and, for a d or tantological echo, it is necessary e a number of walls, and vaults or cavi- her placed behind or fronting each other. e arch or concavity, &c., can scarcely ever d reflect all the sound; but, if there be a ient disposition behind it, part of the propagated thither, being collected and d as before, will present another echo: here be another concavity, opposed at a stance to the former, the sound reflected e one upon the other will be tossed back by this last, &c. Any sound, falling di- obliquely on any dense body of a smooth ies, whether plain or arched, is reflected, es, more or less. The surface must be , otherwise the air, by reverberation, will out of its regular motion, and the sound broken and extinguished. Echoes may aced with different circumstances. For, me obstacle reflects the sound back in its e and loudness, allowance being made proportionable decrease of the sound, g to its distance. 2. A convex obstacle e the sound somewhat smaller and some- icker though weaker, than otherwise it e. 3. A concave obstacle echoes back ad, bigger, slower, and also inverted; but according to the order of words. 4. The body being removed farther off, it reflects e the sound than when nearer; which is on why some echoes repeat but one syl- some one word, and some many. 5. Echo- lies may be so contrived and placed, as flecting the sound from one to the other, directly and mutually, or obliquely and by

succession, out of one sound, a multiple echo or many echoes shall arise. A multiple echo may be made by so placing the echoing bodies at unequal distances, that they may reflect all one way, and not one on the other, by which means a manifold successive sound will be heard; one clap of the hands like many; one *ha* like a laugh- ter; one single word like many of the same tone and accent; and so one viol, like many of the same kind, imitating each other. Lastly, echoing bodies may be so ordered, that, from any one sound given, they shall produce many echoes different both as to tone and intention: by which means a musical room may be so contrived, that not only one instrument playing therein shall seem many of the same sort and size, but even a concert of different ones, only by placing certain echoing bodies so that any note played shall be returned by them in thirds, fifths, and eighths.

ECHO is also used for the place where the repetition of the sound is produced or heard. In echoes, the place where the speaker stands is called the *centrum phonicum*; and the object or place that returns the voice, the *centrum phonocampticum*. Echoes are distinguished into two kinds; viz. single and tautological, or multiple.

ECHO, in architecture, a term applied to certain kinds of vaults and arches, most commonly of the elliptic and parabolic figures used to redouble sounds, and produce artificial echoes.

ECHO, in poetry, a kind of composition wherein the last words or syllables of each verse contain some meaning, which, being repeated apart, answers to some question or other matter contained in the verse; as in this beautiful one from Virgil:—

*Crudelis mater magis, an puer, improbus ille?*

*Improbus ille puer, crudelis tu quousque mater.*

The elegance of an echo consists in giving a new sense to the last words; which reverberate, as it were, the motions of the mind, and by that means affect it with surprise and admiration.

ECHO, in mythology, a daughter of Aer and Tellus, who chiefly resided in the vicinity of the Cephissus. She was once one of Juno's attendants, and became the confidant of Jupiter's amours. Her loquacity, however, displeased Jupiter, and she was deprived of the power of speech by Juno, and only permitted to answer the questions which were put to her. Pan had formerly been one of her admirers, but he never enjoyed her favors. Echo, after she had been punished by Juno, fell in love with Narcissus; but being despised by him pined to death, having nothing left but her voice.

ECHOMETER, among musicians, a kind of scale or rule, with several lines thereon, serving to measure the duration and length of sounds, and to find their intervals and ratios.

ECIJA, or EXIJA, a considerable town of Spain, in the province of Seville, beautifully situated on the Xenil, and surrounded with small hills, which make it the warmest place of Andalusia. Wool and hemp are its chief riches; but tanning and the manufacture of leather, employ a portion of its inhabitants, who, altogether, amount to 28,000. This town is the Colonia Augusta Firmia of the ancients, and many Roman antiquities have been discovered here. It



is said to have been formerly of great importance; at present it contains six churches, sixteen convents, and fifteen hospitals; it has also a large square with a piazza. The Xenil is crossed by a neat modern bridge; and there is along the left bank a delightful public walk, composed of alleys, ornamented with statues. Fifty-five miles E. N. E. of Seville.

ECKHEL (Joseph Hilary), a learned Jesuit, was born at Entzesfield in Austria in 1737. Becoming a member of the society of St. Ignatius, he was appointed keeper of the imperial cabinet of medals, and professor of archæology at Vienna. He may be regarded as the modern founder of the science of Numismatics, the principles of which are fully developed in his treatise *Doctrina Veterum Nummorum*. 8 vols. fol. He died in 1798.

ECKIUS (John), a learned divine, professor in the university of Ingoldstadt, memorable for his opposition of Luther, Melancthon, Carolostadius, and other leading Protestants in Germany. He wrote many polemical tracts; and among the best, a *Manual of Controversies*, printed in 1535, in which he discourses upon most of the heads contested between the Protestants and Papists. He was a man of great learning and zeal, and died in 1543.

ECKDALA, or AKDALA, an ancient, but now ruined fortress of the district of Dacca, Bengal, situated on the banks of the Luckya River, which, during the rainy season, surrounds it with water. In 1353 Ilyas Haji, the second independent king of Bengal, of the Mahommedan dynasty, took refuge in this place from the army of the emperor of Hindostan, and defended it, till the setting in of the rains compelled the enemy to raise the siege, and the sultan Seyd Hussein made it his constant residence from the year 1499 to 1520, although Pundua was his political capital.

ECLAIRCISSEMENT, *n. s.* Fr. Explanation; the act of clearing up an affair by verbal expostulation.

The *eclaircissement* ended in the discovery of the informer.

Clarendon.

ECLAT, *n. s.* Fr. Splendor; show; lustre. Not English, says Dr. Johnson.

Nothing more contributes to the variety, surprise, and *eclat* of Homer's battles, than that artificial manner of gaging his heroes by each other.

Pope's *Essay on Homer*.

ECLECTIC, *adj.* εκλεκτικός. Selecting; choosing at will. See below.

Cicero was of the *eclectic* sect, and chose out of each such positions as came nearest truth.

Watts on the *Mind*.

ELECTICS, ancient philosophers, who, without attaching themselves to any particular sect, chose what they judged good and solid from each. Laertius says, that they were also denominated Analogetic; but that they call themselves Philalethes, i. e. lovers of truth. The founder of the Electici was one Potamon of Alexandria, who lived under Augustus and Tiberius; and who, weary of doubting of all things with the Sceptics and Pyrrhonians, formed the Eclectic sect; which Vossius calls the Elective,

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from his Father, and eclipsed the majesty with a veil of flesh.

*Calamy's Sermons.*

as were flat, the darkened moon eclipsed as well as one. *Creech.*

have either shining sentiments or occasion for them: a dazzling ex-  
amines them, and serves only to  
Pope.

ASTRONOMY, Index.

n. s. & adj. *Εκλειπτικός*. A great  
sphere, supposed to be drawn  
of the zodiac, and making  
equinoctial, in the points of  
of 23° 30' which is the sun's  
on: relating to or described by

ve their distance from the ecliptic  
re than twenty-three degrees and a  
ression of time, have declination  
ve beyond the equator.

*Browne's Vulgar Errors.*

globe had the same site and po-  
f the sun, that it now hath: its axis  
that of the ecliptic, but inclined  
it is at present.

*Woodward's Natural History.*

ive an imaginary plane, which, pas-  
entre of the sun and the earth, ex-  
sides as far as the firmament: this  
ecliptic, and in this the centre of  
ually carried, without any deviation.

*Bentley.*

tion makes the night and day;  
through the ecliptic way,  
seasons of the year. *Blackmore.*

fast convolution Draco holds  
is in his scaly folds,  
ties his neck enormous rears,  
use meanders parts the bears.

*Darwin.*

ee ASTRONOMY, Index.

geography, a great circle on the  
not only answering to, but falling  
of the celestial ecliptic. See

n. s. *Εκλογή*. A pastoral poem,  
as Virgil called his pastorals

ng praises Basilus gave this *eclogue*  
s, that knows love is better than  
every thing seem great. *Sidney.*  
nt that the sentences be brief the  
ald be so too. *Pope.*

ORT DE L', a fort of Switzerland,  
f Gex, and canton of Geneva,  
right bank of the Rhone, about  
the level of the river. It ad-  
vance to the bare rock of the  
selves over a part of its fortifi-  
he remainder hangs, as it were,  
ve the Rhone. Thirteen miles

2, adj. & n. s. } Gr. *οικονομία*.  
adj. } Sometimes writ-  
n. s. } ten, from its de-  
s. } rivation, econo-  
not a diphthong in English, says  
The management, or government,  
ence frugality, order, regulation,

or disposition, of affairs; system of management  
generally. Economic is used in the same par-  
ticular and general way: an economist is a good  
or frugal manager.

In the Greek poets, as in Plantas, we see the eco-  
nomy and disposition of poems better observed than in  
Terence. *Ben Jonson.*

Her quickening power in every living part,  
Doth as a nurse, or as a mother serve;  
And doth employ her *economick* art,  
And busy care, her household to preserve.

*Ducies.*

Some are so plainly *economical*, as even to desire that  
the seat be well watered, and well swelled.

*Wotton's Architecture.*

All the divine and infinitely wise ways of *economy*  
that God could use towards a rational creature, oblige  
mankind to that course of living which is most agree-  
able to our nature. *Hammond.*

By St. Paul's *economy* the heir differs nothing from  
a servant, while he is in his minority; so a servant  
should differ nothing from a child in the substantial  
part. *Taylor.*

If this *economy* must be observed in the minutest  
parts of an epick poem, what soul, though sent into  
the world with great advantages of nature, cultivated  
with the liberal arts and sciences, can be sufficient to  
inform the body of so great a work?

*Dryden's Dedication to the Æneid.*

I have no other notion of *economy* than that it is the  
parent of liberty and ease. *Swift.*

In *economical* affairs, having proposed the govern-  
ment of a family, we consider the proper means to  
effect it. *Watts.*

The regard one shows *economy*, is like that we show  
an old aunt, who is to leave us something at last.

*Shenstone.*

*Economy* is the parent of integrity, of liberty, and  
of ease; and the beauteous sister of temperance, of  
cheerfulness, and health. *Adventurer.*

And from the many heavy taxes required from them  
by the necessities of the state, have surely reason to be  
*economical*. *Franklin.*

Mere parsimony is not *economy*. It is separable in  
theory from it; and in fact it may, or it may not, be  
a part of *economy*, according to circumstances. Ex-  
pense, and great expense, may be an essential part in  
true *economy*. If parsimony were to be considered as  
one of the kinds of that virtue, there is however another  
and an higher *economy*. *Economy* is a distributive  
virtue, and consists not in saving, but in selecting.

*Burke.*

The age of chivalry is gone, and one of calculators  
and *economists* has succeeded. *Id.*

From this outline a philosopher may catch a glimpse  
of the general *economy* of nature; and like the mari-  
net cast upon an unknown shore, who rejoiced when he  
saw the print of a human foot upon the sand, he may  
cry out with rapture, 'A God dwells here.'

*Darwin.*

ECOUEN, a well-built town of France, on the  
side of a hill, containing a number of villas be-  
longing to the citizens of Paris, from which it is  
about twelve miles distant. On an eminence  
towards the west extremity stands a noble castle,  
built in the reign of Francis I., and now belong-  
ing to the prince of Conde. Inhabitants about  
1200.

ECPIHRACTICKS, n. s. Gr. *εκ* and *φάρμακον*.  
Such medicines as render rough humors more thin,  
so as to promote their discharge.

Procure the blood a free course, ventilation, and  
transpiration, by suitable purges and *ecphractick* medi-  
cines. *Harvey.*



ECSTASY, *n. s.* } Fr. *extase*; Ital. Span.  
 ECSTASIED, *adj.* } and Port. *ectasi*; Lat. *ec-*  
 ECSTA'TIC, } *stasis*; Greek, *εκστασις*, ab  
 ECSTATICAL. } *εκτενω*, *extendo*. Any pas-  
 sion by which the thoughts are absorbed, and in  
 which the mind is for a time lost. The adjectives  
 all mean rapt or absorbed in passion or enthu-  
 siasm.

Follow them swiftly,  
 And hinder them from what this *ecstasy*  
 May now provoke them to.

Shakspeare. *Tempest.*

Now see that noble and most sovereign reason,  
 Like sweet bells jangled out of tune, and harsh,  
 That unmatched form, and feature of blown youth,  
 Blasted with *ecstasy*. *Id.* *Hamlet.*

Return, my soul! from this *ecstasy*  
 And meditation of what thou shalt be  
 To earthly thoughts, till it to thee appear  
 With whom thy conversation must be there.

Donne.

Would she but shade her tender brows with bay,  
 That now lye bare in careless willful rage;  
 And trance herself in that sweet *ecstasy*,  
 That rouzeth drooping thoughts of bashful age.

Bp. Hall.

He loved me well, and oft would beg me sing;  
 Which when I did, he on the tender grass  
 Would sit, and hearken even to *ecstasy*. *Milton.*

There doth my soul in holy vision sit,  
 In pensive trance, and anguish, and *ecstatic* fit.

Id.

When one of them, after an *ecstatic* manner, fell  
 down before an angel, he was severely rebuked, and  
 bidden to worship God. *Stillington.*

These are as common to the inanimate things as to  
 the most *ecstatic* soul upon earth. *Norris.*

'T may be

No longer joy there, but an *ecstasy*. *Suchling.*  
 Whether what we call *ecstasy* be not dreaming with  
 our eyes open, I leave to be examined. *Locke.*

The religious pleasure of a well-disposed mind  
 moves gently, and therefore constantly: it does not  
 affect by rapture and *ecstasy*; but is like the pleasure  
 of health, still and sober. *South.*

Each delighted, and delighting, gives  
 The pleasing *ecstasy* which each receives.

Prior.

A pleasure, which no language can express;  
 An *ecstasy* that mothers only feel,  
 Plays round my heart. *Philips's Distressed Mother.*  
 In trance *ecstatic* may thy pangs be drowned;  
 Bright clouds descend, and angels watch thee round.

Pope.

The very kine that gambol at high noon,  
 The total herd receiving first from one,  
 That leads the dance, a summons to be gay,  
 Though wild their strange vagaries, and uncouth  
 Their efforts, yet resolved with one consent,  
 To give such act and utterance as they may  
 To *ecstasy* too big to be suppressed. *Cooper.*  
 Wakes from his trance, alarmed with young Desire,  
 Finds his new sex, and feels *ecstatic* fire;  
 From flower to flower with honeyed lip he springs,  
 And seeks his velvet loves on silver wings.

Darwin.

And let not this seem strange; the devotee  
 Lives not in earth, but in his *ecstasy*;  
 Around him days and worlds are heedless driven;  
 His soul is gone before his dust to heaven. *Byron.*

ECSTATICI, *Εκστατικοί*, from *εξσημι*, I am  
 entranced; in antiquity, a kind of diviners who  
 were cast into trances or ecstasies, in which they

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 to themself  
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properly called the Edda: and the kind of art of poetry, and called the most ancient Edda was compiled by Snorri Sturluson, surnamed the Learned, in Iceland about A. D. 1057. This was rendered more intelligible, afterwards, in the form of a dialogue by Olof Sturleson, who was supreme in 1215 and 1222. He added a part in the form of a dialogue, of different events transacted among the gods. The only three pieces that are of the more ancient Edda of Snorri Sturluson, the Havamaal, and the Voluspa, or prophecy of the gods.

The Voluspa, or prophecy of the gods, appears to be the text, on which the comment. It contains, in 200 lines, the whole system of mythology, the Edda, and may be compared to the Iliad, on account of its laconic and its imagery and obscurity. It is a revelation of the decrees of the gods, and the actions and operations of the gods. It describes the chaos, the formation of the world, the inhabitants, the gods, their most signal adventures, quarrels with Loke, or Lak, their vengeance that ensued; with a long description of the final verse, its dissolution and conflagration of the inferior deities, and the renovation of the world, the good, and the punishment of the evil. The Havamaal, or Sublime Disputations to the god Odin, who is supposed to have given these precepts of wisdom to the world, comprised in about 120 stanzas, is the book of Proverbs. The Runic is a short system of ancient magic, of the enchantments wrought by the Runic characters. A manuscript of the Edda of Snorri is preserved in the University of Upsal; the first part was published with a Swedish and Latin version by M. Goranson. The Latin version is a supplement to M. Mallet's edition. The first edition of the Edda, published by Resenius, professor at Uppsala, in a large 4to. volume, in 1665, is the text of the Edda, a Latin translation, and a Danish version, with readings from different MSS. M. Goranson has given an English translation of the Edda, accompanied with remarks, from which the Edda teaches the doctrine of the Supreme, called the Universal Father, who lives for ever, governs all things, directs the great things, as well as formed the heaven, earth, and sea, and gave him a spirit or soul, and after the body shall have perished; and then all the just shall live in Gimle or Vingolf, the happy ship; but wicked men shall go to Hel, and from thence to Nifheim, the wicked, which is below in the earth. It inculcates also the belief of gods and goddesses, the chief of which are, Frey, i. e. lady, meaning

hereby the earth, who was the spouse of Odin or the Supreme God; whence we may infer that, according to the opinion of these ancient philosophers, this Odin was the active principle or soul of the world, which, uniting itself with matter, had thereby put it into a condition to produce the intelligences or inferior gods, and men and all other creatures. The Edda likewise teaches the existence of an evil being called Loke, the calumniator of the gods, the artificer of fraud, who surpasses all other beings in cunning and perfidy. It teaches the creation of all things out of an abyss or chaos; the final destruction of the world by fire; the absorption of the inferior divinities, both good and bad, into the bosom of the grand divinity, from whom all things proceeded, as emanations of his essence, and who will survive all things; and the renovation of the earth in an improved state.

EDDER, *v. a. & n. s.* Probably from *edge*. To bind or interweave a fence. Not in common use.

To add strength to the edge, *edder* it; which is, bind the top of the stakes with some small long poles, on each side. *Mortimer's Husbandry.*

In lopping and felling, *save edder* and stake, Thine hedges, as needeth, to mend or to make.

EDDY, *n. s., adj. & v. a.* Icel. *ida*; but it is better derived from Goth. *idga*, to agitate: Sax. *ed*, backward, again, and *ea*, water. Water that runs contrary to the main stream: whirl. It is used also as a verb active.

My praises are as a bulrush upon a stream; if they sink not, 'tis because they are borne up by the strength of the current, which supports their lightness; but they are carried round again, and return on the eddy where they first began. *Dryden.*

And chaff with eddy winds is whirled around, And dancing leaves are lifted from the ground. *Id. Virgil.*

The wild waves mastered him, and sucked him in, And smiling eddies dimpled on the main. *Dryden.*

So, where our wide Numidian wastes extend, Sudden the impetuous hurricanes descend, Wheel through the air, in circling eddies play, Tear up the sands, and sweep whole plains away. *Addison's Cato.*

'Tis thine to cherish and to feed The pungent nose-refreshing weed: Which, whether pulverized it gain A speedy passage to the brain, Or whether, touched with fire, it rise In circling eddies to the skies, Does thought more quicken and refine Than all the breath of all the Nine. *Cowper.*

Through her fine limbs the mimic lightnings dart, And flames innocuous eddy round her heart; O'er her fair brow the kindling lustres glare, Blue rays diverging from her bristling hair. *Darwin.*

The sea-tide's opposing motion, In azure column proudly gleaming, Beats back the current many a rood In curling foam and mingling flood, While eddying whirl, and breaking wave, Roused by the blast of winter, rave. *Byron.*

EDDYSTONE Rocks, the name of some rocks in the English Channel, so called from the great variety of contrary currents in their vicinity. They are situated nearly S.S.W. from the middle of Plymouth Sound, their distance from the port



to all appearance, quite smooth, and its surface unruffled by the slightest breeze, the growing swell or under current, meeting the slope of the rocks, the sea often rises above the lighthouse in a magnificent manner, overtopping it as with a canopy of froth. Notwithstanding this tremendous swell, Mr. Henry Winstanley, in 1696, undertook to build a lighthouse on the principal rock, for the rest are under water; and he completed it in 1700. This ingenious mechanic was so confident of the stability of his structure, that he declared his wish to be in it during the most tremendous storm that could blow. Unfortunately he obtained his wish, for he perished in it during the dreadful storm which destroyed it, on the 27th November, 1703. In 1709 another lighthouse was erected of wood on this rock, but on a different construction, by Mr. John Rudyard. It stood till 1755, when it was burnt. A third one, of stone, begun by the late celebrated Mr. John Smeaton, on the 2d of April, 1757, was finished 24th August, 1759; and has withstood the rage of all weathers ever since. The rock which slopes towards the south-west is cut into horizontal steps; into which are dove-tailed, and united by a strong cement, Portland stone and granite, for Mr. Smeaton discovered that it was impossible to make use of the former entirely, as there is a marine animal that can destroy it; and that he could not use the latter solely, as the labor of working it would have been too expensive. He therefore used the one for the internal, and the other for the external, part of the structure. Upon the principle of a broad base and accumulation of matter, the whole, to the height of thirty-five feet from the foundation, is a solid mass of stones engrafted into each other, and united by every kind of additional strength. The lighthouse has four rooms, one over another, and at the top a gallery and lantern. The stone floors are flat above, but concave below, and are kept from pressing against the sides of the building by a chain let into the

and entering into the tent print, on two plates, from under entering into the tent by P. Drevet, from Peter died in 1707, in an advance Royal, in the Gobelins, when ment. His brother John was graver, but died young.

**EDEMATOSE**, *adj.* full of humors: commonly

A serosity obstructing the g edematose, and schirrous, according to the humour.

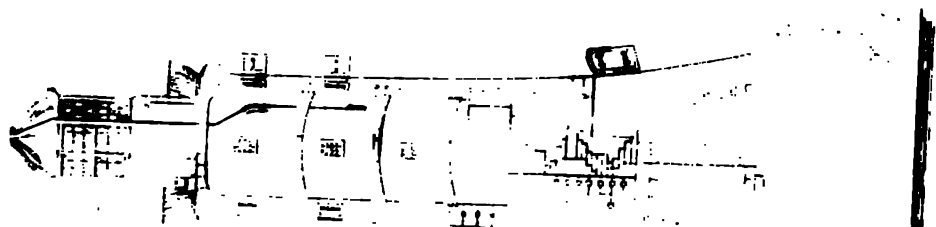
**EDEN**; from Heb. עֵדֶן. i. try with a garden, in which mankind were settled by God be endless to recount the vanity to its situation, some of which extravagant. Moses says that of Eden to water the garden, was parted and became into a river is supposed to be the confluence of the Euphrates and Tigris, after which parted again below into different channels, so that the four rivers, and the other two afterwards constitute the heads mentioned will determine the situation have been in the south of ancient Babylonia. The garden was the seat of Paradise; a term of Persian origin.

**EDEN**, a river of England, in the county of Cumberland, Solway Frith, about seven miles from Newcastle. Salmon appear in the Eden in December and January, and the Newcastle markets are supplied from this river; but it is not visited by the Esk in any notwithstanding the mouths are very near each other.

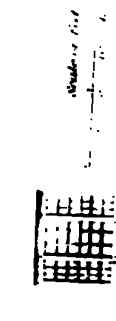




BELL ROCK



FOODSTONE









press, and juniper, all of which

the capital of the above district, is  
and port of entry, at the head of a  
rth side of Albemarle Sound, and  
ast side of the opening of Chowan  
nety-seven miles north of Newbern,  
t of Petersburg, and 440 S.S.W.  
a.

river of Germany, having its source  
s of Nassau, and, after watering the  
se, having its embouchure in the

or VODINA, a large town of Euro-  
in Romania, near the Vistricza,  
Turks Moglena. In ancient times  
idence of the Macedonian kings.  
2,000 inhabitants, part of whom  
in woollen manufactures; and is  
es W.N.W. of Saloniki, and 316  
antinople.

illage of Upper Egypt, celebrated  
the ancient Apollinopolis Parva,  
g two temples, which present most  
monuments of ancient Egyptian  
Those of Tentyra, in Denon's opi-  
uld equal them. Each of the sides  
lal propylon, which forms the prin-  
to the greater temple, is 100 feet  
ty wide, and 100 high. Many  
sculptured on it are thirty feet  
uted in a very masterly and spirited  
olors are preserved occasionally.  
rce in each division of 150, or  
ch lead into apartments alternately  
t by ten, and seventeen by ten.  
never saw more colossal sculptures  
ter walls of this temple. They are  
atic of the beneficial influence of  
wing forth and maturing the fruits  
sis is represented suckling a young  
and priestesses are sometimes seen  
children to the goddess and to  
rubbish has collected to a greater  
an on the site of any of the other  
Thebaid. Long. 32° 53' 44" E.,  
° N.

he son of Edmund I., one of the  
e of the Anglo-Saxon monarchs.  
his brother Edwy, A. D. 959; and  
e been rowed down the Dee, by  
is vassals. He died in 975. See

ELING, the son of prince Edward,  
ughter of the emperor Henry II.  
of Edmund II. king of England.  
a the lawful heir of the crown, and  
ared king upon the death of Harold  
ted to William the Conqueror, after  
lastings: but afterwards retired to  
a his two sisters, Margaret and  
ere they were kindly received by  
a II. who married the princess  
ee ENGLAND.

ea-port town of Massachusetts, in  
ates, situated on the east side of  
Martha's Vineyard, and reckoned  
ort of the island. Long. 70° 25'  
2° N.

EDGCOMB, a county of Halifax district  
North Carolina, bounded on the south by Pitt  
county; on the south-west by Wayne county  
and Tar River, which affords it communication  
with several counties in the state, on the west by  
Nash county, and on the east by Martin and  
Halifax counties.

EDGE, *n. s., v. a. & v. n.*

EDG'ING, *n. s.*

EDGE'LESS, *adj.*

EDGE'TOOL, *n. s.*

EDGE'WISE, *adv.*

Sax. *ecge*;  
Goth. *egg*, or  
*eg*; Teut. *eche*;  
Swed. *egg*; Lat.  
*acies*, of Gr. *ακς*.

The sharp part of a blade or cutting instrument;  
termination of two sloping sides; brink; margin;  
applied, also, to acuteness of intellect. The  
verbs are derived from the noun, and the active  
verb is used to signify putting forward edgewise:  
and, metaphorically, to exasperate; inflame.  
Edging, as a substantive, means that which  
forms, or covers, the edge: bordering.

'Tis slander,

Whose edge is sharper than the sword.

*Shakespeare. Cymbeline.*

Abate the edge of traitors, gracious Lord!  
That would reduce these bloody days again.

*Id. Richard III.*

To-morrow in the battle think on me,  
And fall thy *edgeless* sword; despair and die. *Id.*  
A harsh grating tune setteth the teeth on edge.

*Bacon.*

We find that subtle or *edged* quantities do prevail  
over blunt ones.

*Digby on Bodies.*

He that will a good edge win,  
Must forge thick, and grind thin. *Proverb.*  
There sat she rolling her alluring eyes,  
To edge her champion's sword, and urge my ruin.

*Dryden.*

I must edge upon a point of wind,  
And make slow way. *Id. Cleomenes.*

Silence and solitude set an edge upon the genius,  
and cause a greater application. *Id. Dufrenoy.*

The garland which I wove for you to wear,  
And bordered with a rosy edging round, *Dryden.*

There must be no playing with things sacred, nor  
jesting with *edgetools*. *L'Estrange.*

Nurses from their children keep *edgetools*. *Dorset.*

Edging by degrees their chairs forwards, they  
were in a little time got up close to one another.

*Locke.*

Should the flat side be objected to the stream,  
it would be soon turned *edgewise* by the force of it.

*Ray.*

A woman branches out into a long dissertation  
upon the edging of a petticoat. *Addison's Spectator.*

They are *edgeless* weapons it hath to encounter.

*Decay of Piety.*

But when long time the wretches' thoughts refused,  
When want had set an edge upon their mind,  
Then various cares their working thoughts employed  
And that which each invented all enjoyed.

*Creech's Manil.*

The rays which pass very near to the edges of any  
body, are bent a little by the action of the body.

*Newton's Opticks.*

We have, for many years, walked upon the edge of  
a precipice, while nothing but the slender thread of  
human life has held us from sinking into endless  
misery.

*Rogers.*

Yes, the last pen for freedom let me draw,  
When truth stands trembling on the edge of law.

*Pope.*

Some harrow their ground over, and then plow it  
upon an edge.

*Newtomer's Husbandry.*



I shall exercise upon steel, and its several sorts;  
and what sort is fittest for *edgetools*, which for springs.

*Mozon.*

It is with wits as with razors, which are never so  
apt to cut those they are employed on, as when they  
have lost their *edge*.

*Swift.*

However, if in general it be not easy to determine  
concerning the lawfulness of such devious proceedings,  
which must be ever on the *edge* of crimes, it is far  
from difficult to foresee the perilous consequences of  
the resuscitation of such a power in the people.

*Burke.*

*Edge over edge* expands the hardening scale,  
And sheaths his slimy skin in silver mail. *Darwin.*

But see him on the *edge* of life,  
With cares and sorrows worn;  
Then age and want, Oh! ill-matched pair!  
Show man was made to mourn.

*Burns.*

LADY TEA. Nay, I allow even that's better than the  
pains Mrs. Prim takes to conceal her losses in front.  
She draws her mouth till it positively resembles the  
aperture of a poor's box, and all her words appear to  
slide out *edgewise*, as it were.

*Sheridan.*

And you, ye crags, upon whose extreme *edge*,  
I stand, and on the torrent's brink beneath  
Behold the tall pines dwindled as to shrubs  
In dizziness of distance; when a leap,  
A stir, a motion, even a breath, would bring  
My breast upon its rocky bosom's bed  
To rest for ever—wherefore do I pause?

*Byron.*

EDGEFIELD, a county of South Carolina,  
the southernmost in the district of Ninety-Six,  
bounded on the north by Saluda River, which  
divides it from Newbury county, on the south-  
west by Savannah River, which separates it  
from the state of Georgia, on the east by Orange-  
burg district, and on the west by Abbeville  
county. The ridge of elevated land, which di-  
vides the waters of Saluda from those of Savan-  
nah River, passes nearly through the middle of  
the county. Edgefield county is about thirty-  
four miles long, and twenty-four broad.

EDGEFIELD, a town in the above county, with  
a court house and post office: forty miles from  
Abbeville; twenty-five from Augusta, and sixty  
from Colombia.

EDGEHILL, a village in Warwickshire, near  
Kenton; memorable for the first battle fought  
between the forces of king Charles I., and those  
of the parliament in 1642. It is fourteen miles  
south of Warwick. See ENGLAND, HISTORY.

EDGEWARE, a town of England, in the  
county of Middlesex, on the borders of Hert-  
fordshire. It is eight miles north-west of London.

EDGEWORTH (Abbé), was born at Edge-  
worth's town in Ireland in 1745; but his father,  
who was a clergyman, having become a catholic,  
he settled with his family at Toulouse. After  
studying at Paris, the abbé Edgeworth entered  
the fraternity of Les Missions Etrangères. He  
was confessor to the princess Elizabeth, and thus  
becoming known to the unfortunate Louis XVI,  
he attended him to the scaffold. He made his  
escape in disguise afterwards, and came to Eng-  
land, whence he went to Mittau to attend upon  
Louis XVIII, and died there of an hospital fever  
in 1807. His letters and life were published in  
1818.

EDGEWORTH (Richard Lovell), a literary gen-  
tleman of considerable talents, was born in 1744  
at Bath, and of the same family as the foregoing.

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went to Lyon  
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he became a l  
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own estate a  
of Ireland,  
bogs, &c. and  
daughter, Mi  
practical, and  
as well as son  
the author of  
Roads and C  
mont on the  
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Academy. I  
June 1817.  
of whom two

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cies for this  
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thyme, savor  
but these are  
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Daisies, thri  
are also used  
require yearl  
trouble, other  
they are als  
seasons.

EDHILIN  
lation of the  
'The Saxon'  
'is divided i  
the edhilingi,  
signify the n  
or slaves.' I  
meet with att  
tion was like  
the presumpt  
ING.

ED'DISH  
grass; the af  
has grown th

*Eddish*, or *e*  
which comes a  
ear-grass, ears

E'DIBLE  
eaten; fit for  
Some flesh

Wheat and  
edible or potab



edication decks the board.  
fungus kind, gathered for *edible* mushrooms, produced a difficulty of breathing.

*Arbutnot.*

*s. Lat. edictum.* A proclamation of prohibition; a law promulgated. A monarch commandeth his subjects to do what he deemeth good in his own discretion, and the force of a law?

*Hooker.*

The great King of kings,  
table of his law commanded  
all to do no murder; will you then  
edict, and fulfil a man's?

*Shakespeare. Richard III.*

es may keep our tongues in awe,  
gives what *edict* can give law? *Dryden.*  
are always preaching, and the govern-  
ment edicts against gaming and fine cloaths.

*Addison.*

ness of a sensible government to im-  
pose with a sense of subordination, whether  
by a diamond buckle, or a virtuous  
law, or a glass necklace.

*Goldsmith.*

edged by the acts, arrets, and *edicts*, all  
for regulating commerce, an assembly  
the greatest fool upon earth.

*Franklin.*

is an order or instrument, signed  
by a prince, to serve as a law to his  
subjects. frequent mention of the *edicts*,  
in the Roman law. In the ci-  
vil law, the *edicts* were of several  
kinds: importing new laws or regulations;  
action of new offices; establish-  
ing rents, &c.; and sometimes articles  
of law. In despotic governments, an  
*edict* is the same as a proclamation is with  
us. The difference, that the former has  
the force of a law from the power which  
issues it, whereas the latter is only a declaration  
which it refers, and has no power in  
itself. *Edicts* cannot exist in Britain, because  
the law is lodged in the parliament  
king. *Edicts* are all sealed with  
the sign of their being perpetual and

*s. Fr. edifier; Span. and  
n. s. Portug. edificar; Italian  
y, adj. and Lat. edificare. To  
s. build, applied both liter-  
ally and morally; but  
t. s. edification is principally  
in sense: edificatory is tending to  
edifice the building or structure  
he who builds or raises it.*

may excel to the *edifying* of the church.

*Bible. 1 Cor. 14. 12.*

th no more than *edifieth*, is under-  
stood for much speaking. *Hooker.*

ed when either their understanding  
is at whereof, in such actions, it be-  
comes consider, or when their hearts are  
affection suitable thereunto. *Id.*

There was a holy chapel *edified*,  
Wherein the hermit wont to say  
His holy things each morn and eventide.

*Spenser.*

My love was like a fair house built on another  
man's ground; so that I have lost my *edifice* by mis-  
taking the place where I erected it.

*Shakespeare. Merry Wives of Windsor.*

You shall hardly *edify* me, that those nations might  
not, by the law of nature, have been subdued by any  
nation that had only policy and moral virtue.

*Bacon's Holy War.*

God built

So spacious, and his line stretched out so far,  
That man may know he dwells not in his own;  
An *edifice* too large for him to fill.

*Milton.*

An exercise so beneficially *edificatory* to the church

*Bp. Hall.*

Our blessed Saviour told us, that we must account  
for every idle word, not meaning that every word  
not designed for *edification*, or less prudent, shall be  
reckoned for a sin.

*Taylor.*

Life is no life, without the blessing of a friendly  
and an *edifying* conversation.

*L'Estrange.*

He gave, he taught; and *edified* the more,  
Because he shewed, by proof, 'twas easy to be poor.

*Dryden.*

Men have *edified*

A lofty temple, and perfumed an altar to thy name.

*Chapman.*

Out of these magazines I shall supply the town  
with what may tend to their *edification*.

*Addison's Guardian.*

As Tuscan pillars owe their original to this country,  
the architects always give them a place in *edifices*  
raised in Tuscany.

*Id. On Italy.*

He must be an idiot that cannot discern more strokes  
of workmanship in the structure of an animal than  
in the most elegant *edifice*.

*Bentley.*

As in order to the *edification* of the church, the  
spirit of God at first conferred upon the ministers of it  
a great variety of spiritual gifts,

*Mason.*

It is with infinite caution that any man ought to  
venture upon pulling down an *edifice* which has an-  
swered in any tolerable degree for ages the common  
purposes of society, or on building it up again, with-  
out having models and patterns of approved utility  
before his eyes.

*Burke.*

Some decent in demeanour while they preach,  
That task performed, relapse into themselves;  
And, having spoken wisely, at the close  
Grow wanton, and give proof to every eye,  
Whoe'er was *edified*, themselves were not.

*Cowper.*

So fares he in that dreadful hour,  
When injured Truth exerts her power,  
Some new phenomenon to raise,  
Which, bursting on his frightened gaze,  
From its proud summit to the ground,  
Proves the whole *edifice* unsound.

*Beattie.*

*E'DILE, n. s. Lat. edilis.* The title of a  
magistrate in old Rome, whose office seems in  
some particulars to have resembled that of our  
justices of peace.

The *edile*, ho! let him be apprehended.

*Shakespeare.*



theatre, in which, on elevated, though less lofty, ground, stands this flourishing city. It is said, with considerable propriety, to stand on three hills, which run in a direction from east to west; and hence its natural division into the southern, middle, and northern districts.

The origin of its name, like that of most other cities, is very uncertain. Some imagine it to be derived from Eth, a king of the Picts; others from Edwin, a Saxon prince of Northumberland, who over-ran the whole or greatest part of the territories of the Picts about A. D. 617; while others derive it from the Gaelic words Dun Edin, signifying the face of a hill. The name Edinburgh, however, seems to have been unknown in the time of the Romans. The most ancient title by which we find this city distinguished is that of Castell Mynyd Agned; which, in the British language, signifies 'the fortress of the hill of St. Agnes.' Afterwards it was named Castrum Puellarum, because the Pictish princesses were educated in the castle (a necessary protection in those barbarous ages) till they were married. The most plausible derivation of the present name of the city seems to be that of the Northumbrian prince above mentioned. Simeon of Durham calls it Edwinesburgh, and notices it as existing in the middle of the eighth century.

The most ancient part of the city, or Old Town, as it is called, stands on the middle or central ridge of the three eminences above mentioned, which is terminated on the west by a lofty and almost inaccessible rock, on which is placed the castle; the New Town occupies an elevated plain on the north; and the southern district is situated on a rising ground in the opposite direction. The hill on which the Old Town is built is separated from the other two districts by a valley on each side, that upon the northern side having been formerly a lake. In the progress of improvement, however, this lake having been drained, and streets and bridges having also been formed, these valleys are no impediment to a complete and ready communication from one district to another.

street, though lofty, are less of the High Street. From the loch on the north, at the south, run narrow creeks called wynds and closes, and the abrupt descent of the steep and difficult of passage, not at all remedied by the rarely more than six feet.

The origin of this city is in obscurity. The most accounts have been given; and, without sharing the monkish writers, not to its remote annals. Situated the country which formed of Valentia, and which, more the subject of wars and detestable impossible to trace its foundation believe our earliest historians was built by Camelon king A. A. C. 330. It was in the Saxons, from the invasion of 452, till the defeat of Egfrid in 685 by the Picts, themselves of it. The Saxons reconquered it in the 10th century, and it was retained by their successors till 956, when it was given up to Scotland. In 1093 it was taken by the usurper Donald Bannockburn. David I. founded the abbey of St. Mary's, and gave a charter for certain canons regular; in which he styled himself de Edwinesbergh, my brother. In 1174 the castle was surrendered to Edward I. of England, to purchase the release of William I. who had been taken prisoner by the English. But William formed an alliance with Henry, and the castle was given to Ermengarde; upon which it was part of the queen's dowry.

James II. in 1450 first introduced the privilege of fortification.



east was connected with the buildings on the north side of the High Street, at the original New Port; but after the battle of Flodden the city was extended. It now began on the south-east side of the rock on which the castle was built. From thence it descended obliquely to the West Port; it then ascended partly on the other side, called the High Riggs; thence it ran east with but little alteration of course, to the Bristo and Potter Row ports, and thence to the Pleasance. Here it took a westerly direction, which it kept from thence to the Cowgate port, after which the enclosure was completed to the Netherbow by the houses of Mary's wynd. For 250 years the city of Edinburgh occupied the same space of ground. In the middle of the sixteenth century, it is described as extending in length about an Italian mile and about half as much in breadth. This space of ground, however, was not at that time occupied in the manner it has been since. The walls of the Old Town were neither so high nor so thick upon each other as they are now. The present walls were consequences of the number of inhabitants increasing, which occasioned the raising of houses to such a height, as perhaps is unparalleled.

The castle of Edinburgh stands on a high rock, accessible only on the east side. On all other sides it is steep, and in some places perpendicular. It is about 300 feet high from its base, and 383 feet above the level of the sea. The entrance to this castle is defended by an outer barrier of palisades; within this is a dry ditch, draw-bridge, and the whole is commanded by a half moon battery, defended by two batteries which flank the entrance. Beyond these are two more batteries, the first of which is very strong, and the second is a portcullis. Immediately beyond the portcullis is a gate-way, on the right hand, is a battery defended with cannon, carrying balls of 12 and 24 pound weight. On the north side are a mortar and gun batteries. The upper part of the castle contains a half-moon battery, a chapel, a hall for exercise, and a number of houses in the form of a square, which are laid out in barracks for the officers. There are also other barracks sufficient to contain 1200 men; a powder magazine, bomb-proof; a grand arsenal, capable of containing 8000 stand of arms; and other magazines which can contain full 22,000 more. On the east side of the square were formerly the apartments; in one of which king James was born. In this quarter, immediately to the south of the square tower, is the apartment called the Crown room, wherein are deposited the Scottish regalia: consisting of the crown, sceptre, sword of state, which were placed here on the 6th of March, 1707. It was long doubted whether these ensigns of royalty had not been destroyed; but in 1818, when commissioners were appointed by his present majesty, then king George the Third, to search for them, a large oak chest in the crown room was forced open, and the regalia of the Scottish monarchy were discovered. They were found in a state of the most perfect preservation, and have since been open to the inspection of the public. The crown room was neatly fitted up for the exhibition of

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them; and two persons, in the dress of the wardens of the tower, attended to show them to visitors. The governor of the castle is generally a Scottish nobleman; and there is a deputy governor, who resides in the garrison; also a fort-major, a store-keeper, master gunner, and chaplain. In its present improved state this castle can accommodate 2000 men; but its natural strength of situation was not sufficient to render it impregnable, even before the invention of artillery, much less would it be capable of securing it against the attacks of a modern army provided with cannon.

St. Giles's church is a beautiful Gothic building, measuring in length 206 feet. At the west end, its breadth is 110 feet, in the middle, 129; and at the east end, seventy-six. It is adorned with a lofty square tower, from the sides and corners of which rise arches of figured stone work; these, meeting with each other in the middle, complete the figure of an imperial crown, the top of which terminates in a pointed spire. The whole height of this tower is 161 feet. This is the most ancient church in Edinburgh, and its tutelary saint was St. Giles, a native of Greece. It was at first simply a parish church, of which the bishop of Lindisfarne or Holy Island, in the county of Northumberland, was patron. In 1466, it was erected into a collegiate church by James III. At the Reformation it was divided into several parts. The four principal divisions form as many churches appropriated to divine worship; the smaller ones to other purposes. At the same time the religious utensils belonging to it were seized and sold by the magistrates; part of the money being applied to its repair, and the rest added to the funds of the corporation. In the steeple are three ancient bells: there is also a set of music bells, upon which tunes are played by the hand. The principal division is called the High Church, in which the general assembly sits. The church is fitted up with seats for all the great officers of the assembly; and there is a throne for his majesty's commissioner. In this church is a monument to the celebrated Napier, inventor of logarithms; another to the regent Murray; and a third to the great marquis of Montrose. The names of the four churches, into which St. Giles's is divided, are, the New, or High Church, above described; the Old Church; the New North Church, or Haddow's Hole, so named from the Laird of Haddow having been for some time imprisoned in it; and the Tolbooth Church. The Tron Church is an elegant structure, erected in 1641, with a spire, and stands on the south side of the High Street, between the north and south bridges. The spire was burnt down in 1824, having accidentally caught fire from the burning embers blown by the wind from the great tenements on the west. Lady Yester's Church is situated nearly opposite to the Royal Infirmary. The Old and New Gray Friars churches are situated on the top of the south ridge, east of Heriot's Hospital, nearly in the middle of the ancient gardens belonging to the Gray Friars. These churches are both under one roof, and have one common portico; but are separated by a partition wall. The Old Gray Friars was

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founded about 1612, and had once a steeple. Trinity College Church was founded by queen Mary, wife of king James II. in 1461, at the same time with the Trinity Hospital. It is situated at the east end of the north loch.

Canongate Church stands near the middle of the north side of the street called the Canongate, and was founded in 1689. It is a Gothic building, in the form of a cross, and was erected at the cost of about £2400, being the accumulated principal and interest of 20,000 merks, bequeathed by a Mr. Thomas Moodie, for the pious purpose of building a church. In the cemetery lie the remains of the celebrated author of the *Wealth of Nations*, Dr. Adam Smith; and a simple stone, erected at the expense of Burns, marks the burial place of his fellow-bard Ferguson. St. Cuthbert's Church, or the West Kirk, stands at the western extremity of the valley which divides the New from the Old Town, near the base of the castle rock. Its architecture is by no means elegant, but a handsome spire atones for the homely appearance of the church itself. It is deemed the largest place of worship in Edinburgh. St. Andrew's Church stands on the north side of George's Street, in the New Town, surmounted with a fine spire 168 feet in height. A portico, supported by four columns of the Corinthian order, projects a few feet into the street. In the spire there is a chime of eight bells. The whole is elegantly finished, and has fine appearance. St. George's Church stands on the west side of Charlotte Square, and forms the terminating object of George's Street, from which it is seen along its whole extent. The front to the square consists of a portico, or vestibule, with four columns and two pilasters of the Ionic order, elevated on a flight of steps sixty-eight feet in width. Behind the portico rises a dome, intended as a miniature representation of that of St. Paul's, London. The whole building, with the exception of the dome, which is seen to advantage in almost every direction round the city, has a heavy appearance, and it has often been regretted that the original design of the celebrated architect, Adam, was abandoned merely with a view to economy. The building, as it stands, cost £33,000; but it has since been ascertained that, according to Mr. Adam's plan, the expense would have been considerably under that sum. This church was opened for public worship in 1814, and is calculated to contain 1600 people. The other churches of Edinburgh, remarkable for the elegance of their architecture, are St. Mary's Church, situated in Bellevue Crescent, opened for worship, in 1825; St. Paul's Chapel, on the north side of York Street, finished in 1818, at an expense of £12,000; St. John's Chapel, situated a little to the south of the western extremity of Prince's Street, also finished in 1818, at an expense of £15,000. St. George's Chapel, in York-place, built from a design by Robert Adam, in 1794; the Roman Catholic Chapel, at the head of Leith-walk, built from a design by Gillespie in 1813, possessing a very fine organ, and a beautiful altar-piece, painted by Vandyke; the Methodist Chapel, in Nicholson's-square, built in 1814, at an expense of £5000;

Dr. Jameson's Chapel, at the south end of Nicholson-street, founded in 1819, and finished in 1820; Dr. Hall's Chapel, terminating the end of Broughton Street. Mr. Paxton's Infirmary Street; and the Relief Cowgate. The architecture of the churches of worship in Edinburgh, is not such as to require them to be particularly noticed on account. Till of late years, the plain most homely accommodation was all that aimed at in the erection of places of worship. Besides the churches and chapels already mentioned, however, there are various other places of worship in this city of great importance, either for the convenience of the congregations which they contain, or for the celebrity and talents of their pastors. The Scottish Episcopal Church alone has no less than six places of worship. There are also Leith Chapel, and the Gaelic Chapel. In the latter the service is performed in the Gaelic language, for the benefit of the Highlanders. The High Church was erected in 1769, and stood on the site of the castle; but the congregation removed in 1815 to a more commodious place at the head of the Horse-Wynd. A great number of places for divine worship, in Edinburgh and Leith, distinguishing themselves by the persuasions, is as follow: Established Church, 16; Chapels of Ease, 9; Scottish Episcopal, 1; Cameronians, 1; United Associate Synod, 9; Associate Synod, 1; Burgher, 1; Original Antiburgher, 6; Independents, 3; Baptists, 4; Methodist, 2; Roman Catholics, 2; Glassites, 1; Friends, 1; Bereans, 1; New Jerusalem, 1; Unitarians, 1; Jews, 1; in all 51. The regular established clergy consist of twenty-five. The number of parishes is sixteen, nine of which are collegiate charges, or have two ministers joined in the discharge of the pastoral duties. Besides these there are, under the countenance of the established church, seven of the chapels as they are called; two of which are at Canongate, one in the old part of the city, and one in the southern district, one at Stockbridge, and one in Leith.

In 1215 this city was first distinguished by having a parliament and provincial synod in it; but it does not appear to have been upon as the capital of Scotland till the middle of the fifteenth century, when parliaments began to be held in it regularly, and where institutions succeeded to the rule of anarchy, which had previously prevailed. The improvements which were introduced into the kingdom at that period, Scotland was indebted to her amiable and enlightened monarch James I., who unfortunately fell a victim to the jealousy entertained by the nobility, of the measures he projected in favor of the people. In 1329 the town of Leith, with its harbor and mills, had been bestowed upon Edinburgh by Robert I.; and his grandson, Robert II. conferred upon all the burgesses the privilege of building houses in the castle, on the sole condition that they should be of good fame. From the middle of the fifteenth century, its privileges continued to be



various causes. In 1482 the citizens had opportunity of liberating king James III. from the oppression of his nobles, by whom he had been imprisoned in the castle. On this occasion the provost was by that monarch made high sheriff within the city, an office he continues still to enjoy. The council, at the same time, were invested with the power of making laws and statutes for the government of the city; and the trades, as a testimony of royal gratitude for their loyalty, received the banner known by the name of the Blacket, which still exists, and is kept by the venerated trades for the time. By the death of James IV., at the battle of Flodden, Edinburgh was overwhelmed with grief, the monarch having been attended in his unfortunate expedition by the earl of Angus, then at the head of the magistracy, and a number of the principal inhabitants, most of whom perished in the battle. The inhabitants, for the safety of their city, enacted that no fourth man should keep watch at night; the fortifications of the town were renewed, and all extended, as we have before mentioned. This, the inhabitants were gradually relieved from the trouble of watching at night, by a commander of militia being appointed to preclude disturbances. About this period, the city almost depopulated by a dreadful plague; to stop if possible, the progress of the pestilence, all houses and shops were shut up for seven days; and some, where infected persons died, were pulled down altogether. In the tract of ground, called the Burroughs, which was totally overgrown with wood, and it was accordingly enacted by the town-council, that no person should purchase as much as was sufficient to make a new front for his house, but should extend it seven feet into the street. Thus, in a short time, the city was, in many instances, narrowed fourteen feet.

In 1542 an English fleet of 200 sail entered the Forth; and, having landed their forces, they made themselves masters of the towns of Leith and Edinburgh. They next attacked the castle, but were repulsed from it with loss; and, as this was so enraged, that they not only besieged both towns, but laid waste the country in every great way round. In 1547 Leith was burned by the English after the battle of Pinkie, but Edinburgh was spared. Several disturbances happened in the capital at the time of the Reformation, of which an account will be given under the article SCOTLAND; but none of these greatly affected the city till 1570, when the war took place on account of queen Mary's abdication. The city was then sometimes in the hands of one party, and sometimes of another; during which the inhabitants, as may be imagined, suffered extremely. The earl of Morton, when regent, in 1573, built two bulwarks across the High Street, nearly opposite to the North, to defend the city from the fire of the English.

A treaty was at last concluded between the leaders of the opposite factions; but Kirkcaldy refused to be comprehended in it. The city therefore solicited the assistance of queen

Elizabeth, and Sir W. Drury was sent into Scotland with 1500 foot, and a train of artillery. The castle was now besieged in form, and batteries raised against it in different places. The governor defended himself with great bravery for thirty-three days; but finding most of the fortifications demolished, the well choked up with rubbish, and all supplies of water cut off, he was obliged to surrender. The English general, in the name of his mistress, promised him honorable treatment; but the queen of England shamefully gave him up to the regent, by whom he was hanged. Soon after, the most violent religious commotions of Scotland took place, in which the king was insulted and killed at by the clergy, seconded by the magistrates of Edinburgh, as well as the citizens. This led to various severe measures against the city and ministers, which will be detailed under the article SCOTLAND. A reconciliation, however, at length took place, which appears to have been satisfactory to all parties, as the king not only allowed the clergy, some of whom had been degraded, to be replaced, but in 1610 conferred various marks of his favor on the town. Another invasion from England being apprehended in 1558, the city raised 1450 men for its defence, among whom there are said to have been 200 tailors.

In the beginning of the reign of Charles I., a perfect harmony seems to have subsisted between the court and the city: for in 1627 that monarch presented the city with a new sword and gown, to be worn by the provost. Next year he paid a visit to this capital, and was received by the magistrates in a most loyal manner. When this prince attempted to introduce Episcopacy into Scotland, his first step was the erection of the three Lothians, and part of Berwick into a diocese, Edinburgh being the episcopal seat, and the church of St. Giles the cathedral. Much disturbance was occasioned in 1637, by the first attempt to read the prayer-book there, and next winter the neighbouring people resorted to town in such multitudes, that the privy council thought proper to publish two acts; by one of which they were commanded, under severe penalties, to leave the town in twenty-four hours; and by the other, the court of session was removed to Linlithgow. The bishops on some of these occasions narrowly escaped with their lives. Notwithstanding these disturbances, however, the king again visited Edinburgh in 1641, and was entertained by the magistrates at an expense of £12,000 Scots. It does not appear that after this the city was in any way particularly concerned with the commotions which followed, either throughout the remainder of the reign of Charles I., the Commonwealth, or the reign of Charles II. In 1680 the duke of York, with his duchess, the princess Anne, and the whole court of Scotland, were entertained by the city in the Parliament House, at the expense of £15,000 Scots. At this time, it is said, that the scheme of building the bridge over the North Lough was first projected by the duke. An act passed in 1621, that the houses, instead of being covered with straw or boards, should have their roofs constructed of slate, tiles, or lead. This

tween the two kingdoms, when it was designed to unite, and on that occasion Edinburgh became a scene of the most violent disturbances, of which an account will be found under ENGLAND. During the time the act was passing, it was found necessary for the guards and four regiments of foot to do duty in the city. The disturbances were augmented by the disagreement of the two parties in parliament; and, notwithstanding the victory gained by the court, Sir Patrick Johnson, the provost, who voted for the union, was obliged afterwards to leave the country. In 1715 the city remained faithful to the royal cause; the city guard was increased, and 400 men raised at the public expense. The rebels, however, made themselves masters of the citadel of Leith; but, fearing an attack from the duke of Argyle, abandoned it in the night. A scheme was laid for their becoming masters of the castle of Edinburgh; but, being discovered, it failed, and a serjeant was hanged over the place where he had attempted to introduce the rebels. The loyalty of the city was equally remarkable in 1725, when disturbances were excited in Glasgow, and all parts of the kingdom, concerning the excise bill; for all remained quiet in Edinburgh, and government returned thanks to the magistrates for their vigilance. In 1736, however, the city fell under the royal displeasure, in the following singular manner:—Two smugglers having been condemned to be hanged, were conducted, as usual, each Sunday to the Tolbooth church, guarded by three soldiers. Having arrived there on one of these occasions before the congregation, one of the prisoners suddenly seized the guards, one in each hand, and the other in his teeth, calling out to his companion to fly, which he immediately did, and was never heard of afterwards. The smuggler who had thus saved the life of his companion without regard to his own, now became an object of general compassion; and the guard, who led him to execution, were severely pelted by the mob. Some of the soldiers were certainly wounded in the affair, and captain Porteous, who commanded the guard, was

from the provost. The popular affair were most de other point most orderly they had not brought a broke open a shop where be had; and having taken upon the table, retired p allowed the unhappy Po to pray and sing psalms. The English government si deeply. A reward of £20 proclamation to any perse those concerned; but all e to produce any discovery the city therefore were r The provost was imprison he was admitted to bail; a four baillies, with the lords dered to London to attend On their arrival, after some that they should attend in but their examination wa A bill, however, passed bot was enacted, that the city be fined in £2000, for the widow; and the provost w of ever afterwards serving

In 1745 the city was inv der's army; and, on the 171 prised and taken by a p The inhabitants were coi their arms at Holyrood H were required from the cit tary execution and an as the pound imposed upc Pretenders army guarded castle, which however h and a communication was e city for supplies. After t the provost of Edinburgh don and at Edinburgh, for against the rebels; but the allowed to adjourn, under day, and having been enclod him. The duke of Cum



from the High Street to the Cowgate, and destroyed all the buildings of Parliament Square, except those connected with the parliament house. Fortunately the loss of life was not great. Four individuals only were killed, and twelve carried to the infirmary severely hurt. The calamity to the unfortunate persons who were rendered houseless, was also greatly lessened by a prompt and liberal public subscription on their behalf. Another fire took place in the High Street in February, 1825, which at its commencement threatened similar devastations, but the flames were happily subdued after the destruction of one large old tenement, and a few smaller houses adjoining it. Edinburgh, like London, partook of the general mania which prevailed in 1825 for speculating in Joint Stock Companies. Stock-jobbing, for the first time, became a business or profession in the Scottish metropolis; and schemes, as wild as the celebrated South Sea Bubble in England, or Mississippi scheme in France, promised to triumph over the characteristic prudence and proverbial caution of the people. The number and the variety of the public companies, which were either set a-going or projected within the short space of six months, excited astonishment for a time, but latterly they became the subject of ridicule; and, when some of the London bubbles fortunately burst, the delusion became so apparent, that all further undertakings in the joint-stock line immediately ceased. That some of the companies which were established at that time may turn out productive to the parties who embarked in them it would be unfair to doubt; but many of them will eventually prove sad lessons to individuals of the folly of rash and ill-timed speculation.

The charitable institutions and general improvements of Edinburgh will now engage our more distinct attention. I. Of the former, the most important is Heriot's Hospital, finely situated on a rising ground to the south of the Castle Hill. It owes its foundation to George Heriot, goldsmith to James VI., who at his death, after having provided for his relations, left to the

hospital, with an allowance of £1000 per annum, Boys going out as apprentices, allowed £10 annually for five years, leaving of their apprenticeship number of boys is 180. The is vested in a treasurer, appraisers of Edinburgh, under governor, house-keeper, and different branches of learn Hospital; so named from James Watson, who, dying a bachelor, left £12,000 for the maintenance of the children and grand-children of the Merchants' Company. The scheme, however, was not carried till 1738, when the sum originally accumulated to £20,000. It was then erected, in which a maintained and educated. I side of the city, a little to the Hospital; and was erected for £5000. It is under the management of a master, assistants, and treasurer. Company, four old bailies, the and the two ministers of the boys are genteelly clothed and III. The Merchants' Maiden lished by voluntary contributions education and maintenance of chant burgesses of Edinburgh were erected into a body of parliament, in 1707. The £3000. About eighty girls educated; the majority of who house, receive £3 6s. 8d. Encouragement of merit, those who to the generality in the acquisition, are allowed £8 6s. 8d. Maiden Hospital was founded incorporation of Edinburgh, of the daughters of decayed families similar to that of the former kine, a widow gentlewoman Marr, contributed so liberal the governors styled joint-governors

some building, consisting of a body and two wings, with a neat spire, furnished with a clock and two bells. The philanthropic Mr. Howard erected this institution one of the most useful in Europe, and a pattern for all others of the kind. VI. The Trinity Hospital was founded in 1461, by the queen of James II. At the reformation it was stripped of its revenues; but afterwards bestowed them on the provost of Edinburgh. The hospital was after this reformed, and appointed for the reception of old burghesses, their wives, and unmarried women, not under fifty years of age. It is situated at the foot of Leith Wynd, and comfortably maintains about forty of both sexes, who each have a room for themselves. There is a library for their amusement, and they have plain. About 100 out-pensioners have £6 per annum each. The funds are under the management of the town council. VII. The Charity School was erected in 1743, by voluntary contributions. It is a large plain building, situated in the south district of the city. The permanent fund for defraying the expense of this establishment is a tax of two per cent. on the assessed rents of the city. The rest is derived from collections at the church doors and voluntary contributions; but, as these always fall short of what is requisite, recourse is frequently had to extraordinary collections. In 1813 it was found necessary to raise the assessment on the assessed rents from two per cent. to five. The rate at the present time is at the rate of three and a half per cent. The number of inmates, men, women, and children, including about twenty lunatics, average from 800 to 900, and the average expense of maintaining each person is 2s. 5½d. per annum. There are two other workhouses in the suburbs, much on the same plan with that now described; one in the Canongate, and the other in St. Cuthbert's or St. Kirk parish. VIII. Gillespie's Hospital, founded about 1796 by James Gillespie, a lawyer, famous as a manufacturer of snuff in Edinburgh. Besides supporting a considerable number of aged persons of both sexes, this institution educates 100 boys gratis in a school adapted for that purpose.

The Edinburgh Royal Infirmary was first projected in 1721, but the proposals which were made did not receive encouragement from the public, and the design was dropped till it was again taken up by the College of Physicians in 1725. Considerable difficulty and delay, £2000 was expended, and a small house was opened for the reception of the sick poor in 1729. At length, the sum having increased to £3000, a royal charter was obtained to erect the subscribers into a body corporate, and in 1738 the foundation of the present structure was laid, and the building speedily completed. From that time forward donations were constantly received in aid of its funds; some of which are attended by munificence. This establishment is attended by two physicians, chosen by the managers, who visit their patients daily, in the presence of the students. The members of the College of Surgeons also used to attend in the wards according to seniority, but that plan has been altered, and the patients are com-

mitted to the care of particular surgeons, chosen annually by the managers. The building consists of a body and two wings, each three stories high, with an attic story, and very elegant front. The body is 210 feet long, and thirty-six broad in the middle. The wings are seventy feet long and twenty-four broad. In the different wards, 228 patients may be accommodated, in distinct beds. There are cold and hot baths for the patients, and also for the citizens; but, to these last the patients are never admitted. The theatre will hold upwards of 200 spectators. There is also a military ward, in consequence of which a small guard is always kept at the infirmary. From 3000 to 4000 patients are now admitted annually; and the yearly revenue of the establishment is £5000.

The first public Dispensary of Edinburgh was founded by Dr. Duncan in 1776, for the poor whose diseases are of such a nature as to render their admission into the infirmary either unnecessary or improper. Here the patients receive advice gratis four days in the week: a register is kept of the diseases of each, and of the effects produced by the medicines employed. All patients, not improper for dispensary treatment, are admitted on the recommendation of the elder or church-warden of the parish where they reside. A similar establishment was founded in 1815, called the New Town Dispensary, for the accommodation of the poor in the northern parts of the city. It has also a midwifery department, under the superintendence of an able physician. Both Institutions afford gratuitous vaccine inoculation. The expense of the medicines and the support of the general establishment at each are defrayed by voluntary subscription. A donation of one guinea, annually, entitles the contributor to recommend patients, and to be a governor for two years; and five guineas confers the same privilege for life. Dispensaries for diseases of the eyes and ears were also established in 1822, and institutions of the same kind for other maladies exist in different quarters of the city.

The charitable institutions thus particularised are, in point of antiquity and importance, the most remarkable in the Scottish metropolis; but there are others, also, of a very valuable nature, the mere enumeration of which will demonstrate that this city is as distinguished for humanity and benevolence, as it has long been for science and literature, and all the arts that tend to improve and adorn life. The following flourish vigorously at the present time:—1. The Lying in Hospital. 2. The Asylum for the Blind. 3. The Lunatic Asylum. 4. The Magdalen Asylum. 5. The Institution for educating Deaf and Dumb Children. 6. The Repositories. 7. The Ministers' Widows Fund. 8. The Society for the Sons of the Clergy. 9. The Society for Relief of the Destitute Sick. 10. Horn's Charity. 11. Walson's Bequest. 12. Thomson's Bequest. 13. Dr. Robert Johnson's Bequest and Strachan's Legacy of Craigcook. 14. The Society for the Suppression of Begging. 15. Savings Banks. 16. The Institution for the Relief of Incurables. 17. The Association for the Relief of Imprisoned Debtors. 18. The House of Industry. 19. The Society for Clothing



course of people ever remembered in Edinburgh. In 1756 the High Street was cleared by the removal of the cross; which many regretted, as it was a very ancient and elegant building. In 1763 the first stone of the north bridge was laid; and in 1767 an act of parliament was obtained, for extending the royalty of the city over the fields to the northward, where the New Town is now situated. In 1774 the foundation of the Register Office was laid; and so rapidly did improvements proceed for several years, that we find in 1778 St. Andrew's Square, and the streets immediately connected with it, on the original plan of the New Town, were nearly completed. In 1784 the project for rendering the access to the town equally easy on both sides was begun to be put in execution, by laying the foundation of the South Bridge. At the same time a great improvement was made, by reducing the height of the street several feet, all the way from the place where the cross stood to the Netherbow. The street was farther cleared by the removal of the town guard-house, which had long been complained of as an incumbrance. The great earthen mound across the north loch, connecting the new and old town to the west of the North Bridge, was commenced about the same period. In 1789 the new buildings of the University were begun, but, being on a scale far beyond the means possessed for completing them, they stood for many years unfinished; and it was not till 1815, when the exertions of Mr. John Marjoribanks, then lord provost and M. P., procured £10,000 in aid of the undertaking from parliament, and a recommendation to grant the same sum annually for seven years, that plans for its completion were adopted. The next improvement undertaken was the alteration in the old Parliament House, which was begun by the erection of a court-room and apartments for the Barons of Exchequer, and an open arcade in the front of the old building. The original plan included, also, an additional room for the second division of the court, a library room for the advocates and writers to the signet, and a court-

Tolbooth and Creech's land, of the range, were taken down. Weigh-house followed then a canal was begun at the west end, to be carried westward till it joined the Clyde canal about a mile beyond the town. This undertaking was finished and passage boats in 1800. The expense was £240,500, which was repaid by shares of £50 each. The depth was five feet, and its width at the bottom contracting to twenty-two feet. Few of the recent improvements have been so beneficial to the city and as this. It has already had the effect of diminishing the price of coals to the third. Besides these improvements many other improvements have been made at the same time, which a volume would describe with accuracy. I mention the following, as having been since 1813. Two elegant edifices, George's Church in Charlotte Square, a new merchants' meeting-house, a new madhouse, a new observatory, a new monument in St. Andrew's Church, a house for the education of the deaf and dumb, and the Edinburgh Waterworks, and numerous streets and ranges of buildings, to the north of Queen's Street, and in that direction to the westward and eastward towards the town.

The Northern District, or of two divisions: the one in the north, laid off for building in 1763, consists of all the additional ground between the buildings erected or erected north of the former. The buildings of the first division are George's Street, and Queen's Street, running in straight lines, and forming a square which is intersected at right angles by a street running north and south. This square comprehends various elegant and fine public buildings.

and plan, this division has not, perhaps, its equal in the world. When the whole of the town is now comprehended in what is called the Old Town, are added to the southern and mid-districts, the circumference of Edinburgh, is eight miles.

The tribunals of Edinburgh have, in general, good accommodations. The judges of the sessions, the exchequer courts hold their sittings within the buildings called the parliament-house, in the great hall of which the Scottish parliament used to meet previous to the Reformation.

This hall is the only part of the ancient parliament-house which remains in its original state, the apartments having undergone many alterations within these few years. It is 122 feet long by nine broad, and has a fine arched roof, painted and gilded. A fine statue of the Viscount Melville, by Chantry, stands on a pedestal near the north end of it. The hall of session, before its division into chambers, was in a room adjoining to the great hall, appropriated for the meeting of the council. This apartment, after the division of the hall, was enlarged and fitted up for the use of the first division, and a marble statue of the late President Blair, by Chantry, was, in 1793, placed behind the chair of the presiding judge.

A new room was likewise erected for the second division, entering from the west side of the great hall; and a statue of president Forbes, formerly stood in a niche in the outer hall, removed to this room and placed behind the chair of the lord justice Clerk. This statue was executed by the celebrated sculptor Roubin, at the expense of the Faculty of Advocates.

An addition was likewise built to the parliament House in 1819, containing two courts for two of the lords ordinary, and a new room for the faculty library. This library, which is one of the most valuable in Britain, now occupies apartments worthy of the rich and rare treasures which it contains. The library of the writers to the signet is kept under the roof. In the centre of the square fronting the parliament House, there is an elegant equestrian statue of Charles II., which has been much admired. It was cast in Holland, and cost £215. The original parliament House buildings, as they stood prior to the recent additions and improvements, were begun in 1632, finished in 1640, and cost, what was then deemed, the enormous sum of £11,600 sterling. At the western extremity of the new library rooms of the advocates, a statue to the signet, stands a magnificent hall, the plan of which was taken from the finest models of antiquity, the temple of Minerva, in the Acropolis of Athens. The principal entrance is taken from the Choragic Monument of Thrasylus. The interior of this building is laid out in a large hall, a court room, a committee room, and, in the principal floor, the use of the freeholders of the county. The lower floors are occupied as offices for the sheriff, clerks, &c. The expense of its erection was £15,000. It was finished in 1819. The accommodations afforded for the inferior law establishment of Edinburgh, if not nearly so

splendid, are generally as commodious as those we have thus described.

The North Bridge, which forms the main passage of communication between the Old and New Towns, was founded in 1763, but the contract for building it was not signed till August 21st, 1765. The architect was Mr. William Mylne, who agreed with the town council of Edinburgh to finish the work for £10,140, and to uphold it for ten years. It was also to be finished before Martinmas 1769; but on the 8th of August that year, when the work was nearly completed, the vaults and side walls on the south fell down, and nine people were buried in the ruins. The bridge was repaired, by pulling down some parts of the side walls; afterwards rebuilding them, and strengthening them with chain bars. The whole was supported at the south end by very strong buttresses and counterforts on each side; but on the north it has only a single support. The length of the bridge, from the High Street in the Old Town to Prince's Street in the New, is 1125 feet; the total length of the piers and arches is 310 feet. The width of the three great arches is seventy-two feet each; of the piers thirteen feet and a half; and of the small arches, each twenty feet. The height of the great arches from the top of the parapet to the base, is sixty-eight feet; the breadth of the bridge within the wall over the arches is forty feet, and the breadth at each end fifty feet. The communication betwixt the two towns by this bridge, though very complete and convenient for such as lived in certain parts of either, was yet found insufficient for those who inhabited the western districts. Another bridge being therefore necessary, it was proposed to raise an earthen mound, by filling up the valley with the rubbish dug out in making the foundations of houses in the New Town; and so great was the quantity, that this was accomplished so as to be fit for the passage of carriages in less than five years. Whilst the mound was forming it sunk at different periods above eighty feet on the west side, and was again filled up: 1800 cart-loads of earth were, upon an average, laid upon this mound every day. It has been said, with justice, to be a work unrivalled by any but Alexander the Great's at Tyre.

The South Bridge is directly opposite to the North, so as to make but one street, crossing the High Street almost at right angles. It consists of twenty-two arches of different sizes; but only one of them is visible, viz. the large one over the Cowgate; and even this is small, in comparison with those of the North Bridge, being no more than thirty feet wide and thirty-one feet high. This bridge was erected with a design to give an easy access to the great number of streets and squares on the south side, as well as to the country on that quarter from which the city is supplied with coals. So great was the rage for purchasing ground on each side of it for building, that the areas sold by auction at £50 per foot in front. They sold higher than ever was known in any city.

Regent Bridge terminates Prince's Street, the southern boundary of the New Town, at the east. This bridge, in connexion with the adjoining buildings, is one of the most splendid of the



to open up the communication to the city by this bridge cost £52,000, and the building areas sold for the immense sum of £35,000. The street along the bridge is called Waterloo Place, as it was founded in the year on which that memorable battle was fought, and was intended to commemorate the event.

The observatory is seated on the top of the Calton hill, and is furnished with all the instruments necessary for astronomical observations. The scheme for the erection of it was first adopted in 1736; and the earl of Morton and Mr. M'Laurin, professor of mathematics, each contributed to its erection. The foundation stone was laid by provost Stodart, on the 25th of August 1776. But Mr. Adam the architect, conceiving the idea of giving the whole the appearance of a fortification, accordingly a line was marked out for enclosing the limits of the observatory, and of having Gothic towers at the angles. Thus the money designed for the work was totally exhausted, and the observatory long remained unfinished. In 1792, however, the building was completed by the magistrates. But it was not till 1812, when the astronomical institution was founded, that it was furnished with a set of philosophical instruments. In 1818 a new observatory was built a little to the east of the old one. It is now under the most superior scientific management, and while we write we observe a public announcement of his majesty's having bestowed £2000 upon it to purchase instruments.

The palace of Holyrood House, is the only royal habitation in Scotland, that is not in ruins. It is a handsome square of 230 feet in the inside, surrounded with piazzas. The front, facing the west, consists of two double towers joined by a beautiful low building, adorned with a double balustrade above. The gateway in the middle is decorated with double stone columns, supporting a cupola in the middle, representing an imperial crown, with a clock underneath. On the right hand is the great staircase, which leads to the council chamber and the royal

this palace is two stories but at each end the front is ornamented with circular towers the building is much higher than was burnt by Cromwell's soldiers; repaired and altered into its present appearance during the Restoration. The fabric was executed by Robert Mylne, and the plan of the palace afford an ample room for the debtors; and adjoining to it is Anne's Yards; beyond which is a extensive park, called the King's Park, the Duke's Walk, and the high Salisbury Crags, and St. Leonard's. Within the privilege of the abbey church, built by David I. have been long in ruins. See the History of Scotland. About the year 1795 some of the palace were fitted up for the use of the royal family of the Stuarts, who were exiled from the country.

Edinburgh is divided into four wards, in which there are nine in the town: besides the Canon's Ward, or West Kirk parish and North Leith; in all the public enumerations. It has a weekly general market on Tuesday, and an annual Fair, in November, which markets of Edinburgh are with all sorts of provisions, as well as fowl and fish, and no city can be better supplied with provisions with which Edinburgh was observed in 1781, when all of them in want of necessaries. Forth, to the amount of £100,000 having on board at least 2000 increased consumption of provisions, and the great number of strangers made not the least

of profit and emolument at the disposal of town council, may be estimated at not less than £30,000.

Theatre stands nearly opposite to the City Office, in Shakspeare Square. The building is exceedingly plain externally, its only ornaments being a statue of Shakspeare, and allegorical figures of tragedy and comedy on the front. But it is elegantly fitted up within. The building was first opened as a place for theatrical performances in 1769; after much opposition from the clergy, who, for many years, displayed the greatest hostility to every amusement of the kind. It was originally licensed by patent from the crown; and the prices of admission were then, three shillings for the pit, and two shillings for the first gallery, one shilling for the second or upper gallery. These rates the house could hold with ease £140. But the box seats were afterwards raised to four shillings, and subsequently in 1815 to five shillings. The seats in the pit and galleries remain at the old rate. In 1809 the patent was acquired by Mr. Henry Siddons, who was at that time manager, and who continued to conduct the theatre till he died in 1815. It has since been under the management of Mr. Murray, his brother-in-law, who, in addition to a regular company of theatrical performers, presents the public at intervals with all the actors and actresses of eminence who appear on the boards of Drury Lane and Covent Garden.

Classical Entertainments, on a scale of great extent and in the highest perfection, have been frequent in Edinburgh, and the records of them go back as far as 1695. In 1672 a music hall was erected at the foot of Niddry Street, on the model of the great Opera Theatre in Paris. This institution flourished for about twenty years, and was a favorite resort of the noble society of Edinburgh during the latter part of that time. Admission was obtained by special tickets, not transferable, and was always gratis, except when benefits were given for the emolument of professional performers. The society, however, at length broke up, and the entertainments began to be totally neglected. The hall was then disposed of for other purposes, and, after being some time used as a Baptist meeting-house, it was purchased in 1812 by the Grand Lodge, and has been known by the name of Freemasons' Hall.

After the weekly concerts of this society were discontinued, subscription concerts were held in the Assembly Rooms, George's Rooms, and at Corri's Rooms, formerly the Circus, and the Caledonian Theatre. Musical festivals on a plan similar to that of the Oratorios in London, have also thrice taken place in Edinburgh for the benefit of the public charities. The Assembly Rooms were erected in George's Square, not unsuitable to the general elegance of the other buildings in the New Town, in 1787. The principal hall is ninety-two feet long, forty-two feet wide, and forty feet in height. There is also a Tea Room, two Card Rooms, and a Billiard Saloon. Two Assemblies are held weekly during the winter, the one a dancing, the other a card assembly. The card parties are rather se-

lect than numerous; but the dancing assemblies are well frequented. The Caledonian, a minor theatre, is the only other place of public amusement which our limits will permit us to particularise. This building was originally erected for equestrian exhibitions, and called the Royal Circus. It was subsequently converted into a place of worship, but after various changes, was fitted up as a minor theatre, in 1822.

No city in the world affords greater security to the inhabitants in their persons and properties than Edinburgh. Robberies are rare, and street murder hardly known; so that a person may walk out at any hour of the night in perfect security. This, in former times, was, in a great measure, owing to the vigilance of a town-guard. In 1700 it consisted of 126 men. From that time it continued embodied till the year 1805, when a new system of police was adopted. It was then reduced to an officer and thirty men, as a guard to the lord provost; and this last remnant was finally disbanded in 1817, when the old Tolbooth was taken down, the lower part of which had been occupied as their guard-room. The arms of this ancient body of men were the same as those used by the king's forces in general, but, in their capacity of night watchmen, they used a weapon called a lochaber axe, the use of which had long been discontinued in every other place. In addition to the town-guard, there was also a body of Militia, called the Trained Bands, consisting of 1600 men; but they have also been long dissolved. The officers, however, are still elected annually, and the provost, *ex officio*, bears the title of colonel as their commander.

In 1805, the town-guard being found inadequate to preserve the peace of the city and protect the inhabitants in its extended state, an act of parliament was applied for, and under its sanction a new system of police was established. By this statute the city was divided into wards, and commissioners were appointed for each ward, for the purpose of assessing the inhabitants in the expense of the establishment, and for other duties. A court was also established, with a judge of police and clerk, for the trial of offences; and the judge was empowered to punish by fine and compensation for damages, by imprisonment in jail, or by commitment to Bridewell. The examination of the offender and witnesses was taken *instanter* and *viva voce*, and the sentence pronounced was immediately executed. After an experiment of nearly seven years, this system was found not to answer in consequence of the extravagant powers which had been given to the court. A new bill was accordingly brought into parliament, and an improved system was established in 1812, the office of judge of police being abolished. The city was divided into twenty-six wards, with three resident commissioners for each; the sheriff of the county and the magistrates of the city were appointed judges; a superintendent was also appointed, and various enactments provided for the cleansing, watching, and paving of the streets, and for other matters of general police. This statute was further amended in 1822. In addition to the superintendent there are now three lieutenants and a clerk. The expense of the establishment for the year 1824 was £20,292 6s. 5d.



levied at the rate of one shilling in the pound on a rental of £373,736.

The town council of Edinburgh has the direction of all public affairs. The ordinary council consists of twenty-five persons; the extraordinary, of eight, making in all thirty-three. The whole is composed of merchants and tradesmen, whose respective powers and interests are so interwoven, that a sort of balance is preserved between the two bodies. The members of the town-council are partly elected by members of the fourteen incorporations, partly by their predecessors in office. These incorporations are, the companies of the surgeons (also erected into a royal college), goldsmiths, skinnners, furriers, hammermen, wrights, masons, tailors, bakers, fleshers, cordiners (or shoemakers), weavers, waukers, bonnet-makers, dyers, and merchants'. The lord-provost of Edinburgh, who is styled right honorable, is high sheriff, coroner, and admiral, within the city and its liberties, and the town, harbour, and road of Leith. He has also a jurisdiction in matters of death, now in desuetude. He is preses of the convention of royal boroughs, colonel of the trained bands, commander of the city guard and of the Edinburgh jail; has the precedency of all the great officers of state and of the nobility, walking on the right hand of the king, or of his majesty's commissioner, and has a sword and mace carried before him. Under him are four magistrates called bailies, whose office is much the same with that of the aldermen in London, excepting that they continue in office only one year. There is also a dean of guild, who has the charge of the public buildings, and without whose warrant no house or building can be erected within the city. He has a council to consult with a nominal treasurer, who formerly had the keeping of the town's money, which is now given to the chamberlain. These seven magistrates are elected annually; and with the seven of the former year, three merchants' and two trades' counsellors, and fourteen deacons, making in all thirty-three, form the council of the city, and have the sole management and disposal of the city revenues. Formerly the provost was also an officer in the Scottish parliament. The magistrates are sheriffs depute and justices of the peace; and the town council are patrons of all the churches of Edinburgh, patrons of the University, and electors of the city's representative in parliament. They have besides a very ample jurisdiction both civil and criminal, are superiors of the Canongate, Portsburgh, and Leith, and appoint over these certain of their own number, who are called baron bailies; but the person who presides over Leith has the title of admiral, because he has there a jurisdiction over maritime affairs. The baron bailies appoint one or two of the inhabitants of their respective districts to be their substitutes. These are called resident bailies, and hold courts in absence of the baron bailies, for petty offences, and discussing civil causes of small moment.

In a paper communicated by the Rev. Dr. Blair to Sir John Sinclair containing an enumeration of families and examinable persons in the parishes of the city, in 1722, the total number of

has been immortalised by the author of *Everley* novels, under the title of the Heart of Lothian. It was built in 1561, but, having become inadequate for modern purposes, it was pulled down in 1817. The great entrance door with its massive lock and ponderous key, and a considerable part of the circular tower in which it was placed, were, upon the demolition of the building, carefully removed to Abbotsford, the residence of Sir Walter Scott, where it has re-assumed its venerable appearance, and forms an entrance to a beautiful but singular structure. The old tower is said originally to have been occupied as a parliament house as well as a prison. The Scottish parliament at which majesty interposed, was held in this Tolbooth, immediately after the coronation of Charles I. in 1633. The Bridewell establishment of Edinburgh, on Calton Hill, said to be one of the best of the kind in Europe, was founded in 1791.

The *Exchange* is a large and elegant building, with piazzas on the north side, and a court of about 100 feet square in the middle but the merchants never made use of it to meet in, still obstinately preferring the open street as formerly. The back of the building is used for the city chambers and dependent offices for the different departments, which the access is by a hanging stair sixty feet in height. The Scottish Mint is kept up to the articles of the union, with the offices belonging to it, though no money is struck here. It stands in the lane called the Close, but is in a ruinous state, though inhabited by several of the different officers, and has all free houses. The bell-man's office, however, is not a sinecure, for he regularly rings the bell. This place, as well as Holyrood Palace, is an asylum for debtors, but only for twenty-four hours. There are three banking companies in Edinburgh, established by statute, and by royal charters. These are the Bank of Scotland, commonly called the Old Bank; the Bank of Scotland, and the British Linen Company. 1. The Bank of Scotland, commonly called the Old Bank, was erected by act of parliament A.D. 1695. By the statute of 1707, the company was empowered to raise its stock of £1,200,000, afterwards increased to £1,500,000 sterling, for the purpose of carrying on a public bank. The smallest sum any person could hold was declared to be 1000 Scots; and the largest sum for which a man was allowed to subscribe was £20,000 of the same money. £8,000 are declared to be a qualification necessary to entitle any man to be elected governor; and £3000 for each director. The management of the affairs of the company was vested in a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors; and, among these managers, each proprietor was allowed to have a vote for every £1000 of stock in his hand. The office of this company prior to 1707 was kept down a narrow lane, at the south side of that part of the High Street called the Cowmarket; but they have since erected for accommodation an elegant building to the southward of the High Street, in full view of the Cowmarket Street. This bank has branches in every considerable town in Scotland. The

original shares of this company, amounting to £83 6s. 8d., sold in 1763 at £119; in 1791 at £180; and in 1827 at £187. 2. The Royal Bank was established in 1727. The stock of this company originally consisted of the equivalent money which was due to Scotland at the union. Proprietors of these sums to the extent of £111,000 were the original subscribers. But, this stock being found insufficient, a second charter was obtained in 1738, by which they were empowered to raise their stock to £150,000 sterling; and, subsequently, to £1,000,000. The business is managed by a governor, deputy-governor, directors, and extraordinary directors. The amount of the company's stock is at present £1,500,000 sterling; and each £100 of stock in the market sells for £170. The Royal Bank is situated in St. Andrew's Square, New Town. 3. The British Linen Company, with a capital of £100,000, was incorporated by royal charter in 1746, with a view to encourage the linen manufacture in Scotland. By the constitution of this company, its affairs are under the management of a governor, deputy-governor, and five directors. It carries on the business of banking, and promissory notes, like the two former companies; and the office is situated in St. Andrew's Square. The Commercial Bank was established in 1810, and the National Bank in 1825. These two last are upon the joint stock principle, and have a very numerous proprietary, and extensive capitals. The business of each is conducted like that of the other three old companies, by a board of directors. All these banks issue promissory notes for various sums not under £1 sterling, payable on demand in cash, or Bank of England notes. Two private Banking-houses also issue notes in the same way, viz. those of Sir William Forbes and Co., and Ramsay's, Bonar's, and Co. But besides these there are several banking-houses of great reputation in Edinburgh, which do not issue small notes, but which carry on the other branches of the banking trade, by transmitting money, discounting bills, and accommodating individuals with cash accounts.

The Custom-house used to be at the back of the Royal Exchange; but some years ago the establishment removed to Bellevue House in the New Town, which forms the eastern termination of Great King Street. The board consists of one resident, and two assistant-commissioners, under whom are a secretary, and various other officers. Some recent arrangements incorporate them with the establishments at Leith. The Excise-office in St. Andrew's Square has been recently purchased by the Royal Bank, the Excise board occupying Bellevue House. There are three commissioners of excise, a secretary, and numerous officers.

The Post Office forms part of the splendid buildings in Waterloo Place, and stands to the east of the arch of the Regent Bridge. It has extensive accommodation for the business of this important public establishment. A century ago the revenue of the Post-office of Scotland was inadequate to defray the expense of keeping it up. In 1763, however, it had increased to £11,942 per annum. In 1783 it had reached upwards of £40,000; and now



(1827) it is £150,000. There are subordinate offices in different parts of the city.

The Edinburgh Register Office was suggested by the earl of Morton, lord register of Scotland. The earl, therefore, obtained from his majesty a grant of £12,000 out of the forfeited estates, for building a register-office, or house for keeping the records, and disposing them in proper order. The foundation was laid on the 27th of June, 1774. The building, which is one of the most beautiful of Mr. Adams's designs, was executed in a substantial manner, in about sixteen years, at the expense of nearly £40,000, and is one of the principal ornaments of the city. The lord register has the direction of the whole, and the principal clerks of session are his deputies. These have a great number of clerks under them, for carrying on the business of the court of session. The lord register is a minister of state in this country. He formerly collected the votes of the parliament of Scotland, and still collects those of the peers at the election of sixteen, to represent them in parliament.

The earliest institution of a grammar-school in Edinburgh seems to have been about 1516, and a building which had been erected for the accommodation of the scholars in 1578, continued, notwithstanding the great increase of their number, to be used for the purpose till 1777; when the foundation of the present High School was laid on the 24th of June, by Sir William Forbes. This building is plain, but commodious. The great hall, where the boys meet for prayers, is sixty-eight feet by thirty, with commodious libraries at each end. There are a rector and four masters, who teach about 700 scholars annually. The salaries are trifling, and the fees are 10s. 6d. per quarter, but five quarters are paid. There is also a janitor, who receives one shilling from each of the boys quarterly. To the scholars of prominent merit premiums are awarded annually, chiefly in books; and to the dux of the highest class a gold medal, with a suitable inscription. Edinburgh Academy is the name given to another school erected in 1824, to the north of the Royal Circus. This establishment is under the superintendence of a board of directors; and besides a rector and four masters for the Latin classes, as in the High School, has an English master, and teachers for writing and arithmetic. There are also several other public English schools, the masters of which have small salaries in addition to the fees; and numerous private establishments, not only for teaching English, but the learned and foreign languages, on moderate terms; so that Edinburgh affords facilities for the acquisition of learning and the various ornamental accomplishments, which are hardly

and numbers of respectable Edinburgh, as a settled view to the education. There are various manufacturing neighbourhoods of Edinburgh carried on very extensively extensive type foundry; a particularly of the elegant and now so generally used, has carried on to a considerable

In order to contrast the metropolitan society with here necessary to go back well known account of took place in Edinburgh. It is thirty-five years since and it is not going too far to and improvements which in this last period infinitely preceded them, and would require than his adequately to do limits do not permit of much of this kind, otherwise we comment on individual it has done. We may remark 1793, Edinburgh has extended it was at that time, and has population. The public understand and adorn it, would require them with effect. In science arts, its progress has been remarkable. Wealth and luxury in a like ratio, and the houses squares and streets, then on rank, fashion, and opulence into shops or places of business part of the community. Pages, servants, and modes is perhaps as striking as within the period of Mr. C but the difference of manner where so conspicuous, as refinement displayed in the villas, within a short distance, during the summer months classes of citizens. In most to judge from the general public opinion, and from the of all the decencies of life, rank, there has for some progressive improvement; and, the morals of 1793, those of confess, compel us, in spite all our early predilections, preference and the palm of happens the prevailing fault of at present is the rage which



inent feature in its history and character to our distinct notice. In 1581 a grant was made from James VI. for founding a college in the city of Edinburgh; and the citizens, by various donations, purchased part of the house, chambers, and church of the collegiate church of the Kirk-a-field, other called Templum et Præfectura Sanctæ Mariæ de Regis, as a suitable site for it. In 1583 the king, magistrates, and council, the patrons of the new institution, prepared the place for the education of teachers and students; and in October 1583, Robert Rollock, whom they had introduced from a professorship in the University of Padua, began to teach in it. Other professors were soon after elected; and Rollock made principal of the College, and professor of divinity. The offices of principal and professor of divinity remained united till 1620. In 1620 James VI. having visited Scotland, commanded the principal and regents to attend him at Holyrood Castle, where they held a solemn theological disputation, and the king desired that their college should for the future be called College of King James, which name it still bears in all its diplomas and public deeds. For some time the college consisted only of the principal and four regents or professors of philosophy, who each instructed one class of students in four years, in Latin, Greek, logic, mathematics, and physics. It was not till about the year 1710 that the regents began to be divided each to a particular profession; since which time they have been commonly styled professors of Greek, Logic, Moral Philosophy, Natural Philosophy.—The first medical professor instituted at Edinburgh, were Sir Robert Douglas and Dr. Archibald Pitcairne, in 1685. Forty years afterwards, however, a summer school, on the official plants, and the dissection of the human body, once in two or three years, completed the whole course of medical education in Edinburgh. In 1720 an attempt was made to divide the different branches of physic regularly, which succeeded so well, that, ever since, the reputation of the University as a school for medicine has been undisputed. The College has a fine library, founded in 1580, by Mr. Robert Little, advocate. It is enriched by a list of every book entered in Stationers' Hall, according to statute, and it now contains 70,000 volumes. The students of divinity, who pay no fee to this library, have one belonging to their own particular department. The museum contains a capital collection of natural curiosities, the number of which is daily increasing; and the admirable management of professor Wilson, it promises to become the most interesting and important in Britain. The anatomical and obstetrical preparations are peculiarly valuable. This university having been instituted after the Reformation, among a frugal people that had no love for ecclesiastical dignities, differs greatly from the wealthy foundations which receive the name of Universities and Colleges in England, or in the Catholic countries of the continent of Europe. It still consists of a

single college, which enjoys the privilege of conferring degrees.

The branches of education at present taught in it are the following: 1. *Literature and Philosophy*, comprehending humanity, or Latin, Greek, mathematics, logic, moral philosophy, natural philosophy, rhetoric, belles lettres, universal history, and natural history. 2. *Theology*, comprehending divinity, church history, and oriental languages. 3. *Law*, comprehending civil law, institutes and pandects, Scots' law, public law, conveyancing. 4. *Medicine*, comprehending dietetics, materia medica, and pharmacy; practice of physic, chemistry, and chemical pharmacy; theory of physic, anatomy, and surgery; theory and practice of midwifery; medical jurisprudence, clinical medicine, clinical surgery, and military surgery. During the Summer session lectures are given on the following branches, viz. botany, natural history, midwifery, clinical lectures on medicine, and clinical lectures on surgery. The principal professors and lecturers are at present thirty-one in all; and the number of students is about 2400. The professorships of church history, natural history, astronomy, law of nature and nations, and rhetoric, are in the gift of the crown. The professor of agriculture was nominated by Sir William Pulteney, the founder of the institution. The remaining chairs are in the gift of the town council. Besides the classes here enumerated, the medical professors alternately give clinical lectures upon the cases of the patients in the Royal Infirmary. The integrity and discernment uniformly displayed in the appointment to professorships in this university, have contributed greatly to extend its reputation both at home and abroad. From confidence in the talents and industry of the professors, it has become a seat of education, not only to the youth of the united kingdom, but, to the honor of our country, students have been attracted to it from every nation in Europe, and from almost every civilised country on the globe. About thirty years ago, the old buildings of the college being thought quite unsuitable to the dignity of such a flourishing seat of learning, the magistrates and council set on foot a subscription for erecting a new structure, according to a design of Robert Adam, Esq., architect. Most of the old fabric was in consequence pulled down, and the new building is now in considerable forwardness. It is upon a superb scale, and the whole, when finished, if not the most splendid structure of the sort in Europe, will be the completest and most commodious. The estimate for completing the whole was about £63,000. The six columns in the front are not to be equalled in Britain. The shaft of each is twenty-three feet high, and three feet diameter, of one entire stone. The botanical garden belonging to the university is situated to the northward of the village of Canon-mills, and consists of about twelve acres. But the funds for the support of this garden are very inadequate to the purpose, not exceeding £170 per annum.

EDINBURGHSIRE, or MID-LOTHIAN. See MID-LOTHIAN.



EDIT, *v. a.* } Old Fr. *editer*; Lat. *edo*,  
 EDI'TION, *n. s.* } *edere*, to set forth. To  
 ED'I'TOR, *n. s.* } publish; and hence to pre-  
 EDITO'RIAL, *adj.* } pare a work for publication.  
 It is now particularly applied, in our language,  
 to the duty of superintendence and correction,  
 in distinction from the original composition of a  
 book.

These are of the second edition. *Shakespeare.*

The business of our redemption is to rub over the  
 defaced copy of the creation, to reprint God's image  
 upon the soul, and to set forth nature in a second and  
 a fairer edition. *South.*

EDMONDSON (Joseph), a genealogist and  
 herald painter, was appointed, in 1764, Mowbray  
 herald extraordinary. He was also a member of  
 the Society of Antiquaries. He died in 1786.  
 His works are, *Historical Account of the Gre-  
 ville family*, 8vo.; *A Companion to the Peerage*,  
 8vo.; *A Body of Heraldry*, 2 vols. folio; *Baro-  
 nagium Genealogicum, or the Pedigrees of Eng-  
 lish Peers*, 6 vols. folio.

EDMUND I., king of England, the son of  
 Edward the Elder, succeeded his brother Athel-  
 stan, A.D. 941, and exhibited proofs of great  
 courage and abilities during a short reign of about  
 eight years. He was murdered by Leolf, a  
 robber, A.D. 948. See ENGLAND.

EDMUND II., surnamed Ironside, from his  
 strength and valor, succeeded his father Ethel-  
 red II., A.D. 1016, in that part of England  
 which was not then possessed by the Danes.  
 He was endued with great abilities, but was  
 murdered by the traitor, Edric, duke of Mercia,  
 before he had reigned a year. See ENGLAND.

EDOM, Heb. אֶדֹם, i. e. red; or Esau, the  
 son of Isaac and brother of Jacob. The name  
 Edom was given him, either because he sold his  
 birth-right to Jacob for a mess of red pottage, or  
 by reason of the color of his hair and complexion.  
*Idumæa* is derived from Edom, and is often  
 called in Scripture the land of Edom. See the  
 next article.

EDOM, or *Idumæa*, in ancient geography, a  
 district of Arabia *Petræa*. A great part of the  
 south of *Judæa* was also called *Idumæa*, because  
 occupied by the *Idumæans*, upon the Jewish

captivity. But *Edom Proper* app-  
 have been very extensive, from the *n*  
*Israelites*, in which they compassed  
 south eastward, till they came to the  
 the Moabites. Within this compass  
 Hor, where Aaron died; marching  
 the *Israelites* fought with king *Ara-  
 naanite*, who came down the wilderness  
 them. And this is the extent of the  
*Propria*, lying south of the *Dead S*  
 Solomon's time extending to the *R*  
 1 Kings ix. 26.

EDRED, king of England, son  
 the Elder, succeeded to the throne on  
 of his brother, Edmund I. (947). His  
 rebellion of the Northumbrian Danes  
 expelled Malcolm, king of Scotland, to  
 homage for his English possessions.  
 active and warlike, he was extremel-  
 tious, and subservient to the celebrated  
 abbot of Glastonbury. Edred died at  
 of nine years, and left the crown to his  
 Edwy.

EDRIDGE (Henry), A.R.A., F.S.  
 scape and miniature painter of eminence  
 Paddington, in 1768. His earlier pic-  
 principally drawn on paper, with blue  
 Indian ink. It was in later years that  
 made those elaborate and high-finish  
 uniting the depth and richness of  
 with the freedom and freshness of  
 of which there are so many specimens  
 land. He died in 1821.

EDRISSI (Mohamed ben Moham-  
 al) an Arabian prince and geograph-  
 twelfth century, who being expelled  
 dominions in the south of Egypt, to  
 Sicily, at the court of Roger II. He  
 posed *Geographical Recreations*; and  
 ed a silver globe, said to have weighed  
 Greek pounds, on which were inscribed  
 visions of the earth, so far as they  
 known. His book, which has been trans-  
 graphia *Nubiensis*, from its contain-  
 information relative to the eastern part  
 was translated into Latin by Gabriel  
 and John Hesronita, and published  
 4to., 1619.

## E D U C A T I O N .

EDUCATE, *v. a.* } Lat. *educare*, from *duco*,  
 EDUCA'TION, *n. s.* } to lead. To bring up  
 from youth; instruct youth. See Hooker's fine  
 definition of the substantive.

*Education* and instruction are the means, the one  
 by use, the other by precept, to make our natural fa-  
 culty of reason both the better and the sooner to judge  
 rightly between truth and error, good and evil.

*Hooker.*

The best time for marriage will be towards thirty,  
 or as the younger times are unfit, either to choose or  
 to govern a wife and family, so, if thou stay long, thou  
 shalt hardly see the education of thy children, who,  
 being left to strangers, are in effect lost; and better  
 were it to be unborn than ill-bred.

*Raleigh to his Son.*

Diversity of education, and discrepancy  
 principles wherewith men are at first in-  
 wherein all our after reasonings are founded  
*Lord Digby to a Lady.*

If the children of religious parents,  
 Christian nurture, shall shame their educa-  
 takes it more heinously, and revengeth more  
*Bp. Hall. Good.*

Their young succession all their care  
 They breed, they brood, instruct and rule  
 And make provision for the future state  
*Dryden.*

Some independent ideas, of no alliance  
 other, are, by education, custom, and the  
 of their party, so coupled in their minds, that  
 ways appear there together.



What education did at first conceive,  
Our ripened age confirms us to believe.

*Pomfret.*

Education is worse, in proportion to the grandeur of parents: if the whole world were under one monarch, the heir of that monarch would be the worst educated mortal since the creation.

*Swift. On Modern Education.*

Education at our public schools and universities is like sitting in a waggon for expedition, where there is the road that will take you by a short cut to Paris, and the polisher has got the key of it.

*Cumberland.*

Graciously and sensible, and having received an education somewhat above her rank, her conversation was agreeable. Ralph read plays to her every evening.

*Franklin.*

Education, and then as to her manner; upon my word I think it is particularly graceful, considering she never received the least education: for you know her mother was a milliner, and her father a sugar baker at Bristol.

*Sheridan.*

E D U C A T I O N . We have explained this term in a former

article. A more ample and satisfactory definition has been given thus: 'Education is that process of means, by which the human understanding is gradually enlightened, and the dispositions of the human heart are formed and directed, between early infancy and the period when a young person is considered as qualified to take a part in active life.'

The word education, among the ancients, seems to have had a signification different from that which is affixed to it by the moderns. Educatrix, says Varro, educatrix, institutrix, magister, docet magister. According to this signification, education, institution, and instruction are as different as the midwife, the nurse, the preceptor, and the master. But other writers, ancient and modern, have considered education in the comprehensive sense expressed in the above definition; and as no subject is of more importance than this, it being the practical cultivation of all mental acquirements, as well as all virtue, many distinguished authors have directed their minds to the consideration of it. Cicero, and others of the most eminent legislators of antiquity, considered a proper education necessary to form good citizens, that they incorporated their systems of education with the laws they gave to their countrymen. Among all the legislators and authors of antiquity, of whose works any relics have come down to us, none appears to have written with more propriety on this subject, than the celebrated Quintilian, who taught rhetoric in Rome under Domitian, Nerva, and Trajan.

Among the moderns, the sublime Milton, the judicious Locke, have left treatises on this important topic. The late lord Kames too has written the author of an excellent tract, entitled *Hints on Education*; and the fanciful Rousseau, whose genius and eccentricities are well known to the public, devoted his *Emilius* to the consideration of this subject. To these and several other respectable modern names might be added. But we do not consider a Dictionary of Education as the proper depository for extensive discussions of this kind. Our whole work, therefore, is a course of elementary, and therefore

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educational treatises; what is more must be either purely speculative; or it must involve details which are varied with the designs of every parent, and the talents, station in life, and destiny of every young person. It will suffice, therefore, here briefly to review the principal ancient and modern systems of education, adding a more particular account of one or two modern and material improvements.

The system of Lycurgus, however well adapted to a state just emerging from barbarism, was but a species of detached military training; designed to form the heroic at the expense of all the other virtues, and extinguishing all regard to the interest of other states as well as family and personal interests, in an exclusive spirit of supposed patriotism. For, in reality, his system was too confined to be truly patriotic. It had no tendency to elevate the human intellect, or to stimulate into activity many of the noblest and best affections of our nature. Had his institutions been preserved in their pristine vigor, the Spartans might have continued precisely the same; but they would have been incapable of receiving the knowledge of those arts which adorn and improve mankind. The system, indeed, of a state education has always been too cumbrous for management: it has the appearance at the best of endeavouring to mould all minds into one form, and, by having a strong tendency to produce habitual submission to the will of one, of being highly unfavorable to public liberty. No doubt can exist which is to be preferred, the total neglect of education, or this artificial and forced method of attempting it; but all that the state has legitimately to do is, to take care that none shall be without the means of instruction, and to leave private persons to follow the bent of their own inclinations in the employment of them. In those nations which were first civilised, the power of the parent was considered as absolute; and as implicit submission was, from the first, inculcated upon the young, the labor of education was greatly diminished, and the limited knowledge and sentiments of the parent were very easily communicated to youth. The round of duty was less extensive, and its parts less complicated than at present. Among the Israelites, where moral education appears to have made the greatest advances, the system of duty was completely laid down in the written law; so that all the knowledge which the age and country possessed was certainly to be gained, and the moral principles certainly to be regulated aright, where the parent employed wisely that authority which the law enforced, and which the customs of the times would otherwise have allowed.

The necessity of a tolerably correct direction of the early propensities, in order to promote domestic comfort, must in a great number of cases have led to such direction of them, without any view to the future advantage of the individual. But with respect to those who were to come forwards in the employments of the state, or in any other way to be exposed to the notice of their countrymen, the advantages of early instruction in knowledge, and of the early cultivation of those qualities which the wants of the age and

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country made of great estimation, were so obvious, that they appear to have led, in a variety of cases, to great attention to the work of education; and though we have not, in many instances, any account of the procedures of the ancients, yet, in the few circumstances which have been recorded, we perceive that, long before any thing like a systematic plan of education was adopted, individuals made education an object of primary concern.

One grand object of moral education, so far as it respects rectitude of dispositions and affections, is to cultivate the habit of self-control. Religious people, of all periods, who have possessed the light of revelation, have, in a particular manner, been sensible that this habit lies at the foundation of moral worth; and where the authority of the parent is generally preserved, the cultivation of this habit follows as a matter of course. It requires a wise choice of means to prevent filial submission from being the submission of a slave, rather than of a child: but where it is acquired, and rightly directed, the foundation is laid for submission and obedience to the will of God; and, where *this principle* takes a firm hold on the mind, almost every thing is done that could be wished, to further the progress of the individual towards moral worth. A maxim of the highest authority, now indeed, is felt in all its truth, 'The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom.' In reading almost the only systematic work of antiquity on the subject of education, that of Quintilian, we become convinced of the writer's great good sense, excellence of disposition, and extensive information; and from his work, though it had a particular object in view, much may be learned by the modern instructor. Most excellent principles are scattered up and down in those general parts, which amply repay our perusal, though we are seldom invited to proceed by elegance of diction, or brilliance of thought: and the different facts he mentions, give us reason to suppose that, in his time, education was in a most degraded state at Rome.

Among the moderns few names are more justly venerated than that of John Milton. His life was devoted to study; and part of it was employed in instructing youth. Among his other works we find a Treatise on Education. He had himself been educated according to the plan long established in the English universities. The object of his directions is to exhibit a plan of 'a better education, in extent and comprehension far more large, and yet of time far shorter, and of attainment far more certain, than any that had yet been in practice.' The following is the substance of his treatise:—'The end of learning is to cultivate our understandings, and to rectify our dispositions, by enriching our minds with the treasures of wisdom. But, in the present modes of education, this design does not appear to be kept in view. The learner of Latin is burdened with rules, themes, verses, and orations; but no care is taken to make him master of the valuable knowledge which the classics contain. And, when he advances farther, he is driven into the thorny paths of logic and metaphysics. So, when his studies are completed, he

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of some of these, will have the happiest in elevating their genius. Let this stately be crowned with logic and rhetoric. This unite the advantages of an Athenian and an artan education: for the pupils should be at the exercises of wrestling and fencing, and whole military discipline.' Such are the sentiments of our admired poet on education—a to be expected from one who was an enthusiastic admirer of the sciences, arts, and institutions of Greece and Rome; and who, at the time, from his religious and political principles, was no friend to the universities.

The name of Locke is almost equally calculated to attract the attention of every reader. He was able of thinking for himself; but, unlikeseau, more desirous of rendering himself useful, than of being admired for singularity: he examined without prejudice the effects of the various modes of education of which he discovered. To render himself useful to mankind, he would descend from the heights of science to the humble task of translating *Æsop's Fables*.

Mr. Locke, in his *Treatise on Education*, proposes the two great objects, of preserving and improving the bodily constitution; and increasing the understanding with useful knowledge, while we cherish good dispositions in the

In his directions on the first of these, he recommends plain fare, simple and decent clothing, with abstinence from strong spirits, and as much as possible from medicine, and temperance and early rising. In doing, however, few parents will be willing to comply with Mr. Locke's advice. He not directs that children's feet be frequently in cold water; but even wishes that their feet were always kept in such a condition as to be water freely. This he thinks likely to be the constitution in such a manner, as to be them less liable, in the course of life, to diseases as arise from any unusual exposure to cold. Whatever may be thought of his advice, his method of cultivating the understanding, and forming the dispositions, deserves the attention of parents and preceptors. By a virtuous indignation he reprobates that which we generally corrupt the heart to soil the temper of children, in infancy; so render them incorrigible as they advance.

On the other hand he reckons it neither wise nor prudent to treat them with harshness or severity. Let them be formed to obedience from their earliest years: let them be accustomed to submit implicitly to the direction of those on whom they depend. But beware of exciting their tempers, and depressing their spirits with harshness; as well as of accustoming them to neglect their duty, except when allured to it by hopes of reward. Inspire them with a sense of shame, and with a generous thirst for praise. Caress and honor them when they do well; treat them with neglect when they act ill. This will produce much better effects than if you were at one time to chide and beat; at another, to reward them with a profusion of foolish indulgencies.

Mr. Locke does not approve of forming children at too early an age, to that politeness and

propriety of manners which should distinguish them when they become men. This great man was of opinion that a private education is more favorable than a public one to virtue, and scarcely less favorable to learning. He advises us more particularly to keep our pupil at a distance from evil example; to choose the most favorable seasons for instruction; to enforce obedience strictly, but rarely by blows. If his engagements in life prevent the parent from superintending and directing his son's education personally, let him commit him to the care of a virtuous and judicious tutor, who is rather a man of experience in the world than of profound learning; for it is more necessary that the pupil be formed for conducting himself with prudence in the world, and be fortified against those temptations to which he will be exposed in active life, than that his head be stuffed with Latin and logic. Mr. Locke, although his own mind was stored with Grecian and Roman literature, is against that application to ancient learning, which was then indispensably required in the education of youth. He considers languages and philosophy as rather having a tendency to render the youth unfit for acting a prudent and becoming part in life, than forming him for it; and he therefore insists that these should be but in a subordinate degree the objects of his attention.

Curiosity, he thinks, ought to be industriously roused in the breast of the child, and cherished by meeting the readiest gratification. He should be indulged in play, while he continues to play with keenness and activity; but not suffered to loiter about in indolence. To restrain him from fool-hardy courage, point out to him the dangers to which it exposes him; to raise him above timorous cowardice, and inspire him with manly fortitude, accustom him from the earliest period of life to an acquaintance with such things as he is most likely to be afraid of: subject him now and then to pain, and expose him to danger; but let such trials be judiciously conducted. When, from idleness or curiosity, children treat dogs, cats, birds, butterflies, &c., with cruelty, Mr. Locke advises that they be carefully watched, and every means used to excite them to generous sensibility. Allow them to keep tame birds, dogs, &c., only on condition of their using them with tenderness. He supposes that this unhappy disposition to cruelty is occasioned, or fostered, by people's laughing when they behold the impotent efforts of children to do mischief; and encouraging them in maltreating those creatures which are within their reach. He censures the practice too of entertaining them with stories of fighting and battles; and representing characters distinguished for atrocious acts of inhumanity as great and illustrious. Let such practices be refrained from, if you wish to inspire your child with generous and humane sentiments. Teach him gentleness and tenderness, not only to brutes but also to servants and companions. The enquiries of a child ought to be answered readily, that great man insists, though his questions be put in awkward language. Curiosity is natural, and, if not repressed, he will often be excited by it to the pursuit of knowledge. Let him find



his eagerness in this pursuit a source of applause and esteem. Avoid the folly of those who sport with the credulity of children, by answering their questions in a ludicrous or deceitful manner. When he attempts to reason on such subjects as are offered to his observation, be careful to encourage him: praise him if he reasons with any degree of plausibility; even if he blunders, beware of laughing at him. With regard to amusements; while you indulge him freely in innocent diversions, encourage him to exercise his own ingenuity in constructing them for himself. In virtue, wisdom, breeding, and learning, he comprehends all that is necessary to enable his pupil to act a respectable part in life. In forming a boy to virtue, he advises first to inform him of the relation subsisting between human creatures and a supreme independent Being, and to teach him, that obedience and worship are due to that Being; but beware of impressing his mind with any notions concerning spirits or goblins, which may render him incapable of bearing darkness or solitude. Next labor to impress his mind with a veneration for truth; habituate him to a strict adherence to it; and endeavour to render him gentle and good-natured.

Good breeding forms no inconsiderable part of a good education. In teaching this, Mr. Locke advises, 1st, To inspire a youth with a disposition to oblige all with whom he is conversant; next, to teach him how to express that disposition in a becoming manner. Let boisterous roughness, contempt of others, censoriousness, impertinent raillery, and a spirit of contradiction, be banished from his temper and behaviour. But beware of leading him to regard the mere forms of intercourse as matters of the highest importance. Teach him that genuine good breeding is only an easy and graceful way of expressing good sense and benevolence in his conversation and deportment.

Mr. Locke advises to initiate the child in reading, as an amusement, without letting him know that he is engaged about a matter of any importance: or teach him to consider it as a high honor to be permitted to learn his alphabet; otherwise he will turn from it with disgust. Such books only as are plain, entertaining, and instructive, should at this time be put into his hands. Mr. Locke disapproves of an indiscriminate perusal of the Bible at this period of life; but reckons it highly proper, to cause him to peruse some of its beautiful historical passages, with its elegant and simple moral precepts. He advises next to proceed with writing, and drawing, if the boy be not naturally incapable of acquiring the latter.

The scholar must now begin an acquaintance with other languages. Yet, says Mr. Locke, let none waste their time in attempting to acquire a knowledge of Latin, but such as are designed for some of the learned professions, or for the life of a gentleman without a profession. To these last it may be useful; to others this writer thinks it is wholly unserviceable. But in learning the Latin tongue, he proposes, as a much happier method than burdening and perplexing a boy with rules of grammar, to make him speak it

with a tutor sufficiently master of it for a purpose. He proposes, that if we conveniently have the boy taught Latin by sation, the introductory books should be accompanied with an English version, so he may have recourse, for the explanation of Latin. And he again prohibits perplexing with grammatical difficulties, as at his age impossible to enter into the spirit of these.

Skill in grammar, says Mr. Locke, is useful to those whose lives are to be devoted to the study of the dead languages; and knowledge, which the gentleman and citizen of the world may have occasion to derive from the ancient languages, may be acquired without a painful study of prosody or syntax. The learning of any language is merely learning words; if possible, let it be accompanied with the acquisition of some real knowledge of such as the nature of plants, animals, &c. insists that the boy be not burdened and perplexed with the composition of Latin and verses. Neither let his memory be oppressed with whole pages and chapters from the classics. Such ridiculous exercises have no tendency to improve him either in the knowledge of languages or of nature.

Mr. Locke, however, wishes that the Latin language were learned along with the Latin, these to be accompanied with the study of arithmetic, geography, history, and chronology. These branches of knowledge be communicated to the learner in one of the two languages; and will thus, he thinks, acquire the language with greater facility. We fear, however, the difficulty of acquiring these sciences, particularly the first, would thus be proportionably increased. One method which Mr. Locke recommends for facilitating the study of a language is, to put the youth's hand, as soon as he has acquired a tolerable knowledge of chronology, some of the most entertaining Latin historians: the interesting nature of the events which they relate, will not fail to command his attention, in spite of the difficulty which he must find in making out the meaning. The Bible and Cicero de Officiis will be his best guides in the study of ethics. The law of nature and nations, as well as the civil and political institutions of his country, he recommends as important objects, which he ought to study with the most careful attention. Rhetoric and logic, with all their rules and maxims, will contribute little to render him an accurate reasoner or an eloquent speaker. Cicero's *De Inventione* will be more beneficial in teaching him to reason and to persuade, than all the treatises on those arts which he can peruse, or the lectures which he can hear.

In every art and science, Mr. Locke recommends practice and experience to rules. Natural philosophy, as contributing to inspire the mind with warmer sentiments of devotion, and serving many useful purposes in life, ought to be a part in the young gentleman's studies. He prefers the humble experimental writer to the subject to the lofty builders of systems. Locke does not think Greek necessary for a gentleman or man of the world!



he recommends dancing, as contributing to and gracefulness of carriage; with riding, fencing, as necessary branches of a young man's education. He also advises that he should learn some mechanical trade, with the use of which he may agreeably fill up some leisure hours: and insists that he should means be unskilled in the management of plants. Travelling, he thinks, will do more than good to the understanding and morals of a traveller, unless deferred to a later period, that at which young gentlemen are usually sent out.

Watts subjoins a Discourse on the Education of Children and Youth, to his excellent Essay on the Improvement of the Mind. It consists of, 1. Instructing children in religion, which he thinks should be attempted 'as soon as they begin to know almost any thing': 2. The Development of their natural powers: 3. Self-government, which he proposes children to be instructed in: 4. Reading and writing: 5. Employment: 6. Rules of prudence: 7. Accomplishments in life; among which are enumerated the Greek, Latin, and French languages, mathematics, arithmetic, algebra, geography, astronomy, natural philosophy, history, music, drawing, fencing, riding, and dancing; in which last accomplishment the Dr. professes he sees no evil, though he thinks of dancing has most sensible dangers; over which 'a wise parent will keep a watchful eye on the child.' 8. Of evil influences, from terrible stories, bloody histories, &c. 9. Of sports and diversions. 10 and 11, His two last sections, of the proper degrees of liberty and restraint to parents and daughters. Dr. Johnson has said, 'never has the care of instructing others may be charged with deficiency in his duty if this is not recommended.'

In 1762 the celebrated John James Rousseau seduced the public with his *Emilius*; a moral tale in 4 vols. 12mo. We quote, with very slight alteration, the character given of it, by Mr. Bayly, in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*.

The originality of thought, affecting sentiment, and bold vehemence of description, this book, observes this writer, is one of the noblest pieces of composition, not only in the French language, but even in the compass of ancient and modern literature. The regularity of his method, however, renders every difficult task to give an abridged view of his work. He conducts his pupil, indeed, from infancy to manhood. But instead of being a system of education, his work is besides a store of moral and philosophical knowledge. As chosen a path, and follows it from the bottom to the summit of the hill: yet whenever he appears, on the right or left hand, he only steps aside to pluck it; and sometimes, when he has once stepped aside, a new object catches his eye and seduces him still farther. However, he returns. His observations are in many places loosely thrown together, and many things are introduced, the want of which could by no means have injured either the unity or regularity of his work. If we attempt to state the principles on which he proceeds, in

reprobating the prevalent modes of education, and pointing out a new course, his primary and leading one seems to be, that we ought to watch and second the designs of nature, without anticipating her. As the tree blossoms, the flowers blow, and the fruit ripens each at a certain period; so there is a time fixed in the order of nature for the sensitive, another for the intellectual, and another for the moral powers of man to display themselves. We in vain attempt to teach children to reason concerning truth and falsehood, concerning right and wrong, before the proper period arrive: we only confound their notions of things, and load their memories with words without meaning; and thus prevent both their reasoning and moral powers from attaining that strength and acuteness of which they are naturally capable. He attempts to trace the progress of nature, and to mark in what manner she gradually raises the human mind to the full use of all its faculties. Upon the observations which he has made, in tracing the gradual progress of the powers of the human mind towards maturity, his system is founded.

'As it is impossible to communicate to the blind any just ideas of colors, or to the deaf of sounds; so it must be acknowledged, that we cannot possibly communicate to children ideas which they have not faculties to comprehend. If they are, for a certain period of life, merely sensitive animals, it must be folly to treat them during that period as rational and moral beings. But is it a truth that they are, during any part of life, guided solely by instinct, and capable only of sensation? Or, how long is the duration of that period? Has nature unkindly left them to be, till the age of twelve, the prey of appetite and passion? So far are the facts of which we have had occasion to take notice, concerning the history of infancy and childhood, from leading to such a conclusion, that to us it appears undeniable that children begin to reason very soon after their entrance into life. When the material world first opens on their senses, they are ignorant of the qualities and relations of surrounding objects: they know not, for instance, whether the candle which they look at be near or at a distance; whether the fire with which they are agreeably warmed may also affect them with a painful sensation. But they remain not long in this state of absolute ignorance. They soon appear to have acquired some ideas of the qualities and relative situation of bodies. They cannot, however, acquire such ideas, without exerting their reasoning powers in a certain degree. Appearances must be compared, and inferences drawn, before knowledge can be gained. It is not sensation alone which informs us of the relative distances of bodies; nor can sensation alone teach us, that the same effects which we have formerly observed will be again produced by the same cause.

'But, if children appear capable of reasoning at a very early period, they appear also to be at a very early period subject to the influence of the passions: they are angry or pleased, merry or sad, friends or enemies, even while they hang at the breast; instead of being selfish, they are naturally liberal and social. And, if we observe



them with attention, we shall find that the passions do not display themselves sooner than the moral sense. As it is wisely ordered, that we should not see, and hear, and feel, without being able to compare and draw inferences from our perceptions; so it is a no less certain and evident law of nature, that the passions no sooner begin to agitate the human breast, than we become able, in a certain degree, to distinguish the beauty and the deformity of virtue and vice. The child is not only capable of gratitude and attachment to the person who treats him with kindness; he is also capable of distinguishing between gratitude and ingratitude, and of viewing each with proper sentiments. He cries when you refuse to gratify his desires; but he boldly insists that he is injured when you use him cruelly or unjustly. It is indeed impossible to attend to the conduct of children during infancy, without being convinced that they are, even then, capable of moral distinctions. So little are they acquainted with artificial language, that we and they do not then well understand each other. But view their actions; consider those signs by which nature has taught them to express themselves. Our limbs, our features, and our senses, are not gradually and by piecemeal bestowed as we advance towards maturity; the infant body comes not into the world mutilated or defective: why then, in point of mental abilities, should we be for a while brutes, without becoming rational and moral beings till the fulness of time be accomplished? all the differences between the phenomena of manhood and those of infancy and childhood may be accounted for, if we only reflect, that, when children come into the world, they are totally unacquainted with all the objects around them; with the appearances of nature, and the institutions of society; that they are sent into the world in a feeble state, in order that the helplessness occasioned by their ignorance may attract the notice and gain the assistance of those who are able to help them; and that they attain not full strength in the powers either of mind or body, nor a sufficient acquaintance with nature, with artificial language, and with the arts and institutions of society, till they arrive at manhood.

Even Rousseau, notwithstanding the art with which he lays down his system, cannot avoid acknowledging indirectly, on several occasions, that our social dispositions, our rational and our moral powers, display themselves at an earlier period, than that at which he wishes us to begin the cultivation of them.

But though the great outlines of his system be merely theory, unsupported by facts, nay plainly contradictory to facts, yet his observations on the impropriety or absurdity of the prevalent modes of education are very often just, and many of the particular directions which he gives for the conducting of education are judicious. He is often fanciful, and often deviates from the common road, only to show that he is able to walk in a separate path: yet his views are liberal and extensive: his heart seems to have glowed with benevolence: his book contains much observation of human actions; displays an intimate acquaintance with the motives

which sway the human heart; means a perfect system for education superior to what many other have done upon the subject.

With those who estimate the value of the blessings the business of education is a task. It is the formation of the mind to cheerfulness, of the mind to wisdom. It is the teaching his eyes to the circumstances of the world; to distinguish virtue from falsehood; beauty from happiness from misery: to contribute neither more nor less importance to every acquisition; and, instead of being borne down by the prejudices of mankind above them to that degree of excellence and moral excellence, him to judge distinctly of earthly enjoyments, and, by his own faculties, to select those which will contribute to his good. Education, says Dr. Johnson, its influence upon the mind produces to an intimate acquaintance with less objects which are totally ignorant; and every object presents a variety of a pleasant or unpleasantly multiplying or diminishing or disagreeable sensations; and, by comparison, objects are comparatively before them are of no great value; these are overlooked by the years pass away in a kind of without apathy or affection. However, a natural acuteness of observation among the most is denied with lively sensations and actions; and when they are objects that appear interesting, most violent. What they keep important to them—and possess is their all. Their concentration is in that which gives the powers of body and mind whatever gives pain. This cause of that remarkable strength of affections, both of the benevolent kind, so observable in savage impetuosity of character so common among the active and uninformed.

The cultivated mind, by its acquaintance with innumerable objects, discovers some pleasant object of its pursuit: of contentment and affections are provided into innumerable ramifications; although enjoyment may be augmented by aggregate number, individual quality possesses but little of influence. The young are generally affected by simple objects of their joy or anger, sorrow complex. As the powers of the mind are enlarged, the affections are heightened and rendered more complicated perception of favors and



becomes united with gratitude to the great good ; with love, veneration, and his character ; with admiration at the good, or at some peculiarity in the liberality with which it was conferred introduces the passions of hope teaching us the knowledge of good and evil, on the one hand, and the acquirement which it is liable on the other. It is farther, that the young and inexperienced habits are not yet formed, and to every thing is new, are most apt to be moved by the introductory emotions of surprise and wonder. This inexperience renders events, which are familiar to others, strange to them. They are prone to be led by acquisitions and advantages commencing, and to be agitated by small evils, because their imaginations are not corrected by experience. But if we consider, from more simple causes, are freer in them than in others, it is ; that their affections are less permanent, the rapid succession of novelties, and the variety which increased knowledge quickly efface the preceding impressions. The extent of this subject enjoins the whole encyclopædia could scarcely contain it. The infinite diversity of pursuits, which engage the attentions of the world, are accompanied by an equal diversity of predilections ; they present an infinity of qualities to the inquisitive mind, and their correspondent emotions and

business of education comprehends much more than includes the circumstances of the individual to local situation, and the manner in which the necessities and conveniences are supplied to him ; the degree of care and attention with which he is nursed in the examples set before him by parents, and companions ; the degree of recalcitrance to which he is accus- tomed ; various bodily exercises, languages, sciences which are taught him, and the order in which they are communicated ; the arts of overcoming prejudices, of guarding against evil influences, of conquering the passions, and of governing himself ; and it regards, as of the greatest importance, the progress of the mind with the principles of religion. In different periods of different climates, and under different governments, various institutions have prevailed in the education of youth ; in every different family, the children are educated in a different manner, according to the varieties in the situation, dispositions, and wishes of the parents.

Modern improvements in education have been made ; they are connected with the education of the poor, but have more particularly concerned public schools, and the extension of the blessing, by economical methods,

which, in order of time, stand *Sunday* schools. The excellent founder of them, Mr. *Wesley*, a gentleman of Gloucestershire

(in which county he was born 1735), seems at first to have had his attention engaged to the general condition of the poor, by observing the miserable moral state of the prisoners confined for less crimes in the county jail. In a letter to a gentleman who had applied to him for the particulars of the nature and origin of his plan, he thus expresses himself :—

‘Some business leading me one morning into the suburbs of the city, where the lowest of the people (who are principally employed in the pin manufactory) reside, I was struck with concern at seeing a group of children, wretchedly ragged, at play in the street. I asked an inhabitant whether those children belonged to that part of the town, and lamented their misery and idleness. Ah ! sir, said the woman to whom I was speaking, could you take a view of this part of the town on Sunday, you would be shocked indeed ; for then the street is filled with multitudes of these wretches, who, released on that day from their employment, spend their time in noise and riot, playing at chuck, and cursing and swearing in a manner so horrid, as to convey to any serious mind an idea of hell rather than any other place. We have a worthy clergyman, said she, minister of our parish, who has put some of them to school ; but upon the sabbath they are all given up to follow their inclinations without restraint, as their parents, totally abandoned themselves, have no idea of instilling into the minds of their children, principles to which they themselves are strangers.

‘This conversation suggested to me, that it would at least be a harmless attempt, if it were productive of no good, should some little plan be formed to check this deplorable profanation of the sabbath. I then enquired of the woman if there were any decent, well-disposed women in the neighbourhood, who kept schools for teaching to read. I was presently directed to four. To these I applied, and made an agreement with them, to receive as many children as I should send on the Sunday, whom they were to instruct in reading and the church catechism. For this I engaged to pay them a shilling for their day’s employment. The women seemed pleased with the proposal. I then waited on the clergyman before-mentioned, and imparted to him my plan. He was so much satisfied with the idea that he engaged to lend his assistance by going round to the schools on a Sunday afternoon, to examine the progress that was made, and to enforce order and decorum among such a set of little heathens.

‘This, sir, is the commencement of the plan. It is now about three years since we began, and I could wish you were here to make enquiry into the effect. A woman who lives in a lane where I had fixed a school, told me some time ago, that the place was quite a heaven upon Sundays, compared to what it used to be. The numbers who have learned to read and say their catechism are so great that I am astonished at it. Upon the Sunday afternoon the mistresses take their scholars to church, a place into which neither they nor their ancestors ever entered with a view to the glory of God. But what is yet more extraordinary, within this month, these little ragamuffins have in great numbers taken it into their heads to frequent the early morning prayers,



which are held every morning at the cathedral at seven o'clock. I believe there were near fifty this morning. They assemble at the house of one of the mistresses, and walk before her to church, two and two, in as much order as a company of soldiers. I am generally at church, and after service they all come round me to make their bow; and, if any animosities have arisen, to make their complaint. The great principle I inculcate is to be kind and good-natured to each other; not to provoke one another; to be dutiful to their parents; not to offend God by cursing and swearing; and such little plain precepts as all may comprehend. As my profession is that of a printer, I have printed a little book, which I give amongst them; and some friends of mine, subscribers to the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, sometimes make me a present of a parcel of Bibles, Testaments, &c., which I distribute as rewards to the deserving. The success that has attended this scheme, has induced one or two of my friends to adopt the plan, and set up Sunday schools in other parts of the city, and now a whole parish has taken up the object; so that I flatter myself in time the good effects will appear so conspicuous as to become generally adopted. The number of children at present thus engaged on the sabbath are between 200 and 300; and they are increasing every week, as the benefit is universally seen. I have endeavoured to engage the clergy of my acquaintance that reside in their parishes. One has entered into the scheme with great fervor; and it was in order to excite others to follow the example, that I inserted in my paper the paragraph which I suppose you saw copied into the London papers. I cannot express to you the pleasure I often receive in discovering genius and innate good dispositions among this little multitude. It is botanising in human nature. I have often too, the satisfaction of receiving thanks from parents, for the reformation they perceive in their children. Often I have given them kind admonitions, which I always do in the mildest and gentlest manner. The going among them, doing them little kindnesses, distributing trifling rewards, and ingratiating myself with them, I hear, have given me an ascendancy, greater than I ever could have imagined; for, I am told by their mistresses, that they are very much afraid of my displeasure. If you ever pass through Gloucester, I shall be happy to pay my respects to you, and to show you the effects of this effort at civilisation. If the glory of God be promoted in any, even the smallest degree, society must reap some benefit. If good seed be sown in the mind, at an early period of human life, though it shows itself not again for many years, it may please God, at some future period, to cause it to spring up, and to bring forth a plenteous harvest.

Mr. Raikes's first effort bears date about the close of the year 1781, or the beginning of 1782; and the system began to extend itself in the city of Gloucester. Having tried the experiment for more than a year, he determined to invite the public attention to a scheme which he perceived to be fraught with such benefits. For this purpose he inserted a paragraph in a weekly newspaper, of which he was the editor and printer.

The following is a copy of notice:—

*Gloucester Journal.*

'Some of the clergy in different counties, bent upon attempting a relief to the children of the lower class, are establishing day schools for rendering the laborious servant to the ends of instruction. hitherto been prostituted to bad purposes, and other inhabitants of the villages, complain that they receive no benefit from their property on the sabbath week besides; this in a great measure from the lawless state of the young, who are allowed to run wild on that day without every restraint. To remedy this, persons duly qualified are employed to instruct those that cannot read; and those that cannot read, are taught the catechism, and sent to church. By thus keeping the day gaged, the day passes profitably, agreeably. In those parishes where this has been adopted, we are assured that the behaviour of the children is greatly improved, and the barbarous ignorance in which they have lived, being in some degree dispelled, give proofs that those persons who consider the lower orders of the people as incapable of improvement, and therefore attempt to reclaim them imprudently, not worth the trouble.'

His statement of the good effects caught the attention of a gentleman before alluded to, who wrote immediately to Mr. Raikes, and received the letter with the permission of its author, this epistle was inserted in one of the numbers of the *Gentleman's Magazine* for 1784 (vol. liv. p. 410). The medium of this publication, the paper reached the fore thousands of the most intelligent of society in the kingdom. Mr. Raikes, to answer the enquiries of others, anxious to gain information on this important subject.

The scheme began now to be known and adopted. Christians of various denominations, wondering that it should not have been devised before, seemed determined to do as much as possible, the mischief of applying with the utmost diligence of this new discovery in the world of religion. Several public-spirited gentlemen in the metropolis, perceiving that the system was greatly aided by the establishment of the Society, which should combine the patronages of all denominations of Christians, held a preparatory meeting August 30th, 1784, into consideration the propriety of a Society for establishing and supporting schools for the instruction of poor children in different parts of the kingdom. A resolution then passed, a public meeting to be held on the 7th of September, and formed, bearing the title of 'A Society for the Support and Encouragement of Schools for the Instruction of the Poor in the different Counties of England.' The establishment was exceedingly becoming a growing cause. By the respectable



the public confidence; by their ened the public mind; by their ated the public zeal; and, by t assisted the public expendi-

et of importance with the com-day School Society, to engage of episcopal authority within the blished religion of the country; pken to the honor of the bishops, tly came forward, and cast the nitres into the scale of this good the dignitaries of the church, he plan, the bishops of Salisbury d the deans of Canterbury and d a conspicuous place by their So rapidly had the flame spread try, that, by the close of 1786, that not less than 250,000 chil-Sunday receiving instruction.

ere at first universally conducted . This entailed a load of pe-upon the plan, which, had it ed, must have considerably res, and consequently diminished he Sunday School Society alone ; the first sixteen years of its ex-than £4000 in the salaries of is was not the least evil attend-labor. Hiring teachers can-ed to possess either the zeal or ho now engage in the work from enevolence. Gratuitous instruc-ishing improvement of the sys-ffects not appear to have entered its benevolent author. 'If we a writer in the Sunday School ose name stood next to that of the annals of Sunday Schools, the person who first came for-arily proffered his exertions, his lents, to the instruction of the or; since an imitation of his ex-the great cause of the present of these institutions, and of all tional increase which may be pated. At what precise period roduced, does not appear, or eed, so that the award of this reserved for the decision of the the year 1800 this plan became ough the kingdom.'

ent in the mode of popular uced by Dr. Bell and Mr. Lan-we shall immediately advert in t manner, must be considered as era in the history of Sunday advantage derived from these does not merely consist in a ser-all their arrangements, but in o the world, more clearly than before, that education is an art definite improvement, and in or, before unknown, to carry it

n of Sunday schools was now l in this kingdom. Every city, had warmly espoused the cause, one thing wanting to raise the

system to the highest degree of efficiency, and that was union. Reasoning upon the general principle, many were led to conclude, that great benefits would result to this particular case, from an association of counsel and energy. After much private intercourse on this subject, between many persons in London, a public meeting was holden, July 13th, 1803, in the school-rooms belonging to Surrey chapel, and the Sunday School Union was then formed.

This new society commenced its operations with no less prudence than vigour. Carefully abstaining from even the appearance of a desire to interfere with the private management of any of the associated schools, it aimed to diffuse new life and energy through them all. One of its first objects was the compilation of a new spelling book, more adapted to moral and religious instruction than any they could find already in existence. This production reflects no small degree of credit on its industrious compilers. The next object of the committee was to ascertain, by an extensive correspondence, what parts of the country were most destitute of schools. Finding, in many places, that the advantages of the system were greatly diminished by the want of method and order which prevailed in the schools, they published in 1806, 'A plan for the Formation and Regulation of Sunday Schools.'

The example of the metropolis was soon imitated by many of the large towns, and several counties. Unions were formed in different parts of the kingdom, from which the happiest effects have resulted; among which may be reckoned the establishment of new schools in neglected parts of large towns, and amidst the darkness of benighted villages;—a fresh excitement given to those employed in the work of tuition;—the diffusion of Christian affection;—and in some instances a great improvement in the mode of instruction. The formation of the Sunday School Union must, therefore, be regarded as an event of vast importance to the success of this valuable scheme. Surprising it is to state, but it was not until the year 1816, that the first Sunday school in America was opened at New York. The Wesleyan Methodist Missionaries had opened one the year previous in the heart of the island of Ceylon.

In an account like the present, the establishment of the Scotch Sabbath Evening Schools, ought not to be omitted, as they may be fairly stated to have arisen out of the English Sunday School Institution. The children of the poor, so far as common education is concerned, are all taught to read in the parochial schools, which are established in the southern parts of that enlightened country. Still, however, as it respects the observance of the sabbath, and the more direct business of religious instruction, like the children in this kingdom, they are left of course to the care of their parents, multitudes of whom, indifferent to the welfare of their own souls, feel no solicitude for the salvation of their offspring. Observing and commiserating the condition of these neglected youth, who in great numbers spent the sabbath, and especially the sabbath evenings, in profanity and vice,



the friends of religion in Edinburgh formed the pious resolution of collecting them together on the Lord's day evenings, for the purpose of imparting religious knowledge. They assemble at six o'clock, and are dismissed about eight; during which time every effort is made to instruct them in the way of eternal salvation, and to urge them forward in the path of life. This admirable system commenced in Edinburgh, in the year 1787, and soon spread through all the principal towns of Scotland. How desirable that it should pass the Tweed, and be adopted in England! There is one class of youth, to whom it might become an incalculable blessing; i. e. the elder boys and girls, who have just left other schools, and who are generally considered as gone beyond their care. Thus abandoned, it is too commonly the case, that they lose all the little impression they have received while under instruction. Could they be collected together on a sabbath evening, to be taught by those who would interest themselves in their welfare, what a blessing might be expected to accrue!

*Adult Schools* were originally a ramification of the Sunday school system. The first school for the instruction of adult persons exclusively, was opened in the summer of 1811, in North Wales, through the efforts of the Rev. T. Charles, episcopal minister of Bala, Merionethshire. The success of the undertaking was considerable; multitudes in every district repaired to the chapels, or other places appropriated to the purpose, for instruction, and the most beneficial results became every where observable. Mr. Charles's own account is as follows:—

'My maxim has been for many years past to aim at great things; but if I cannot accomplish great things, to do what I can, and be thankful for the least success; and still to follow on without being discouraged at the day of small things, or by unexpected reverses. For many years I have laid it down as a maxim to guide me, never to give up a place in despair of success. If one way does not succeed, new means must be tried; and if I see no increase this year, perhaps I may the next. I almost wish to blot out the word impossible from my vocabulary, and obliterate it from the minds of my brethren. We had no particular school for the instruction of adults exclusively, till the summer of 1811; but many attended the Sunday schools with the children, in different parts of the country, previous to that time. What induced me first to think of establishing such an institution, was the aversion I found in the adults to associate with the children in their schools. The first attempt succeeded wonderfully, and far beyond my most sanguine expectations. The report of the success of this school soon spread over the country, and in many places the illiterate adults began to call for instruction. In one county, after a public address had been delivered to them on the subject, the adult poor, even the aged, flocked to the Sunday school in crowds; and the shop-keepers could not immediately supply them with an adequate number of spectacles. Our schools, in general, are kept in our chapels; in some districts, where there are no chapels, farmers, in the summer time, lend their barns. The adults and children are

sometimes in the same room, and in different parts of it. When their names are fixed, they soon learn; and, by difference, if they are able, by and by, to see the letters. As the adults are apt to lose, we endeavour, before we dismiss them, to instruct them without delay, in the principles of Christianity. We select portions of Scripture, comprising the main truths, and repeat them to the learners, till they can retain them in their memories, so that they are able to repeat the next time we meet.

Soon after this, at the suggestion of the Rev. the Bristol Auxiliary Bible Society, intelligence communicated to me from Keynsham was read the following sentence:—'We are so far from being obliged to omit a great number of inhabitants who could not read, that we are not likely to be benefited by the instruction of a bible.' This statement was of an individual present, by the name of Mr. Smith. To be deprived of the Bible, by an inability to peruse it, was a worse than for a man to be deprived of the Bible through ignorance of the way to it. I felt that it was my duty to do what I could, which in itself was with a benevolent mind meditated upon. He longed to relieve them, but he saw the dilemma he consulted Stephen, a respectable merchant in the town, who stands high in the long list of benefactors; and, in the advice and counsel of a gentleman, the scheme of Mr. Smith was adopted. He slept upon his plan, after he had received the advice of his generous friend, and then he commenced the undertaking, before he commenced. As he was employed the next day, he sent out subscriptions for the Bible. As he met with persons who could not read, he asked them if they would like to have a school should be opened. The offer with expressions of gratitude, and names were taken down. The school was immediately obtained, and the school commenced. So little could I expect to endure delay, that in nineteen days I disclosed his mind to Mr. Pole. Mr. Pole opened with eleven men and number rapidly increased, till it amounted to some active friends to the cause of humanity, met the founder of the school, and formed themselves into a society under the title of 'An Institution for the Instruction of Persons to read the Holy Scriptures.' The society continued to attract, and engage the support of Christians; and at length received an accession in the active co-operation of Mr. Pole, M. D., a physician in the society of Friends. Within a few years, this society admitted 111 members, of 276 who were taught to read, and were admitted into the society of Friends. Public adult tuition has been modified, both at Bristol and in conformity with the aversion



to an exposure of their ignorance. The of private schools has accordingly been sed, by which a few neighbours are associated mer, and taught at their own habitations, or private manner at some convenient place.

this period, adult schools have been estab- in various parts of the kingdom; at outh, Salisbury, Uxbridge, Sheffield, Nor- Ipswich, and other places; and these ex- of benevolence have not been disregarded mitated by the metropolis.

at the most brilliant of all our modern dis- and improvements in this important ce of sciences, is the *New System* of Educa- which, however warmly opposed for a time, now be regarded as established. With Dr.

originally a superintendent of the Military Orphan Asylum at Madras, the first idea is system clearly originated. This was a e charity resembling the Royal Military am at Chelsea. A salary of 1200 pagodas, was attached to Dr. Bell's office when he ed upon it, but this he declined; accepting fice solely for the sake of being more useful; aid, in his station than he could hope to be y other means. 'Here,' he reasoned with lf, 'is a field for a clergyman to animate ertion, and encourage his diligence. Here ecess is certain, and will be in proportion e ability he shall discover, the labor he bestow, and the means he shall employ. y instilling principles of religion and mo- into the minds of the young, that he can eomplish the ends of his ministry: it is uing them to habits of diligence, industry, ty, and honesty, and by instructing them ful knowledge, that he can best promote individual interest, and serve the state to

they belong,—two purposes which cannot, ad policy, or even in reality, exist apart.' these feelings, and with this sense of duty, ell began his task. He had to work upon ost unpromising materials. It was an esta- opinion, that the half-caste children were erior race, both in moral and intellectual es, as if a certain mulish obliquity of na- ad been produced by crossing colors in the a species. This opinion was like one of prophecies which bring about their own plishment. Dr. Bell knew how deeply it oted, and saw but too plainly that it rested pparent experience; he knew also, that hildren learnt from their unhappy mothers nning, and selfishness, and deceit, which e the defensive instincts of a despised and led generation; the baleful prejudice which led against them inevitably producing the hich it pre-supposed. The boys placed his care were in general stubborn and e, addicted to trick, lying, and duplicity; e among them who were farther ad- in age were, for the most part, trained ats and customs incompatible with that without which no system of education proceed.

soon found,' says he, 'that if ever the was to be brought into good order, it must e, either by instructing ushers in the eco- of such a seminary, or by youths from

among the pupils trained for the purpose. For a long time I kept both these objects in view; but was in the end compelled, after the most painful efforts of perseverance, to abandon en- tirely the former, and adhere solely to the latter. I found it difficult beyond measure to new-model the minds of men of full years, and that when- ever an usher was instructed so far as to qualify him for discharging the office of a teacher of this school, I had formed a man who could earn a much higher salary than was allowed at this charity, and on far easier terms. My success, on the other hand, in training my young pupils in habits of strict discipline, and prompt obedience, exceeded my expectation: and every step of my progress has confirmed and rivetted in my mind the superiority of this new mode of conducting a school through the medium of the scholars themselves.'—*Experiment*, first edition, p. 10.

'It is in this mode of conducting a school that the discovery consists; this mode, which is briefly termed self-tuition, is the principle of the new school, and the new system rests wholly upon it. This is the key-stone of the arch,—the main-spring of the watch,—the moving power of the whole machine. Dr. Bell did not come to the superintendence of the Madras Asylum prepared with his theory, and ready to put it in execution. He found the school with an establishment of one master and two ushers, and as the school increased one of the boys was added as head-teacher, so that there were four nominal masters continued to the 22d of January, 1796. But when the report was drawn up five months afterwards (June 28), and the school had increased farther to the number of 200, the masters were reduced to three. 'None of these masters had made a progress in letters equal to the boys in the first class.' Their duty, it is expressly stated, was not to teach, but to look after the various departments of the institution. As teachers they had been gradually superseded, and from the 1st of June, 1793, the school was 'entirely taught by the boys.' This was one of the cases in which practice led to theory.'

Dr. Bell perceived the expense of time, labor, and punishment, which the common system of tuition requires, and, having found a remedy, perceived also wherein the principle of that remedy lay, and as a principle acted upon it and announced it to the world. Every class had its teacher and assistant. Give me four and twenty children to-day, was a saying of Dr. Bell, and I will give you as many teachers to-morrow as you want. There was no hesitation in degrading a teacher who failed in any of the tasks required of him, and making trial of another, till one was found fit for the office; these teachers had no other occupation, no other pursuit, nothing to employ their minds but this single object; they could do that only which they were assigned to do, and they did it the better, because they themselves knew nothing more than what was perfectly level to the capacities of their pupils.

The first attempt which Dr. Bell made to introduce a new practice in the school, proved to him the necessity of proceeding upon this principle. At first sight of a Malabar school, his attention had been caught by the manner in



which the letters were taught in sand; yet he could not fully establish even so simple a practice as this, till he had trained boys whose minds he could command, and who, as he says, 'only knew to do as they were bidden, and were not disposed to dispute or evade the orders given them.' Many advantages arise from this easy improvement, besides the great and obvious saving of expense. A distinct notion of the different form of the letters is immediately obtained, and the difficulty of distinguishing those letters whose very difference of form is founded upon their similarity (b and d, p and q, for instance), by which children are so long perplexed, is removed at once. The scholar, at the same time, learns so much of the art of writing, as materially to facilitate his progress when he arrives at that class wherein it is taught.

The next improvement of the Madras school, was the practice of syllabic reading: the child, after he had learnt to read and spell monosyllables, was not allowed to pronounce two syllables till he had acquired, by long practice, a perfect precision; upon the common plan, children make continual blunders, in the beginning and middle, and more especially in the termination of words: to prevent this confusion, they were taught to read syl-la-ble by syl-la-ble, and, when so far advanced as to read sentences, to pause awhile at the end of every word. 'So much,' says Dr. Bell, 'for the first minutiae: were I to pursue this subject through all its stages I should fill a volume.' From the commencement of his experiment, he made the scholars, as far as possible, do every thing for themselves. If a bad subject came to school, a good boy was chosen to take care of him, teach him right principles, treat him kindly, reconcile him to the school, and render him happy like the rest in his situation. The consequence of such a system was, that the boys, feeling themselves happy, felt also that their advantage was the only object which the master had in view; they were sure of his favor if they continued to do right, they were certain of his disapprobation and displeasure if they offended; but knowing that he was just, and feeling that he was good, they regarded him as their friend, and benefactor, and common parent. An annual saving of not less than 2400 pagodas, or £960, upon the education and support of 200 boys, was produced in the institution at Madras, by Dr. Bell's regulations and improvements!

After superintending the school for seven years, he found it necessary for his health to return to Europe. The directors of the charity passed a resolution for providing him a passage in any ship in which he might wish to sail; declaring at the same time, that, under the wise and judicious regulations which he had established, the institution had been brought to a degree of perfection and promising utility 'far exceeding their most sanguine expectations when it was established.'

These testimonies Dr. Bell published in 1797, on his arrival in Europe, in a little duodecimo pamphlet, under the title of *An Experiment in Education*, made at the Male Asylum of Madras; suggesting a system by which a school or

family may teach itself under the guidance of the master or parent.

When the manuscript of this was put into the hands of the publisher, whose account of the system Dr. Bell said to him, 'You will be a enthusiast; but in a thousand years tuition will spread over the world by the system' is apparent by the whole tenor of the writing in sand, not syllabic reading. The improvements in detail, by the principle and main-spring of the system, a school or family may teach itself the peritendence of the master or parent, mode of conducting a school, and medium of the scholars themselves, done no more than conceive a new system, and publish it, it would have done enough. It has been the first person to put into effect, the discovery would and to have imputed it to a man who would have been as unreasonable to ascribe the great discovery respecting the sameness of electricity not to him but to the French C. Franklin waited for the erection of a building at Philadelphia, to affix his metallic rod, set up a telegraph to the American philosophers, and verified Franklin's theory of lightning, before it reached Europe that Franklin had verified his means of a paper-kite.'

The Charity school of St. Ives was the first place in England where the discovery was adopted. 'That the new system,' says another author, 'essentially consists in the teaching of the scholars, in classical proficiency, by short, easy, and perfect not in any of the practices either the male asylum by Dr. Bell, or by Mr. Lancaster is most clearly proved by this simple criterion, all the peculiar practices of common school, and, if the tuition by the system is carried on, the difference of progress is greatly material. On the other hand, if the system of tuition by the scholars is the practices, the charm ceases, and diligence cannot be so readily maintained. If the system is resumed, the school is comparatively inoperative; therefore, is evidently one and the same, and in all its applications, the Koran, or a brahmin to the Sha, or a hommedan or the Hindoo system, prove that it originated with him.'

Having thus fairly traced the system to its inventor, we may be allowed to ascribe to Mr. Lancaster the great merit of indefatigable zeal, first made the system known in England, and of having obtained the patronage of many exalted and



aduals, with the Sovereign at their head-  
opened his free school in the Borough in the year

In the year 1803, in the first edition of his  
movements in Education, (part 3rd. page 44)  
wrote thus;—'I ought not to close my ac-  
t, without acknowledging the obligations I lie  
to Dr. Bell, of the male asylum at Madras,  
so nobly gave up his time, and liberal  
y, that he might perfect that institution,  
in flourished greatly under his fostering care.  
published a tract in 1798, entitled an Expe-  
ment on Education, made at the male asylum  
Madras, suggesting a system whereby a school or  
ly may teach itself, under the superintendence  
the master or parent. From this publication  
we adopted several useful hints; I beg leave  
recommend it to the attentive perusal of the  
eds of education, and of youth. I am per-  
ced nothing is more conducive to the promo-  
of a system than actual experiment. Dr.  
had 200 boys, who instructed themselves,  
e their own pens, ruled their books, and  
all that labor in school, which among a  
ber is light, but resting on the shoulders of  
well-meaning, and honest, though unwise  
er, often proves too much for his health,  
embitters or perhaps costs him his life. I  
h regret that I was not acquainted with the  
ty of his system, till somewhat advanced in  
plan; if I had known it, it would have  
me much trouble, and some retrograde  
ments. As a confirmation of the goodness  
r. Bell's plan, I have succeeded with one  
y similar in a school attended by almost 300  
ren.

r. Lancaster was afterwards vain enough to  
in the public papers, that having 'invented  
the blessing of Divine Providence, a new  
mechanical system of education, for the use of  
ols, he feels anxious to disseminate the know-  
of its advantages through the united king-  
and vanity was his complete overthrow.  
ed the merit we have willingly ascribed to him,  
in addition to this, he invented a few eco-  
cal practices in the use of slates and spelling  
which are equally applicable to all schools  
acted on the new system, and which have  
adopted in Dr. Bell's school, without any  
of their origin, just as the sand-writing  
syllabic spelling were confessedly borrowed  
Dr. Bell. He invented also a variety of  
punishments, in the application of which his  
ars were made the correctors, no less than  
structors of each other; and many of which  
of a nature very questionable in their  
ing on the moral character; that is, calcu-  
to make the pupils insolent, turbulent, and  
easing.

ry we are to add, that not only was the  
on of originality agitated at first with  
bitter personal feelings between the friends  
se parties, but it insensibly mingled itself  
eligious controversy. An advocate on the  
f Dr. Bell, and the Madras system, says  
eat candor: 'We are sorry to admit that  
was no great appearance of acceleration in  
ceedings of the Church, till Mr. Lancas-  
ted up with all the eagerness and activity  
ctary—with all the zeal of a missionary—

with all the adventitious motives and practices  
of a person whose subsistence and reputation  
depended upon the success of his plan; and  
fortified with all the countenance and support of  
the host of sectaries, whose eagle-eyes perceived  
at a glance what an opportunity was offered, at  
once to place the cause of humanity in oppo-  
sition to that of the Church,—what a glorious  
occasion was presented to associate in the minds  
of the people the ideas of charity and dissent  
*British Review, No. 6.*

Mr. Lancaster, and what was now called the  
British system, admitted and taught the reading  
of the Bible, in fact, into the schools founded  
upon his plan, but excluded all catechisms.  
'Impelled by all these aids and motives, con-  
tinues the above writer, Mr. Lancaster soon be-  
came the prominent character on the canvass, and  
by the great mass, both of the clergy and laity,  
who had never heard of Dr. Bell, was consider-  
ed as the necessary, indeed the only instrument  
through whom the new system could be carried  
into practice. And we shall ever consider it as  
reflecting immortal honor on many zealous  
ministers of the church, that the practicability of  
the plan was no sooner shown by Mr. Lancas-  
ter, than they immediately lent him their coun-  
tenance; and finding to their regret that no  
propositions, having in view the general instruc-  
tion of the poor, were then circulated and  
enforced by the authority of the church as a  
body, they trusted to their own individual ex-  
ertions to make Mr. Lancaster's plan square as  
well as they could with the interests of the  
church. We should certainly have been glad to  
see her interfere sooner, as soon indeed as it was  
evident and publicly notified by experience that  
the new system imported by Dr. Bell was a  
practicable one for the instruction of the poor.  
We should then have been furnished with a  
stronger argument than we now possess for  
repelling the sneering insinuations of those, who  
lose no opportunity of observing, that, but for  
the exertions of Mr. Lancaster and his partisans,  
and the fear and emulation which they have  
excited, the prospects of general instruction for  
the poor would have been very different from  
what they now are. By whatever means, how-  
ever, the effect was produced, the Church is at  
length roused, and those who wish to secure to  
the rising generation of the people a knowledge  
of the excellence of her doctrines, may now do so  
without any alloy of danger, which even the most  
trembling solicitude for her safety can entertain.'

The question of the comparative economy of  
the two schools has been thus stated:—Dr.  
Bell introduced the knowledge of sand-writing  
and syllabic spelling, which Mr. Lancaster  
confessedly borrowed from him. Mr. Lancaster,  
having first opened a large school, introduced  
the economical use of slates in many cases where  
paper-books were necessarily used at Madras.  
But these slates are now used in Dr. Bell's  
schools. Mr. Lancaster also invented a large  
card, with the letters and short words printed  
thereon, one of which stuck against the wall  
serves the whole class to read from; whereas  
Dr. Bell prefers that each child should have a  
small card of its own, which it may look at and



con over at its pleasure. The difference in the first cost of these instruments amounts to about seven shillings per 100 children yearly; and the use of either is a matter of mere opinion as to the advantage of giving each child's lesson into its own hand. Many of Dr. Bell's schools use the large cards, many of Mr. Lancaster's the small ones; a few Bibles and Testaments are admitted to be as necessary in Mr. Lancaster's schools as in Dr. Bell's. So that in fact the two schools are now on a perfect equality as to expense. The use of slates, or of paper books, for writing and ciphering, depends on the respective tastes of the master or patrons. If they think the pride and pleasure which a child and his parents take in looking back upon the records of the progress he has made will more than repay the expense of paper books, they will adopt them. If they think otherwise, or if their funds are very confined, they will reject them. The system will be neither the better nor the worse for their determination either way, or for the adoption or omission of the small or the large card, or for a multitude of other things, about which much noise has been made.

The Madras system has become the basis of the National Schools connected with the established church throughout the kingdom; and large and well earned are its triumphs over the wretchedness and ignorance of the poor. The British and Foreign School Society, into which the British system is now merged, is, on the other hand, principally in the hands of dissenters; nor can it be denied the meed of praise for great and noble exertions in the cause of universal education. Mr. Lancaster, as we have intimated, has worn out his warmest friends in this country by his personal vanity and extravagant conduct; but the system is under very respectable and disinterested management. It is said, by competent judges, that the pupils of the National Schools excel in reading; while those of the British and Foreign School system are superior in their acquaintance with arithmetic.

But the plans of Dr. Bell were yet more extended. He himself gave the public, in 1815, an interesting, though somewhat verbose, publication, entitled '*Ludus Literarius: the Classical and Grammar School; or an Exposition of an Experiment in Education, made at Madras in the years 1789—1796; with a view to its Introduction into Schools for the Higher Orders of Children*,' 8vo.; and at the Charter-house, and some respectable private seminaries, the advantages of mutual instruction among pupils have been most successfully applied.

'In proposing,' says Dr. Bell, 'to transfer the Madras system of education into schools of a higher order, and especially into grammar schools, I make no pretension to superior attainments in literature, nor do I presume to vie with the learned preceptors of our classical schools in skill in languages, or in sciences.

To teach a teacher ill becometh me.

'The task I have in hand is of a less elevated description, and does not require deep erudition. It is not the science of letters, but the art of tuition, or the mode of communicating that science,

of which I am to treat. I do not to the master's stock of knowledge into his hands machinery, by which down his learning to the level of children, disseminate his knowledge to pupils, and by the simplest in gentlest means, establish order, uphold virtue. For such schools discovery to develop, no new system no improvement on the Madras offer. All I propose is, to show more fully than I have heretofore done the utility of that invention to schools, than those in which it has been employed with uniform success.

My reader need expect nothing entirely new at the same time, it is true, that in the Latin grammar, independent of machinery, which will embrace even scholars' studies, other methods will be recommended with regular lessons, and the introduction to and prosody, than those which have been hitherto followed. In the principles, however, these processes depend, nay, per se, on themselves, the master will find but what has been suggested by me; he will see nothing but what he knew before; he will think, as soon as he has read before—so simple, so plain, and so be. But my solicitude is, that it be in the way which may avail both to the master and his pupil.'

He afterwards proceeds to propose of a school on the model of the National School, in which, as it is a key to this great system, in all its forms, we subjoin some particulars.

'1. The asylum, like every other school, is arranged into forms, composed of as many scholars as can make similar progress, unite together.

'The scholar ever finds his own place in his class, but also in the rank being promoted or degraded from according to his relative proficiency.

'So much for the general form of the school, now more particularly of the Madras system.

'2. Each class is, when prepared by themselves, paired off into two.

'Thus in a class of thirty scholars, the eighteen best and most trustworthy are paired off to the eighteen worst.

'This arrangement, by no means a link in the chain of self-tuition, is dispensed with, and when continuing in place, as in the schools of the National Society, it is of course superseded.

'3. To each class is attached a teacher, whose business is, as to the act under, with, or for the time.

'4. The teacher who, with his assistants, is in charge of the class, as well when giving their lessons, and in respect to order, behaviour, diligence, and industry.

'Both the teacher, and his assistants, are to be in lessons with their class.

'5. A sub-usher, and usher (a competent number of ushers), are necessary, to inspect the school.



and give their instruction and assistance ever wanted, as the agents and ministers of master.

The schoolmaster, whose province it is to direct and conduct the system in all its ramifications, and to see all the subordinate offices duly into effect.

Last of all comes the superintendent (who is the chaplain of the establishment, parson, minister, secretary, treasurer, trustee, or clerk), whose scrutinising eye must pervade the machine, whose active mind must give it life, and whose unbiassed judgment must inspire confidence, and maintain the general order and harmony.

That goes before comprises the system of discipline by teachers and ushers, or, as they are called, monitors.

That follows is for the purposes of precision and inspection, and as checks and instruments of discipline in the execution and superintendence of the above plan.

On the front of the teachers' and assistant-books, when taken in hand, is written with the year and day of the month; and throughout their books, the end of each lesson, when it is out, is noted by a score with a pencil. The sum of the daily lessons (so noted in the ledger book), and the other tasks of the day, and the individual proficiency of each scholar entered in a register book for the master's and the visitors' reference and inspection.

Black book, as the boys call it, or register of offences as require serious animadversion and a weekly scrutiny by

A jury of twelve boys—the peers of the school.

Under perfect instruction, and the able and efficient administration of the laws of the school, the 11th and 10th regulations become a dead letter, the general laws of inspection and emulation being found sufficient for the purpose of discipline.

This, in brief, is the scheme of the Madras system of education, framed on an extensive and in a multiplied form, fitted for a numerous school.

He can only admit his further observations on the effects of equalised classification.

Equalised classification extends perfect instruction to every member of a school.

From the law of classification, by which every scholar claims and assumes his place, not depending to his standing or length of time in school, but to his actual proficiency and acquirements.

Determined by a fair and constant comparison with his school-fellows, and is ranked, by an impartial and unerring law, with those

from whom he is on a footing of equality; it necessarily follows that no scholar either retards

others in their daily course, or is retarded himself in his station in the school, and progress in learning, always bear a just proportion to his talents and industry.

No idleness, on the one hand, is occasioned by the want of sufficient employment, from his having his lessons prepared before those with whom he is associated; on the other hand, no scholar is oppressed

by a burden of tasks, to which he is unequal,

nor his progress stayed by the length and difficulty of lessons, which he cannot overtake.

Hence it is, that, in a Madras school, a complete acquaintance with every lesson is not, as too frequently happens, confined to scholars of superior parts or industry, but is extended and insured to every scholar in every class; hence too it is, that while there is no let or hindrance to the career of memory, judgment, or genius, there is also an end to dunces in our schools. One boy outstrips another in his gymnasium—his scholastic career; but he who is left behind is master of the inferior ground which he occupies, as well as the other is of the superior station which he has attained. *Falsa enim est querela, paucissimis hominibus vim percipiendi quum tradantur, esse concessam; plerosque vero laborem ac tempora tarditate ingenii perdere, &c.*

It is an unfounded complaint, that very few learners are naturally endowed with the faculty of understanding the lessons which are prescribed to them, and that most do in reality lose their labor and time from defect of genius. Quite otherwise is the fact: for you will find the generality of men quick in conception, and prompt to learn. This is the characteristic of man. As birds are destined by nature to fly, horses to run, and wild beasts to be ferocious: so to us is peculiar the (agitation) working and sagacity of the mind. Hence it is believed, that the human soul is of celestial origin. The dull and the indocile are no more conformable to the nature of man, than bodies which are accounted prodigies and monsters. But these are very rare. Of this fact the good promise, which the generality of children display, is a sufficient proof. And, when it dies away and disappears with age, it is manifest that the fault does not originate in any real deficiency of nature, but arises from want of due culture. It cannot indeed be denied that one excels another in genius, and that some make greater, some less, proficiency. But none can be found who have derived no benefit from study.

How happily has the Madras system of education illustrated this position, to a degree beyond the conception of the greatest minds of former times! And what an acquisition is it, to the science of instruction, that every scholar who enters a school shall derive continual and progressive improvement during the period of his stay, having his understanding cultivated, and his memory exercised and improved in exact proportion to the strength of the faculties which he possesses! No longer will even a single learner quit a school thus conducted, without having all along been duly occupied in the improvement of his talents, and in the increase of his attainments. None will now by reason of the difficult and disproportioned course of their studies, and the ill assortment of the classes, and by imperfect instruction in the beginning, pass through the forms of their school, as those who wander through a dark and dreary wilderness, toiling and fatiguing themselves to find an exit, without a ray of light, of comfort, or of profit, to their benighted minds—a state in which many were wont to remain till they left school. To others, and those I fear few in number, the time



comes when, after a tedious, irksome, and unprofitable process, age ripens their faculties, and they begin to understand and to relish their daily exercises, and to derive from them profit and pleasure—that profit and pleasure, which, by a sad perversion of instruction, are commonly denied them at the early periods of their studies.

‘2. But the new classification not only extends the benefit of perfect instruction to every member of a school alike; but also, by the love of imitation which it indulges, and feeds, and by the emulation which it creates, calls forth the exertion, and accelerates the progress, of each and every scholar.

‘As those children, whose talents or rather acquirements are nearly equal, rank in the same class, a spirit of imitation and competition is kept in perpetual action. A lively degree of interest is given to all their occupations, their attention is kept constantly awake, and the several powers of their minds are called forth into constant exercise, by the incessant application of two of the most powerful principles of our nature—the desire of eminence and distinction, and the dread of shame and degradation.’

Dr. Bell’s proposals for adapting Lilye’s

grammar to his new system, and his of instruction with respect to the Latin language, occupy the latter part and we can only refer our readers to further information on this point. he says, ‘What I seek, as the gratification of my labors, and completion is to put into the hands of our able masters, that new organ of thought which is fitted, in a wonderful degree to their ease, comfort, and utility, the satisfaction, delight, and improvement of scholars: and by which alone their institutions in future, what they were for the past—faithful and true nurseries to the good of the nation, to the chivalry, and to the glory of God. I have been done towards these ends by the method of cultivating their rich soil, and the crops may not comparatively from the vast improvements in the human mind, to which the new system has given rise?’

We may add that a Latin, as Grammar, has been published and commends, by the Charter House

**EDUCE**, *v. a.* Lat. *educō*. To bring out; extract.

That the world was *educated* out of the power of space, give that as a reason of its original: in this language, to grow rich, were to *educē* money out of the power of the pocket.

*Glanville.*

This matter must have lain eternally confined to its beds of earth, were there not this agent to *educē* it thence.

*Woodward.*

The eternal art *educēs* good from ill, Grafts on this passion our best principle. *Pope.*

Just so the Omnipotent, who turns

The system of a world’s concerns,

From mere minutiae can *educē*

Events of most important use;

And bid a dawning sky display

The blaze of a meridian day. *Comper.*

The *education* of electricity from the earth is shown by an insulated cushion soon ceasing to supply either the vitreous or resinous ether to the whirling globe of glass or of sulphur.

*Darwin.*

**EDULCORATE**, *v. a.* } Fr. *edulcor*; Lat. **EDULCORATION**, *n. s.* } *dulcoro*, à *dulcis*, sweet. To sweeten; the act of sweetening, or purifying.

(Swine’s dung) though not so proper for a garden, is said yet to *edulcorate* and sweeten fruit so sensibly, as to convert the bitterest almond into sweet.

*Evelyn.*

**EDULCORATION**, in chemistry, properly signifies the rendering substances more mild. It consists almost always in taking away acids and other saline substances; and this is effected by washing the bodies to which they adhere in a large quantity of water. The washing of diaphoretic antimony, powder of algaroth, &c., till the water comes off quite pure and insipid, are instances of chemical *edulcoration*.

**EDULCORATION**, in pharmacy, is merely the sweetening of juleps, potions, and other medicines, by adding sugar or syrup.

**EDWARD FORT**, a fort in Nov town of Windsor in Hans count large enough to contain 100 men on Avon River, which is navigable vessels of 400 tons: those of six two miles higher.

**EDWARDS** (George), F.R.A. at Stratford, in Essex, April 3d, leaving school he was put apprentice man in Fenchurch-street; but relation of his master’s, having left which were removed to an apartment by Edwards, he eagerly employed hours in perusing them, which enhanced him of all inclinations for business solved to travel. In 1716 he visited principal towns in Holland, and in returned to England. Two years a voyage to Norway, at the invitation of a gentleman, who was nephew to the ship in which he embarked.

Charles XII. was besieging Frederic consequence of which our young confined by the Danish guard, to him to be a spy employed by the Swedish, upon obtaining testimonials of cence, a release was granted. In returned to England, and next year by the way of Dieppe. During his he made two journeys of 100 miles first to Chalons, in Champagne, in the second on foot, to Orleans and edict happening at that time to be curing vagrants, to transport them as the banks of the Mississippi river, our author narrowly escaped voyage. On his arrival in England wards closely pursued his favorite history, applying himself to coloring such animals as fell into

attention to natural, more than picturesque, claimed his earliest care: birds first en- his attention; and, having purchased some best pictures of these subjects, he was in- to make a few drawings of his own; which admired by the curious, who encouraged young naturalist to proceed, by paying a price for his labors. Among his first patrons benefactors may be mentioned James Theo- Esq., of Lambeth. Our artist, thus unex- ally encouraged, increased in skill and ity; and procured, by his application to vorite pursuit, both a decent subsistence large acquaintance. In 1731 he made an tion to Holland and Brabant, where he col- several scarce books and prints, and saw iginal pictures of several great masters. eember 1733, by the recommendation of eat Sir Hans Sloane, Bart., president of the ge of Physicians, he was chosen librarian, ad apartments in the college. By degrees ame one of the most eminent ornithologists or any other country. His merit is so well a in this respect, as to render any eulogium s performances unnecessary. He never d to others what he could perform himself; ten found it so difficult to give satisfaction own mind, that he frequently made three r drawings to delineate the object in its lively character and attitude. In 1743 the plume of his *History of Birds* was published . His subscribers exceeding even his most ine expectations, a second volume appeared 17. The third was published in 1750; and urther in 1751. This volume being the last tended to publish, he seems to have con- d it as the most perfect of his productions tural history, and wrote a curious dedica- it to the great God of nature. Our author, 18, continued his labors under a new title, leanings of Natural History. A second e of the *Gleanings* was published in 1760. ird part, which made the seventh and last e of his works, appeared in 1764. The of his works contain engravings and de- ons of more than 600 subjects in natural , not before described or delineated. He e added a general index in French and h; which was afterwards perfected, with unmean names, by Linnaeus himself, who ed him with his friendship and corres- nce. On St. Andrew's day, 1750, Mr. rds was presented, by the president and il of the Royal Society, with the gold Cop- edal. He was a few years afterwards d F.R.S. and F.A.S., London; and a er of various academies of sciences and ag in different parts of Europe. His col- of drawings, which amounted to up- of 900, was purchased by the earl of . After the publication of his last work, arrived at his seventieth year, he retired ublic employment to a house which he had sed at Plaistow; where he was afflicted cancer in the eyes, and the stone, a com- to which, at different periods of his life, d been subject. Yet, in the severest ms of misery, he was scarcely known to

utter a complaint. Having completed his eightieth year, emaciated with age and sickness, he died July 23d, 1773, lamented by a numerous ac- quaintance.

EDWARDS (Richard), a minor English poet and dramatist of considerable powers, was born in Somersetshire in 1523, and educated at Corpus Christi College, Oxford. He afterwards became a student, and graduated at Christ Church. At the beginning of the reign of queen Elizabeth, he was one of the gentlemen of the royal chapel, and teacher of the children. Much esteemed as a poet and musician by his contemporaries, his death, in 1566, was greatly lamented. He wrote *Damon and Pythias*, a comedy, acted at court and printed in 1570; *Palemon and Arcite*, a comedy acted before queen Elizabeth at Christ Church; *Sonnets to the beauties of the courts of Mary and Elizabeth in MS.*, in the British Museum, and several poems, included in his *Paradise of Dainty Devices*.

EDWARDS (John), an English divine, and con- troversial writer, born at Hertford in 1637. His father, Thomas Edwards, was a furious presby- terian, and wrote with equal zeal against the episcopalians and independents; but, when the latter party prevailed, he withdrew to Holland, where he died in 1646. A work of his, entitled *Gangrena*, exhibits a curious picture of the re- ligious divisions of that period. John received his education first at Merchant Taylor's school, London, and afterwards St. John's College, Cam- bridge, where he was chosen fellow. He married in 1676, and was soon after presented to the living of St. Peter's, Colchester. Here he con- tinued only about three years, when he removed to Cambridge, took his degree of D.D., and from this time employed himself chiefly in writing. He published a vast number of books, not a few of them practical, but the greater part on con- troversial subjects. His opinions were Calvinistic. He died in 1716. The most esteemed of his works is his *Preacher*, in 3 vols.

EDWARDS (Jonathan), an American divine, was born at Windsor, in Connecticut, in 1703, and educated at Yale College, where he took his degrees in arts. In 1722 he became preacher to a presbyterian congregation at New York; and, in 1724, was chosen tutor of Yale College; which station he resigned in 1726, and removed to Northampton to assist his grandfather, who was minister there. He remained at Northampton till 1750, when he was dismissed from his situa- tion for refusing to administer the sacrament to those who could not give proofs of their conver- sion. In 1751 he went as a missionary among the Indians, and, in 1757, was elected president of the college of New Jersey, which station he did not long enjoy; for next year, 1758, he was attacked by the small pox, which proved fatal. Mr. Edwards's works demonstrate him to have been an acute metaphysician, and strict Calvinist. He wrote, 1. *A Treatise concerning Religious Affections*; 2. *The Life of David Brainerd, a Missionary*; 3. *Narrative of the Work of God in the Conversion of many Hundred Souls in Northampton*; 4. *An Enquiry into the Modern prevailing Notion of that Freedom of Will,* which



is supposed to be essential to Moral Agency;  
5. The great Doctrine of Original Sin defended;  
6. Sermons, &c. &c.

EDWARDS (Edward), a London artist, of great ingenuity, was born in 1738, and brought up to his father's business of a chair-maker and carver. This he soon quitted for drawing, in which he acquired skill enough to become a teacher, and by that means supported his mother when a widow, and a brother and sister. The society of arts encouraged his efforts by two premiums, for historical pictures, and in 1773 he became an associate of the Royal Academy. He now visited Italy, and on his return was employed by Mr. Horace Walpole, Mr. Hamilton of Bath, and several other gentlemen. In 1788 he became teacher of perspective in the Royal Academy, and in the course of his duties composed his *Treatise on Perspective*, 4to. He died in 1806: after his death were printed his *Anecdotes of Painters*, 4to., with his life prefixed.

EDWARDS (Bryan), a literary gentleman principally known for his *History of the West Indies*, was born in 1743, at Westbury in Wiltshire. Educated at a private dissenting seminary at Bristol, he acquired on the death of his father the protection of an uncle, of considerable property in Jamaica, and was placed by him under the tuition of a clergyman resident there. Together with the large fortune of his uncle, he inherited that of a Mr. Hume of Jamaica, and, becoming a considerable merchant, returned to England, and took his seat in 1796 for the borough of Grampound, which he represented until his death in July 1800. He published *Thoughts on the Trade of the West India Islands with the United States*, 8vo. 2. *A Speech on the Slave Trade*. 3. *History of the British Colonies in the West Indies*, 2 vols. 4to. and 3 vols. 8vo. 4. *The Proceedings of the governor and assembly of Jamaica in regard to the Maroon negroes*, 8vo.

EDWARDS (George), a physician and political writer of respectable literary attainments, left the following productions. *The Aggrandisement and National Perfection of Great Britain*, 2 vols. 4to., 1787; *Royal and Constitutional Regeneration of Great Britain*, 2 vols. 4to.; *Practical Means of exonerating the public Burthens, and of raising the Supplies of War without new Taxes*, 4to., both in 1790; *Great and important Discovery of the Eighteenth Century*, &c., 8vo.; *First Volume of the Franklinian Improvement of Medicine*, 4to., both in 1791; *Effectual Means of providing against the Distress apprehended from Scarcity*, &c., 8vo. 1800; *Practical Means of counteracting the present Scarcity*, &c., 8vo.; *Political Interests of Great Britain*, 8vo., both 1801; *Peace on Earth, Good will towards Men*, &c., 1805, 8vo.; *Measures as well as Men*, &c. 8vo., 1806; *A plain Speech to the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain*, 8vo.; *Means adequate to the present Crisis*, 8vo.; *Discovery of the natural Æra of Mankind*, all in 1807; and *The National Improvement of the British Empire*, &c., 1808. Dr. Edwards died at his house in Suffolk Street, February 17th, 1823, in the seventy-second year of his age.

EDWARDS (Thomas), an English divine, born

at Coventry in 1729, and educated at Cambridge, of which he printed a translation of the year following was at grammar-school at Coventry sent to the rectory of that city. In 1759 he published *The Doctrine of Irresistible Grace*, no Foundation in the New Testament. He became the defendant of both the Hebrew Metre again took the degree of D.D. in years after obtained the living of Warwickshire, where he died. The works above noticed, he wrote from Theocritus, with notes.

EDWARDS (Thomas), a barrister, born in London in 1709. He became a member of Lincoln's Inn, yet he scarcely attended Warburton's edition of 1744, after which he published a humorous work, entitled *Conversations with a Glossary*, which was in several editions. He added to this an account of the trial of a man who died in 1757. A tract of his, on the subject of the trial, was published some time after.

EDWARDS (William), a son of Glamorganshire, South Wales, deserves to be recorded on account of common displays of genius at that corner of the country. He was of the rank of an ordinary mason, but acquired remarkable skill in the building of bridges. That particularly, which is the segmental arch of which is 147 feet across the water, is a monument of his skill. Edwards likewise exercised the office of a methodist preacher. He died in the seventy-one.

EDWIN'S HALL, an ancient building on Cockburn Law in the county of Durham, named from Edwin, king of Northumbria, but said to have been originally Picts. It consists of three concentric circles. The diameter of the innermost wall seven feet thick; the innermost and second wall, and the third, between the second and the third, are very large, and other, having never been cemented.

EDWY, the son of Edmund, succeeded his uncle, King Canute. The tragical history of this unassuming monarch and his virtuous queen Elgiva, shows what sort of monsters may arise in the ages of superstition.

EDYSTONE LIGHT-HOUSE.

ECKHOUT (Gerbrant Van), a portrait painter, was born at Amsterdam, and was a disciple of Rembrandt of designing, coloring, and painting so nearly, that it is difficult to distinguish between several of his paintings.



such and his coloring are the same  
's; but he rather excelled him in  
of his figures. His principal  
was in portraits; but his chief de-  
voting historical subjects, which  
with equal success. His composi-  
full of judgment; the distribution  
of light and shadow, is truly excel-  
the opinion of many connoisseurs,  
transparence in his coloring, and  
tion, than his master. He died in

Better written *EEL*, which see.  
Sax. and Swed. *æl*; Dan. *Belg.*  
Germ. *aal*; Gr. *εὐέλαιος*, *ablauc*,  
A slimy, serpentine kind of fish,  
y waters.

the adder better than the eel,  
is painted skin contents the eye.

*Shakespeare.*

thyology. See *MURÆNA*.  
ing. See *ANGLING*.

OSCOPIC. See *ANIMALCULE*. The  
els in vinegar are similar to those

The taste of vinegar was formerly  
occasioned by the biting of these  
but that opinion has been long ago  
lentzelius says, he has observed  
asformation of these little creatures  
as this has never been observed  
person, nor is there an instance of  
ormation in any other animalcule,  
bable that Mentzelius has been  
a observations.

, a forked instrument, with three or  
eth, used for catching of eels; that  
teeth is best, which they strike into  
he bottom of the river, and if it  
any eels it never fails to bring

Contracted from even. See

tyr, if you have a trick of blowing hot  
f the same mouth, I have *æ'en* done  
*L'Étrange*.

island near the south coast of  
Eastern Seas, having a bay on its  
which forms a harbour. It is  
ex in length, and birds of paradise  
they are caught with bird-lime,  
they appear in Europe. Captain  
two small villages here. Long.  
2° 12' S.

Commonly written *eft*. A small  
*EFF*.

, *adj.* Lat. *effabilis*. Expressible;

dated thereunto his universal language  
racter *effable*. *Wallis*.

v. a. Fr. *effacer*, Lat. *ex* and *facio*,  
or mar the appearance; blot out;  
roy, generally; to wear away.

ission shall your realm disgrace,  
time our gratitude *efface*.

*Dryden's Æneid*.

n dust, the first breath of wind *effaces*.

*Locke*.

ed, that his name should be *effaced* out  
egisters. *Addison on Italy*.

Time, I said, may happily *efface*  
That cruel image of the king's disgrace. *Prior*;  
Otway failed to polish or refine,  
And fluent *Shakespeare* scarce *effaced* a line.

*Pope*

So coin grows smooth, in traffic current passed,  
Till *Cæsar's* image is *effaced* at last. *Cooper*

Who hath bent him o'er the dead  
Ere the first day of death is fled,  
The first dark day of nothingness,  
The last of danger and distress,  
(Before decay's *effacing* fingers  
Have swept the hues where beauty lingers).

*Byron*.

EFFECT, n. s. & v. a.

EFFECTIBLE, *adj.*

EFFECTIVE, *adj.*

EFFECTIVELY, *adv.*

EFFECTLESS, *adj.*

EFFECTOR, n. s.

EFFECTUAL, *adj.*

EFFECTUALLY, *adv.*

EFFECTUATE, v. a.

Fr. *effect*; Ital.  
*effetto*; Span. *efecto*,  
*efecto*; Port. *efeito*.  
Lat. *effectus*, e ex-  
pletive, and *facio*, to  
make. That which  
is produced by a real  
or supposed cause;  
completion; reality;

hence, in the plural, palpable and moveable prop-  
erty; hence also consequence or event accom-  
plished or proposed; success; advantage: as a  
verb to bring to pass; produce; cause; particu-  
larly as an agent. Effectible means, that may  
be accomplished; practicable: effective is, having  
the power to accomplish objects or effects: effi-  
cient is, serviceable: effectless, useless; impo-  
tent: effector, he who produces an effect, applied  
to the First Cause: effectual is, actually pro-  
ductive of effects; practically operative of them;  
to effectuate, derived to us from the Fr. *effectuer*,  
is synonymous with to effect.

They spake to her to that effect. 2 Chron.

Christ is become of no effect unto you.

*Gal. v. 4.*

The communication of thy faith may become ef-  
fectual, by the acknowledging of every good thing.

*Philom. 6.*

I have the taught division between

Frende of *effekte*, and frende of countinuaunce,

*Chaucer*.

In shew, a marvellous indifferently composed æ-  
nate ecclesiastical was to govern, but in effect none  
only man should, as the spirit and soul of the residue,  
do all in all. *Hooker*.

The reading of scripture is effectual, as well to lay  
even the first foundation, as to add degrees of farther  
perfection, in the fear of God. *Id.*

What form of prayer

Can serve my turn? Forgive me my foul murder!  
That cannot be, since I am still possesser  
Of those effects for which I did the murder,  
My crown, mine own ambition, and my queen.

*Shakespeare*

I'll chop off my hands;

In bootless prayer have they been held up,

And they have served me to effectless use. *Id.*

Reprove my allegation, if you can;

Or else conclude my words effectual. *Id.*

No man, in effect, doth accompany with others, but  
he learneth, ere he is aware, some gesture, or voice,  
or fashion. *Bacon's Natural History*.

They are not effective of any thing, nor leave no  
work behind them. *Bacon*.

Being consul, I doubt not t' effect

All that you wish.

*Ben Jonson*.

2 X 2



Though the means cannot *effect* that which we desire; yet God will have us use the likeliest means on our part to *effect* it. *Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

If either the curses of men, or the endeavours of the powers of darkness, should be *effectual*, all would be hell. *Id.*

Anger is the most impotent passion that accompanies the mind of man; it *effects* nothing it goes about. *Clarendon.*

He should depart only with a title, the *effect* whereof he should not be possessed of, before he deserved it. *Id.*

That a pot full of ashes will still contain as much water as it would without them, is not *effectible* upon the strictest experiment. *Broune's Vulgar Errors.*

Nor do they speak properly who say that time consumeth all things; for time is not *effective*, nor are bodies destroyed by it. *Id.*

If a mischief become public and great, acted by princes, and *effected* by armies, and robberies be done by whole fleets, it is virtue, and it is glory. *Bp. Taylor.*

Whosoever is an *effective* real cause of doing his neighbour wrong is criminal, by what instrument soever he does it. *Taylor.*

If any mystery, rite, or sacrament, be *effective* of any spiritual blessings, then this much more, as having the prerogative and principality above every thing else. *Id.*

This *effectively* resists the devil, and suffers us to receive no hurt from him.

*Taylor's Rule of Holy Living.*

Recovering shankers, crystallines,  
And nodes and blotches in their rinds,  
Have no *effect* to operate  
Upon that duller block your pate? *Hudibras.*

State and wealth, the business and the crowd,  
Seem at this distance but a darker cloud;  
And is to him, who rightly things esteems,  
No other in *effect* than what it seems. *Denham.*

The change made of that syrup into a purple color, was *effected* by the vinegar. *Boyle on Colours.*

We commemorate the creation, and pay worship to that infinite Being who was the *effector* of it. *Derham.*

The students of nature, conscious of her more cryptick ways of working, resolve many strange *effects* into the near efficiency of second causes. *Glanville. Apology.*

The institution has hitherto proved without *effect*, and has neither extinguished crimes, nor lessened the number of criminals. *Temple.*

You may see by her example, in herself wise, and of others beloved, that neither folly is the cause of vehement love, nor reproach the *effect*. *Sidney.*

He found means to acquaint himself with a nobleman, to whom discovering what he was, he found him a fit instrument to *effectuate* his desire. *Id.*

*Effect* is the substance produced, or simple idea introduced into any subject, by the exerting of power. *Locke.*

These men's opinions are not the product of judgment, or the consequence of reason; but the *effects* of chance and hazard, of a mind floating at all adventures, without choice, and without direction. *Id.*

Sometimes the sight of the altar, and decent preparations for devotion, may compose and recover the wandering mind more *effectually* than a sermon. *South.*

I took pleasure to trace out the cause of *effects*, and the dependence of one thing upon another in the visible creation. *Burnet's Theory.*

Semblant art shall carve the face  
And full achievement of thy god

To say of a celebrated piece that  
it, is, in *effect*, to say that the author

We see the pernicious *effects*  
ancient Romans, who immediately  
poor as soon as this vice got footing

The emperor knew that they could  
many of their *effects*.

A subject of that vast latitude, if  
one man will scarcely be sufficient  
it on.

A fatal instance of this in our firm  
upon sacred record; the unhappy  
but too visible in all.

The morality of an action depends  
from which we act. If I sling half  
gar with intention to break his head  
up and buys victuals with it, the  
good; but, with respect to me, the  
wrong.

This idea he immediately carried  
ing a bar of iron of the depth he  
side of the keel, moving upon hinges  
being moved in one direction, but  
went back in the opposite direction.

A true artist should put a generous  
spectators, and *effect* the noblest  
methods.

EFFEMINATE, *adj.*, v. a., v.

EFFEMINACY, *n. s.* [*& n.*

EFFEMINATELY, *adv.*

EFFEMINATENESS, *n. s.*

EFFEMINATION.

*minedo*; Lat. *effeminatus*, *effemin*  
and *femina*, a woman. Womanish  
der; nice; voluptuous. The verb  
been derived, in our language, from  
tive.

Know ye not that the unrighteous  
the kingdom of God? Be not decei  
nicators, nor *effeminate*. *Bible.*

The king, by his voluptuous life  
riage, became *effeminate*, and less a

After the slaughter of so many  
Shall we at last conclude *effemin*

As well we know your tenderness  
And gentle, kind, *effeminate* re  
Vices the hare figured; not  
usury, from its fecundity and rupe  
nerate *effemination*. *Broune.*

From man's *effeminate* slackness  
Who should better hold his place

But foul *effeminacy* held me;  
Her bond slave: O indignity,  
To honour and religion!

What boots it at one gate to  
And at another to let in the foe  
*Effeminately* vanquished?

So long as idleness is quite shut  
all the sins of wantonness, softness  
prevented.

The more *effeminate* and soft  
The more his fame to struggle

Poetry—not being an art of  
nateness, but of actable stirring c



ens and *effeminate* their minds to suffer complain; and if they endure sometimes pain from others, without being permitted strange or intolerable, it will do them no harm sufferance, and harden them early.

Locke.

thful peace both courage will *effeminate* and corrupt.

Pope.

And I can feel

folies too; and with a just disdain  
at *effeminate*s, whose very looks  
dishonour on the land I love. Cowper.

that *effeminacy*, folly, lust,  
rate and enfeeble, and needs must;  
that a nation shamefully debased  
be despised and trampled on at last,  
a sweet Penitence her powers renew,  
th, if history itself be true. Id.

vu a handsome suit of clothes:  
an's, true: but then there is a cause  
should wear the'—What though my soul  
thes

*Feminate*?"—Thus, after a short pause,  
an, muttering also some slight oaths,  
the devil shall I do with all this gause?"

Byron.

NDI, in the Turkish language, signifies  
and accordingly it is a title very exten-  
plied; as to the mufti and emirs, to  
of mosques, to men of learning, and  
r. The grand chancellor of the empire  
eis *effendi*.

RVESCE, *v. n.* } Lat. *effervesco*;  
VESCE, *n. s.* } *efferveo*, *e* and *fer-*  
VESCENT, *adj.* } *veo*, to burn. To  
emical ebullition: to generate heat by  
motion.

halk, ignite it in a crucible, and then  
put it into strong spirit of nitre, 'till it  
sweetish, and makes no *effervescence* upon  
on of the chalk. Grew.

ound spirit of nitre, put to oil of cloves,  
ice even to a flame. Mead on Poisons.

ngs do not owe their heat to any collecta-  
erescence of the minerals in them, but to  
an heat or fire.

Woodward's Natural History.

hemical sense, *effervescence* signifies an in-  
tion, produced by mixing two bodies together  
at rest before; attended sometimes with a  
ise, frothing and ebullition.

Arbuthnot on Aliments.

ve an agreeable imitation of acidulous  
nder the term of: what is called the *effe-*  
ught. This consists of two solutions,  
alkaline carbonate, and the other of the  
me other vegetable acid, which are directed  
together, and swallowed during the act  
ence. Dr. A. Rees.

VESCENTS are commonly attended with  
vapors, small jets of the liquid, &c.,  
d by the air which then disengages  
ometimes, also, they are accompanied  
eat degree of heat, the cause of which  
well known. Formerly the word *fer-*  
was also applied to effervescences;  
that word is confined to the motion na-  
cited in animal and vegetable matters,  
which new combinations among their  
s take place.

EFFETE', *adj.* Lat. *effatus*, (*e* privative, young).  
Barren; and *facto*, to bear young; disabled from  
producing young; worn out.

All that can be allowed him now, is to refresh his  
decrepit, *effete* sensuality, with the history of his for-  
mer life. South.

In most countries the earth would be so parched and  
*effete* by the drought, that it would afford but one  
harvest. Bentley.

EFFICACIOUS, *adj.* } Old Fr. *efficace*,  
EFFICACIOUSLY, *adv.* } power; Lat. *efficax*,  
EFFICACY, *n. s.* } *efficacis*, from *efficio*,  
to EFFECT, which see. Powerful; productive of  
intended objects or consequences.

Whatsoever is spoken concerning the *efficacy* or  
necessity of God's word, they tie and restrain only  
into sermons. Hooker.

Whether if they had tasted the tree of life before  
that of good and evil, they had suffered the curse of  
mortality; or whether the *efficacy* of the one had not  
overpowered the penalty of the other, we leave it unto  
God. Broune.

*Efficacy* is a power of speech which represents a  
thing, by presenting to our minds the lively ideas or  
forms. Peacham.

If we find that any other body strikes *efficiously*  
enough upon it, we cannot doubt but it will move that  
way in which the striking body impels it.

Digby on Bodies.

The apostle tells us of the success and *efficacy* of  
the gospel upon the minds of men; and, for this  
reason, he calls it the power of God unto salvation.

Tillotson.

A glowing drop with hollowed steel  
He takes, and, by one *efficious* breath,  
Dilates to cube or square. Philips.

The arguments drawn from the goodness of God,  
have a prevailing *efficacy* to induce men to repent.

Rogers.

Bad as the world is, there is reason to think it  
would be a thousand times worse, if it were not for  
this institution; the wisdom and humanity of which  
can never be sufficiently admired; and which, if it  
were as strictly observed as it is positively commanded,  
would operate with singular *efficacy* in advancing  
public prosperity, as well as private virtue.

Beattie.

EFFICIENCE, *n. s.* } Lat. *efficio*. See  
EFFICIENCY, } EFFICACIOUS. Act or  
EFFICIENT, *adj.* & *n. s.* } power of producing  
EFFICIENTLY, *adv.* } effects or consequen-  
ces; agency: as a substantive, efficient is syn-  
onymous with causer, or with effector.

The manner of this divine *efficiency* being far above  
us, we are no more able to conceive by our reason,  
than creatures unreasonable by their sense are able  
to apprehend after what manner we dispose and order  
the course of our affairs. Hooker.

God, which moveth meer natural agents as *an*  
*efficient* only, doth otherwise move intellectual crea-  
tures, and especially his holy angels. Id.

Observations of the order of nature carry the mind  
up to the admiration of the great *efficient* of the world.

Hale.

That they are carried by the manuduction of a rule,  
is evident; but what that regulating *efficiency* should  
be, is not easily determined. Glanville.

A pious will is the means to enlighten the under-  
standing in the truth of Christianity, upon the ac-  
count of a natural *efficiency*: a will so disposed, will  
engage the mind in a severe search. South.



Logical or consequential necessity is when a thing does not *efficiently* cause an event but yet by certain infallible consequences does infer it. *South.*

Gravity does not proceed from the *efficiency* of any contingent and unstable agents; being entirely owing to the direct concurrence of the power of the Author of nature. *Woodward.*

Your answering in the final cause, makes me believe you are at a loss for the *efficient*.

*Collier on Thought.*

I look upon indolence as a sort of suicide; for the man is *efficiently* destroyed, though the appetite of the brute may survive. *Chesterfield.*

EFFIGIATE, *v. a.* } Lat. *effigio*, (*e*, and *fin-*  
EFFIGIATION, *n. s.* } *go*, to fashion). To form  
EFFIGIES, *n. s.* } into resemblance; to  
EFFIGY. } image: effigies or effigy  
is resemblance, generally of a rough, uncouth, or of the French caricature kind: but our older writers use these words more seriously, and for 'actual image,' or idea.

We behold the species of eloquence in our minds, the *effigies* or actual image of which we seek in the organs of our hearing.

*Dryden's Dufremoy, Preface.*

Observe those numerous wrongs in *effigy*.

The gods have saved from the devouring sea.

*Garth.*

EFFIGY is also used for the print or impression of a coin, representing the prince's head who struck it.

EFFIGY, TO EXECUTE OR DEGRADE IN, denotes the execution or degradation of a condemned criminal, who cannot be apprehended. In France, before the revolution, they used to hang a picture on a gibbet, wherein was represented the criminal, with the manner of punishment; at the bottom was written the sentence of condemnation. Those who were sentenced to death were executed in effigy.

EFFINGHAM, a county of the United States, in the lower district of Georgia, bounded by the Savannah River on the north-east, which separates it from South Carolina, and by the Ogeechee River on the south-west, which divides it from Liberty county. Chief towns, Ebenezer and Elberton.

EFFINGHAM, a township of New Hampshire, in Stafford county, seated on the Ossipee, south-east of Ossipee Pond.

EFFLORESCENCE, *n. s.* } Lat. *effloresca*,  
EFFLORESCENCY, } *e* expletive, and  
EFFLORESCENT, *adj.* } *floreo*, to flower;  
from *flos*, *floris*, a flower. The production of flowers; hence any excrescence of the shape or appearance of flowers.

Where there is less heat, there the spirit of the plant is digested, and severed from the grosser juice in *efflorescence*. *Bacon.*

Excrescencies in the form of flowers.

Two white sparry incrustations, with *efflorescencies* in form of shrubs, formed by the trickling of water. *Woodward.*

Yellow *efflorescent* sparry incrustations on stone. *Id.*

It has lately been found in large quantities in a natural bason of calcareous earth at Molfetta in Italy, both in thin strata between the calcareous beds, and in *efflorescences* of various beautiful leafy and hairy forms. *Darwin.*

A wart be an *efflorescence*.

EFFLORESCENCE formation of surface of earth occasioned by the efflorescence of pyrites is of crystals of the latter kind also a species which is not vegetations tartar, acidulous acids, served to show the common have the product an efflorescence mixed with lime. What of, there is efflorescence. The sea-salt shows though the form of Glauber's efflorescence nor will the efflorescence be sea-salt. It commonly is salt. In so sile alkali. not known. there seems spot of a product which we observe very evident salt; and, efflorescence, is the prolific least impair EFFLOR TIVE TEMPER the precise every plant

EFFLU

EFFLUX,

EFFLUX

A flowing Or, as Dr. is more properly efflu

There are when men body.

The first of the faith, was sessions.

By efflu earth.

These scum upon the coll inflammable collided.

Bright



Five thousand and some odd centuries of years  
 were effluated since the creation.

Boyle's *Seraphick Love*.

Through the copious *efflux* of matter, through the  
 effluence of a deep ulcer, he was reduced to a skeleton.

Harvey.

From the bright *effluence* of his deed  
 They borrow that reflected light,  
 With which the lasting lamp they feed,  
 Whose beams dispel the damps of envious night.

Prior.

Prime chearer, light!

Of all material beings, first and best!

*Efflux* divine!

Thomson's *Summer*.

EFFLUVIUM, *n. s. sing.* } Lat. *effluo*. See  
 EFFLUVIA, *n. s. plur.* } EFFLUENCE.

Small particles that exude, i. e. flow as it were,  
 on bodies, commonly applied in modern times  
 to the smell or scent they yield.

If the earth were an electric body, and the air but  
 an *effluvia* thereof, we might believe that, from at-  
 traction, and by effluxion, bodies tended to the earth.

Broune.

Neither the earth's diurnal revolution upon its axis,  
 nor any magnetick *effluvia* of the earth, nor the air,  
 nor the atmosphere which environs the earth, can produce  
 any *effluvia*.

Woodward.

If these *effluvia*, which do upward tend,

Because less heavy than the air, ascend;

Why do they ever from their height retreat,

And why return to seek their central seat?

Blackmore.

EFFORCE, *v. a.* Fr. *efforcer*. To force;  
 to break through by violence; strain; violate.

All that room was nothing to be seen,

But huge great iron chests and coffers strong;

Barred with double bonds, that ne'er could ween,

Them to *efforce* by violence or wrong.

Faerie *Queene*.

Then 'gan her beauty shine as brightest sky,  
 And burnt his beastly heart t' *efforce* her chastitie.

Spenser.

The palmer lent his ear into the noise,

To wheet who called so importunately;

Again he heard a more *efforced* voice,

That bade him come in haste.

Id.

EFFORM, *v. a.* } Latin, *efformo*. To  
 EFFORMATION, *n. s.* } make in any certain  
 manner; to shape; to fashion.

Nature begins to set upon her work of *efformation*.

More.

Merciful and gracious, thou gavest us being, raising  
 us from nothing, and *efforming* us after thy own image.

Taylor.

They pretend to solve phenomena, and to give an  
 account of the production and *efformation* of the uni-  
 verse.

Ray.

EFFORT. Fr. *effort*; most probably from  
 the Latin *fortis*, strong, bold. Struggle; earnest  
 endeavour; vehement action. It is accented by  
 good writers on either syllable.

If, after having gained victories, we had made the  
 same *efforts* as if we had lost them, France could not  
 have withstood us.

Addison. On the State of the War.

Though the same sun, with all diffusive rays,

Blush in the rose, and in the diamond blaze,

We prize the stronger *effort* of his power,

And always set the gem above the flower.

Pope.

Blackmore himself for any grand *effort*.

Id.

There is not so poor a book in the world, that would  
 not be a prodigious *effort* were it wrought out entirely  
 by a single mind, without the aid of prior investigators

Johnson.

And bathing his chill temples tried to sooth

Each pulse to animation, till beneath

Its gentle touch and trembling care, a sigh

To these kind *efforts* made a low reply.

Byron.

Good without *effort*, great without a foe.

Id.

EFFUSION, *n. s.* Lat. *effodio*. The act of  
 digging up from the ground: deterration.

He set apart annual sums for the recovery of ma-  
 nuscripts, the *effusion* of coins, and the procuring of  
 mummies.

Arbutnot.

EFFRAIABLE, *adj.* Fr. *effroyable*. Dread-  
 ful; frightful; terrible. A word not used.

Pestilential symptoms declare nothing a proportion-  
 ate efficient of their *effraivable* nature but arsenical  
 fumes.

Harvey.

EFFRONTERY. Fr. *effronterie*; Lat. *effrons*,  
 shameless; from *frons*, *frontis*, the forehead, often  
 put for impudence or assurance (from modest fe-  
 males wearing it veiled). Shamelessness; im-  
 modesty; contempt of reproach.

They could hardly contain themselves within one  
 unworthy act, who had *effrontery* enough to commit or  
 countenance it.

King Charles.

A bold man's *effrontery*, in company with women,  
 must be owing to his low opinion of them, and his  
 high one of himself.

Clarissa.

Others with ignorance and insufficiency have self-  
 admiration and *effrontery* to set up themselves.

Watts.

His pride, that scorns to obey or to submit,

With them is courage, his *effrontery* wit.

Cowper.

EFFULGE, *v. n.* } Lat. *effulgeo*, to shine  
 EFFULGENCE, *n. s.* } out, from *e*, out of, and  
 EFFULGENT, *adj.* } *fulgeo* to shine. To emit  
 light, lustre. Effulgence is the lustre, light, or  
 brightness, emitted.

On these

Impressed, the *effulgence* of his glory abides.

Milton.

Thy lustre, blest *effulgence*, can dispel

The clouds of error, and the gloom of hell.

Blackmore.

How soon the *effulgent* emanations fly

Through the blue gulf of interposing sky!

Id.

The downward sun

Looks out *effulgent*, from amid the flash

Of broken clouds.

Thomson's *Spring*

The topaz charms the sight,

Like these *effulgent* yellow streams of light.

Swage.

The west is indeed on fire with his descending glo-  
 ries. In what broad and *effulgent* day do they reveal  
 the infatuation of the duke of Bedford; sharpening  
 the axe for his own neck, and for the necks of all men  
 of rank and property in the kingdom!

Seward.

*Effulgent* maids! you round deciduous day,

Tressed with soft beams, your glittering bands array.

Darwin.

EFFUMABILITY, *n. s.* Lat. *fumus*. The  
 quality of flying away, or vaporizing in fumes.  
 A useful word, but not adopted.

They seem to define mercury by volatility, or, if I  
 may coin such a word, *effumability*.

Boyle.



EFFUSE', *v. a. & n. s.* } *Fr. effusion, Ital.*  
 EFFUSION, *n. s.* } *Span. and Portug.*  
 EFFUSIVE, *adj.* } *effusione; Lat. effu-*  
*sio, from effiando, to pour out, i. e. e, out, and*  
*fundo, to pour. To pour out; shed; spill.*  
 Shakspeare uses *effuse* for *effusion*. The act of  
 pouring out words or things; the thing poured  
 out.

When there was but as yet one only family in the  
 world, no means of instruction, human or divine,  
 could prevent *effusion* of blood. *Hooker.*

My heart hath melted at a lady's tears,  
 Being an ordinary inundation;  
 But this *effusion* of unmanly drops,  
 This shower, blown up by tempest of the soul,  
 Startles mine eyes, and makes me more amazed.

*Shakspeare.*

The air hath got into my deadly wounds,  
 And much *effuse* of blood doth make me faint. *Id.*

Stop *effusion* of our Christian blood,  
 And 'stablish quietness. *Id. Henry VI.*

Purge me with the blood of my Redeemer, and I  
 shall be clean; wash me with that precious *effusion*,  
 and I shall be whiter than snow. *King Charles.*

Such great force the gospel of Christ had upon men's  
 souls, melting them into that liberal *effusion* of all that  
 they had. *Hamm. on Fundam.*

He fell, and, deadly pale,  
 Groaned out his soul, with gushing blood *effused*.  
*Milton.*

Our blessed Lord commanded the representation of  
 his death, and sacrifice on the cross, should be made  
 by breaking bread and *effusion* of wine.

*Taylor's Worthy Communicant.*

Yet shall she be restored, since public good  
 For private interest ought not be withstood,  
 To save the *effusion* of my people's blood.

*Dryden's Homer.*

If the flood-gates of heaven were any thing distinct  
 from the forty days rain, their *effusion*, 'tis likely,  
 was at this same time when the abyas was broken  
 open. *Burnet's Theory.*

At last emerging from his nostrils wide,  
 And gushing mouth, *effused* the briny tide.

*Pope's Odyssey.*

The North-east spends its rage; the *effusive* South  
 Warms the wide air. *Thomson's Spring.*

The several irruptions of Arabs, Tartars, and Per-  
 sians, into India were, for the greater part, ferocious,  
 bloody, and wasteful in the extreme: our entrance  
 into the dominion of that country was as generally,  
 with small comparative *effusion* of blood; being intro-  
 duced by various frauds and delusions, and by taking  
 advantage of the incurable, blind, and senseless ani-  
 mosity, which the several country powers bear towards  
 each other, rather than by open force. *Burke.*

Your myriad trains o'er stagnant oceans tow,  
 Harnessed with gossamer, the loitering prow;  
 Or with fine films, suspended o'er the deep,  
 Or oil *effusive* lull the waves asleep. *Darwin.*

EFFUSION, or FUSION, in astronomy, denotes  
 that part of the sign Aquarius, represented on  
 celestial globes and planispheres, by the water  
 issuing out of the urn of the water-bearer.

EFT, *n. s.* Sax. efeta, from Goth. vate, water.  
 A water-lizard.

Peacocks are beneficial to the places where they  
 are kept, by clearing of them from snakes, adders,  
 and *efts*, upon which they will live.

*Mortimer's Husbandry.*

The crocodile of Egypt is the lizard of Italy, and  
 the *eft* in our country. *Nicholas.*

EFT, in zoology. See LACERTA.

EFT, *adv.* } Sax. eft, and ef  
 EFTSOONS'. } Sax. eftan, to ha-  
 quickly; following soon. The Go-  
 ties behind; and our naval word a-  
 after, afterwards, &c., are of the  
 See AFT.

But sithen thynges passed cannot be  
 mache oughte wee the more beware, by  
 we haue taken soo greate hurt afore, tha  
 fall not in that occasion agayne.

Eft through the thick they heard on  
 With noise whereof he from his lofty st  
 Down fell to ground, and crept into  
 To hide his coward head from dying de

*Eftsoones* he gan apply reli

Of salves and medicines.

He in their stead *eftsoones* placed Ea  
 possessed all their lands. *Spenser's Se*

The Germans deadly hated the Tu  
 was to be thought that new wars sh  
 ensue. *Knu*

Quite consumed with flame

The idol is of that eternal maid;

For so at least I have preserved th  
 With hands profane, from being eft h

*Eftsoons*, O sweetheart kind, my love  
 And all the year shall then be holiday.  
*Go*

EGALITE', *Fr. i. e.* equality; assumed by Philip Bourbon Capet, of Orleans, to ingratiate himself with  
 licans, upon the abolition of monarch  
 in August, 1792. Neither this pie  
 however, nor his voting for the deat  
 fortunate relation, Louis XVI., cou  
 from being denounced as a conspir  
 the liberty of the republic, on the  
 1793, and condemned to be guillot  
 6th November following. He w  
 accordingly at five P. M., three ho  
 condemnation.

EGBERT, the first king of all Ea  
 the last of the Saxon heptarchy. B  
 scendant of the royal family of Wes  
 prince of great accomplishments;  
 young, he was obliged to withdraw  
 where he lived at the court of Charle  
 Brithric, the then king of Wessex,  
 jealousy he had fled, became about  
 nobility, through the conduct of his q  
 bert, who, during his exile, had acq  
 the arts of war and government, wa  
 take possession of the kingdom, to wh  
 legal heir; was proclaimed king of  
 800, and in 802 he united all the othe  
 under him, giving the whole the nam  
 land. In about five years after, hi  
 were twice invaded by the Danes,  
 force, but he defeated them in both  
 tempts. He died in 838, and was su  
 Ethelwolf. See ENGLAND.

EGEDE (Hans), a Danish mission  
 went to Greenland in 1721. He  
 founder of an establishment there, ov  
 presided for fifteen years, and was th  
 a work on the topography and natu  
 Greenland, published in Danish in  
 afterwards translated into French



ied in 1758, aged seventy-one, in the isle of Arr.

EDGE (Paul), son of the preceding, was his assistant in the above mission; and published a journal of his own residence in Greenland, from 1770 to 1788. He died at the age of eighty-one, on the 3d, 1789.

ENOTISO, an island in the Eastern Indian Sea, about twenty miles in circumference, 10 miles from the north-east coast of Sumatra. 104° 45' E., lat. 0° 27' S.

EGRE, *n. s.* See EAGRE. An impetuous regular flood or tide.

On the peculiar disposition of the earth at the bottom, wherein quick excitations are made, may arise eddies and flows in some estuaries and rivers; as is observable about Trent and Humber in England.

*Brown's Vulgar Errors.*

ER, a river rising in Suabia, which passes through Würzburg, and runs into the Wernitz, six miles north of Donauwert.

ER, a large river of Franconia, which flows northward to Bohemia, and falls into the Elbe.

ER, an old fortified town of Bohemia, on the Elbe river. It contains some manufactures; and is famous for its annual fairs; and in the neighbourhood of a well-known chalybeate spring. It was occupied by the French in 1742, but retaken the following year. It suffered greatly by fire in 1744.

Population about 8000. Seventy-six miles from Prague.

ERIA, or EGERIA, a nymph held in great veneration by the Romans. She was courted by the god Pomilius; and, according to Ovid, became his wife. This prince, to give his laws the authority, solemnly declared, before the people, that they were previously sanctioned and approved by the nymph Egeria. Ovid says that Egeria was so disconsolate at the death of her husband, that she melted into tears, and was changed into a fountain by Diana. She was afterwards worshipped as a goddess who presided over the fortunes of women, whence some reckoned her the same with Lucina.

ERTON (John), an eminent prelate, born in London in 1721, was the son of Henry Eger, bishop of Hereford. He received the first part of his education at Eton, after which he went to Oriel College, Oxford. In 1745 he received the living of Ross in Herefordshire, the next year a prebend in the cathedral of Hereford. He was preferred to the deanery of Hereford in 1750, and afterwards successively to the bishoprics of Bangor, Litchfield, and Durham.

He was a liberal contributor to several important public works in his diocese, and his benefactions were extensive. He published several sermons on public occasions; and died in 1787.

ERTON (Thomas), lord chancellor of England under James I., was the natural son of Sir Thomas Egerton, in Cheshire, and was born in 1540. He was educated at Oxford, and removed to Lincoln's Inn. He received the honor of knighthood, and was made a baronet in 1592; and not long after, of a knight of the rolls, which was followed by the office of lord-keeper. In 1603 he was appointed lord-chancellor, with the title of baron Ellesmere. In 1616 he was created viscount

Brackley, but died the year following. His Privileges and Prerogatives of the High Court of Chancery, and his Observations concerning the Office of Lord Chancellor, were published after his death.

EGERTON (Francis), duke of Bridgewater, descended from the above nobleman, was born in 1736, being the fifth son of the first duke, and the third who held that title. He succeeded his elder brother in 1748. This nobleman exhibited a most enlightened and persevering spirit in his various schemes for making navigable canals for the advantage of his estates in Lancashire and Cheshire, and in his patronage of the celebrated Brindley, by whom his plans were executed. The duke had the satisfaction of witnessing the entire success of his undertakings, prior to his death, which took place in 1803.

EGEST, *v. a.*  $\gamma$  Lat. *egero*, *egestum*, from *EGESTION*, *n. s.*  $\gamma$  e, out, and *gero*, to bear: to carry forth. To evacuate food naturally.

Divers creatures sleep all the Winter; as the bear, the hedge-hog, the bat, and the bee; these all wax fat when they sleep, and *egest* not.

*Bacon's Natural History.*

The animal soul or spirits manage as well their spontaneous actions, as the natural or involuntary exertions of digestion, *egestion*, and circulation.

*Hale's Origin of Mankind.*

EGG. Isl. *eggia*, to incite; Sax. *eggian*; Dan. *egge*: according to Minsheu all derived from Lat. *ago*, to compel, do, &c.

Study becomes pleasant to him who is pursuing his genius, and whose ardour of inclination *eggs* him forward, and carrieth him through every obstacle.

*Durham's Physico-Theology.*

EGG, *n. s.* Goth. and Swed. *egg*; Sax. *æg*; Erse. *ough*; perhaps from the foregoing verb, i. e. that which is excited to life by hatching.

About her commeth all the world to begge.  
He asketh lande, and he to pas would bryng.  
This toye and that, and all not worth an *egge*:  
He would in loue prosper aboue all thyng.

*Sir T. More.*

Therefore think him as the serpent's egg,  
Which hatched, would, as his kind, grow mischievous.

*Shakespeare.*

An egg was found having lain many years at the bottom of a moat, where the earth had somewhat overgrown it; and this egg was come to the hardness of a stone, and the colors of the white and yolk perfect.

*Bacon.*

Hear this then, ye careless ostriches, that leave your eggs in the open sand for the sun to hatch, without the fear of any hoof that may crush them in pieces.

*Bp. Hall.*

There was taken a great glass-bubble with a long neck, such as chemists are wont to call a philosophical egg.

*Boyle.*

Every insect of each different kind,  
In its own egg, cheered by the solar rays,  
Organs involved and latent life displays. *Blackmore.*

As true wit generally consists in the resemblance and congruity of ideas, false wit chiefly consists in the resemblance and congruity sometimes of single letters, as in anagrams, chronograms, lipograms, and acrostics: sometimes of words, as in puns and quibbles: and sometimes of whole sentences or poems, cast into the figures of eggs, axes, or altars. *Addison.*



The Aphus is in a similar manner hatched from an egg in the vernal months, and produces a viviparous offspring without sexual intercourse for nine or ten successive generations; and then the progeny is both male and female, which cohabit, and from these new females are produced eggs, which endure the winter; the same process probably occurs in many other insects. *Darwin.*

And now the day of woe drew on apace,  
A day of woe to all the pigmy race,  
When dwarfs were doomed, but penitence was vain,  
To rue each broken egg, and chicken slain. *Beattie.*

She and her maid, had promised by day-break  
To pay him a fresh visit, with a dish  
For breakfast, of eggs, coffee, bread, and fish. *Byron.*

Egg, in physiology, a body formed in certain females, in which is contained an embryo, or fœtus of the same species, under a cortical surface or shell. The exterior part of an egg is the shell; which in a hen, for instance, is a white, thin, and friable cortex, including all the other parts. It is lined every where with a very thin, but a pretty tough membrane, which dividing at, or very near, the obtuse end of the egg, forms a small bag, where nothing but air is contained. In new-laid eggs this follicle appears very little, but becomes larger when the egg is kept. Within this are contained the albumen, or white, and the vitellus, or yolk; each of which have their different virtues. The albumen is a cold, viscous, white liquor in the egg, different in consistence in its different parts. It is observed, that there are two distinct albumens, each of which is enclosed in its proper membrane. Of these one is very thin and liquid; the other is more dense and viscous, and of a somewhat whiter color; but in old and stale eggs, after some days incubation, inclining to a yellow. As this second albumen covers the yolk on all sides, so it is itself surrounded by the other external liquid. The albumen of a fecundated egg, is as sweet and free from corruption, during all the time of incubation, as it is in new laid eggs; as is also the vitellus. As the eggs of hens consist of two liquors separated one from another, and distinguished by two branches of umbilical veins, one of which goes to the vitellus, and the other to the albumen; so it is very probable, that they are of different natures, and consequently appointed for different purposes. When the vitellus grows warm with incubation, it becomes more humid, and like melting wax or fat, whence it takes up more space. For as the fœtus increases, the albumen insensibly wastes away and condenses; the vitellus, on the contrary, seems to lose little or nothing of its bulk when the fœtus is perfected, and only appears more liquid and humid when the abdomen of the fœtus begins to be formed. The chick in the egg is first nourished by the albumen, and when this is consumed, by the vitellus, as with milk. If we compare the chalazæ to the extremities of an axis passing through the vitellus, which is of a spherical form, this sphere will be composed of two unequal portions, its axis not passing through its centre; consequently, since it is heavier than the white, its smaller portion must always be uppermost in all positions of the egg. The yellowish white round spot, called cicatri-

cula, is a portion, a superior part, exclusion into its a end of the time before the chick is hatched, shell with gradually guts by; according color, for of dressings hens' egg best. As served, it is first laid gradually and, how appear, it titude of discernment daily decrease the time is much. To preserve to preserve the method those pot watery fluids kinds of will preserve are carefully mutton fat for this purpose with any coated over that hens' the animal is nated by alive, and to be hatched. When egg found near and the chick their being ration of which Mr tried on two years and such guish from. The at ovens has in a will. About the scatter the each und These ovaries, they c they usual months: an oven, it is easy different is under the son who thirds of



der his care; and he is a gainer by, as more than two-thirds of the eggs produce chickens. This useful and ad-meth of hatching eggs was dis-

France by the ingenious M. who, by a number of experiments, art to fixed principles. He found necessary for this purpose is nearly with that marked 32° on his thermo-6° on Fahrenheit's. The degree of brings about the development of the gosling, and the Turkey pout, is the which fits for hatching the Canary d, in all probability, the smallest ed: the difference is only in the which this heat ought to be commu-be eggs of different birds. After iments, M. Reaumur found, that d by means of a baker's oven, suc-r than those made hot by layers of the furnaces of glass-houses, and melters of metals, by means of pipes at into a room, might, no doubt, be wer the same purpose. As to the stoves, no great nicety is required. re is necessary but to ascertain the at, by melting a lump of butter of walnut, with half as much tallow, it into a phial. This serves to indi-with sufficient exactness: for when heat, this mixture will become as; and when the heat is too small, it fixed in a lump: but it will flow yrup, upon inclining the bottle, if of a right temper. Great attention ould be given to keep the heat s degree, and that all the eggs in the ally share the irregularities of the sumur has invented a sort of low ut bottoms, and lined with furs. he calls artificial parents, not only ickens from the injuries of the air, kindly warmth, so that they take the air shelter as readily as they would into the wings of a hen. After will be necessary to keep the chick-time in a room artfully heated, and h these boxes; but afterwards they y exposed to the air in the court- th it may not be amiss to place one icial parents to shelter them, if there casion for it. They are generally a ter being hatched, before they take all. A few crumbs of bread may n them for a day or two, after which ck up insects and grass for them- , to save the trouble of attending s may be taught to watch them in nner as hens do.

BOUR, LITTLE, a township of New Burlington county, consisting of . The compact part of the town- d Clam Town. It has a small trade Indies.

BOUR RIVER, GREAT, a river of New ch rises between Gloucester and counties. After running E. S. E. a becomes the divisional line between

Cape May and Gloucester counties, and falls into the bay of its own name. The inlet from the Atlantic Ocean lies in 39° 22'. The river abounds with sheepshead, rock-fish, perch, oysters, clams, &c., which find a ready market at Philadelphia. This river is navigable twenty miles for vessels of 200 tons.

EGG HARBOUR RIVER, LITTLE, or Little Inlet, lies about seventeen miles north-east of Great Egg Harbour Inlet. It receives Mulicus River which rises in Gloucester and Burlington counties, and forms part of the divisional line a few miles from the bay. It is navigable twenty miles for vessels of sixty tons.

EGG ISLAND, a small island on the west coast of Virginia, at the mouth of York River. 2. A small island in the Straits of Magellan, seven miles north-east of York Minster. 3. A small island on the north-east side of Delaware Bay, Cumberland. Long. 75° 12' W., lat. 39° 16' N.

EGG-PLANT (*solanum melongena*); a herba-ceous annual, from a foot to eighteen inches high, a little branched, and more or less covered with a substance resembling cotton: the leaves are oval, sinuate, and petiolate; the flowers large, white, or purplish, lateral, and frequently solitary; but sometimes two or three are situated upon a common divided peduncle; the calyx and peduncles are furnished with a few short prickles; the fruit is very large, smooth, and shining, and generally of a violet color, but sometimes yellow or white. It is cultivated in the warm parts of both continents, and the fruit is much used as an article of food, when cooked, which is done in various ways: in India, it is generally served up with sugar and wine, or simply sugared water; in the south of France, with olive-oil. There are several varieties, one of which bears a white fruit, exactly resembling a pullet's egg, and has been sometimes confounded with another species, which is acrid and poisonous.

EGINHART, or EGINHARD, secretary to Charles the Great, and the most ancient of the German historians. It is said, that he insinuated himself into the favor of Imma, daughter of Charles the Great, and that Charles, having discovered the intrigue, married the two lovers, and gave them an estate in land.

E'GLANTINE, *n. s.* *Fr. cglantier*. A species of rose; sweet-briar.

EGLANTINE, in botany. See *Rosa*.

EGLON, a king of the Moabites, who oppressed the Israelites for eighteen years. See Judges iii. 12—14. Calmet confounds this servitude of the Hebrews with that under Chushan-rishathaim, making it to subsist only eight years from A. M. 2591 to 2599; whereas this servitude under Eglon lasted eighteen years, and commenced A. M. 2661, and sixty-two years after they had been delivered by Othniel, from their subjection to Chushan-rishathaim.

EGMONT, NEW GUERNSEY, or SANTA CRUZ ISLAND, one of Queen Charlotte's islands, in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered in 1595, by the Spanish navigator Mandana. He bestowed upon it the name of Santa Cruz, which was changed to Egmont by captain Carteret in 1767. It is high and mountainous throughout, being about



twenty-two miles in length, and eleven in breadth. The soil, from the abundance of small streams, produces several roots and fruits, but not in great profusion. Some of the natives are of a deep olive color, others black, and all of moderate size, with slender extremities. Their physiognomy is disagreeable, and tends to inspire that mistrust and dislike which their treacherous and dishonest conduct but too well justifies. They are tattooed, particularly on the back: wear white powder in their hair, and many ornaments. The men go naked, wrapping a cord several times round the belly: the women have a petticoat which descends to the knees, and cover the head, and part of the body, with a sort of shift. Their huts are large, having windows, and are generally placed under the shade of cocoa-trees along the shore. Their arms are bows, arrows, and darts. They chew betel; and have canoes with outrigger, formed of the trunk of a single tree, about fifteen feet long. Long. 165° 59' E., lat. 10° 46' S.

EGMONT ISLAND, an island in the Gulf of Mexico, on the west coast of East Florida, at the entrance of Spiritu Santo Bay. Long. 82° 55' W., lat. 27° 54' N. Also an island in the South Pacific Ocean, six miles in length, four in breadth, low, and covered with trees. Long. 138° 30' W., lat. 19° 20' N.

EGOOCHSHAC, a harbour on the North coast of the island of Unalashka, entered by captain Cook in the year 1778, who found some Russians settled here for the purpose of purchasing skins of the natives: they had store-houses, and a sloop of about thirty tons burden.

EGOTISM. Fr. *egoïsme*, from Lat. pers. pron. *ego*; Gr. *εγω*.

*Egotism* is the coquetry of a modern author; whose epistles, dedicatory prefaces, and addresses to the reader, are so many affected graces, designed to draw the attention from the subject, towards himself; and make it be generally observed not so much what he says, as what he appears, or is, and what figure he already makes, or hopes to make in the fashionable world. *Shaftesbury.*

The most violent *egotism* which I have met with, in the course of my reading, is that of Cardinal Wolsey's; *ego et rex meus*, I and my king.

*Spectator.*

A tribe of *egotists*, for whom I have always had a mortal aversion, are the authors of memoirs, who are never mentioned in any works but their own. *Id.*

EGRA, a town of Bohemia, seated on a river of the same name, formerly imperial, and possessing towns and villages. It contains a great number of able artificers, and is famous for its mineral waters. General Wallenstein was assassinated here in 1634. The French became masters of this town in 1741; but afterwards, being blocked up, they were forced to capitulate Sept. 7th, 1743. It is considered as a town of the greatest consequence in Bohemia, except Prague. It lies seventeen miles south-west of Elnbogen, and seventy-six west of Prague. Long. 12° 40' E., lat. 50° 9' N.

EGRE'GIOUS, *adj.* } Old Fr.

EGRE'GIOUSLY, *adv.* } Spanish, *agregio*; Lat. *egregius* i. e. *e grege*, *segregare* the flock. Remarkable; extraordinary; generally used in a bad sense; but (below) and other good writers form it to eminence and merit.

He might be able to adorn this present furnish history with the records of *egregious* both of art and valour. *Moore says*

We may be bold to conclude, that the for insolence, pride, and *egregious* contempt order, are the worst. *Hook*

I suffered the pangs of an *egregious* stoit in, like a strong distillation, with d

Ah me, most credulous fool!

*Egregious* murderer! *Id.*

Make the Moor thank me, love me, me,

For making him *egregiously* an ass, And practising upon his peace and quiet, Even to madness.

The folly of fools', that is, the most of folly that any man can be guilty of, it knave.

One to empire born;

*Egregious* prince; whose manly childhood His mingled parents, and portended joy Unspeakable.

And hence the *egregious* wizard shall fit The fate of Louis and the fall of Rome.

An *egregious* and pregnant instance he surpasses ingenuity.

He discovered that, besides the extra every article, he had been *egregiously* che *Arctimur's*

EGREMONT, a market town, and a borough in Cumberland, on a which falls into the Irish Sea, near the tory of St. Bees, five miles S. S. E. of haven, and 293 north from Low buildings in general are ancient, and the houses have piazzas in front. On the able eminence are the ruins of a castle the earl of Egremont holds a court. gives the title of earl to the Wynd Market on Saturday, well supplied and oats.

EGRESS, } Ital. *egresso*; L.

EGRESSION. } from *e*, out, and *gress* to walk; the act of going out; dep Gates of burning adamant, Barred over us, prohibit all *egress*.

This water would have been locked earth, and its *egress* utterly debarred, of stone and marble remained *continua*

*Woodward's N*

The vast number of troops in swarms; their tumultuous manner their ships, and the perpetual *egression* without end, are imaged in the bees.

EGRIOT, *n. s.* Fr. *aigret*, *aigre*, sour. A species of cherry.

The cœur-cherry, which inclineth sweeter than the red; but the *egriot*



## E G Y P T.

EGYPT, an extensive country of Africa, lying between  $30^{\circ}$  and  $36^{\circ}$  of E. long., and between  $24^{\circ}$  and  $31^{\circ}$  of N. lat. It is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north, by the Red Sea and gulf of Suez, which divide it from Arabia, on the east, by Abyssinia or Ethiopia on the south, by the deserts of Barca and Nubia on the west; being 600 miles in length from north to south, and from 100 to 250 in breadth from east to west. Ancient Egypt is by some divided into three parts, the Upper and Lower Egypt: by others into three, the Upper Egypt, properly so called, the Middle Egypt, or Heptanomis; the Lower Egypt, the best part of which is the Delta, or that space encompassed by the branches of the Nile. The whole area of fertile soil has been recently estimated at 10 square miles.

Egypt may with justice lay claim to as high antiquity as any nation in the world. It was probably peopled by Mizraim the son of Ham and grandson of Noah. By its ancient inhabitants it was called Chemia, and is still called *Chem* in the language of the Copts or native Egyptians. In Scripture it is generally named *Aegyptus*; though in the Psalms it is styled the land of Ham. To us it is best known by the name of Egypt, the etymology of which is more uncertain.

Some derive it from *Aegyptus*, a supposed king of the country: others say it signifies no more than land of the Copts; *Aia* in Greek signifying country, and *Αἰκοπος*, *Aicoptos*, being easily changed into *Aegyptus*. The most probable name, however, seems to be, that it received its name from the blackness of its soil and the color both of its river and inhabitants; for a blackish color is by the Greeks called *χρῆμα*, from *χρῆμα*, and *αἰγυπτος*, a vulture; and the Latins, *subvulturius*. For the same reason the names of a similar import have been given to this country by the Greeks; such as *Μελανία*, and *Μελανόβολος*: the river itself was called *Μελο*, or *Melas*; by the Hebrews *Shihor*, by the Ethiopians *Siris*; all signifying black.

The air and climate of Egypt are extremely hot, not only from the height of the sun, which in summer approaches to the zenith, but from the want of rain, and from the vicinity of those burning and sandy deserts which lie to the west. In July and August, according to M. de Reaumur's thermometer stands, even in the most temperate apartments, at  $24^{\circ}$  or  $25^{\circ}$  above the freezing point; and in the southern parts it is said to rise still higher. Hence, he observes, only two seasons should be distinguished in Egypt, the cool and the hot, or spring and summer. The latter continues for the greatest part of the year, viz. from March to November, or even longer; for by the end of February the sun is intolerable to an European at nine o'clock in the morning. During the whole of this season the air seems to be inflamed, the sky sparkles, every one sweats profusely, even without the exercise, and when covered with the lightest

dress. This heat is tempered by the inundation of the Nile, the fall of the night dews, and the subsequent evaporation; so that some of the European merchants, as well as the natives, complain of the cold in winter. The dew does not fall regularly throughout the summer, as with us; the parched state of the country not affording a sufficient quantity of vapor for this purpose. It is first observed about St. John's day (June 24th), when the river has begun to swell, and consequently a great quantity of water is raised from it by the heat of the sun, which, being soon condensed by the cold of the night air, falls down in copious dews. It might be imagined that as, for three months of the year, Egypt is in a wet and marshy situation, the excessive evaporation and putrefaction of the stagnating waters would render it very unhealthy. But this is by no means the case. The great dryness of the air makes it absorb vapors of all kinds with the utmost avidity; and these, rising to a great height, are carried off by the winds either to the south or north without communicating any of their pernicious effects. This dryness is so remarkable in the internal parts of the country, that flesh meat exposed to the open air does not putrefy even in summer, but soon becomes hard and dry like wood. In the deserts there are frequently dead carcasses thus dried in such a manner, and become so light, that one may easily lift that of a camel with one hand. In the maritime parts, however, this dryness of the air is not to be expected. They discover the same degree of moisture which usually attends such situations. At Rosetta and Alexandria iron cannot be exposed to the air twenty-four hours without rusting. According to the above writer, the air of Egypt is also strongly impregnated with salts. No experiments have ever shown, that any salt was or could be diffused in the air, except volatile alkali, and this is now known to be formed by the union of two permanently elastic fluids: and it is certain that a saline air would quickly prove fatal to the animals who breathed it. The abundance of this kind of salt in Egypt therefore only shows that, by some unknown operation, the heat of the sun forms it from the two ingredients of earth and water, though we do not yet understand the manner, nor are able to imitate this natural operation. To this saline property of the earth M. Volney ascribes the excessive quickness of vegetation in Egypt, which is so great that a species of gourd, called *kara*, will in twenty-four hours send forth shoots of four inches in length; but, in all probability for the same reason, no exotic plant will thrive in Egypt. The merchants are obliged to send annually to Malta for their garden seeds; for, though the plants thrive very well at first, yet, if the seed of them be preserved and sown, they always come up too tall and slender. In consequence of the great dryness of the air, Egypt is exempted from the phenomena of rain, hail, snow, thunder, and lightning. Earthquakes are also seldom heard of in this country; though they have sometimes been very fatal and



of the inundation, and partly from the sea. At Alexandria, after sun-set, in April, the clothes exposed to the air on the terraces are soaked with them as if it had rained. These dews are more or less copious according to the direction of the wind. They are produced in the greatest quantity by the west and north-west, which blow from the sea; but the south and south-east winds, blowing over the deserts of Africa and Arabia, produce none.

Though the climate of Egypt is far from being unhealthy, yet there are not a few diseases which seem to be peculiar to it, and to have their origin either from the constitution of the atmosphere, or the manner of living. One of these has been supposed to be the plague; which opinion was supported by Dr. Mead, who endeavoured to assign a natural reason why it should take its origin in this country. But it is now universally agreed that the plague never originates in the interior parts of Egypt, but always begins at Alexandria, passing successively thence to Rosetta, Cairo, Damietta, and the rest of the Delta. It is likewise observed, that its appearance is always preceded by the arrival of some vessel from Smyrna or Constantinople; and that, if the plague has been very violent in either of these cities, the danger to Egypt is the greater. On proper enquiry, it is found to be much more a native of Constantinople; whence it is exported by the absurd negligence of the Turks, who refuse to take any care to prevent the spreading of the infection. As they sell even the clothes of the dead without the least ceremony, and ships laden with this pernicious commodity are sent to Alexandria, it is no wonder that it should soon make its appearance there. As soon as it has reached Cairo, the European merchants shut themselves up with their families in their khans or lodgings, taking care to have no further communication with the city. Their provisions are now deposited at the gate of the khan, and are taken up by the porter with iron tongs; who plunges them into a barrel of water provided for the purpose. If they have occasion to speak

or convalescent ophthalmia. causes of this disorder, he upon terraces to be a prince wind, he says, cannot be the Bedouins would be equal the Egyptians themselves; greatest probability to be a is the very poor and little the natives are obliged to use milk, honey, confection of and raw vegetables,' says ordinary food of the people stomach a disorder which served to affect the sight: cially, which they devour have a peculiar heating quality Syria made me remark on nourished abound in corruption are constantly endeavouring to divert from the ordinary perspiration, these humors parts, and fix themselves least resistance. They then the head, because the Egyptians once a week and covering it hot head dress, principally at ration; and, if the head receives impression of cold on being spiration is suppressed, and still more readily on the eyes derest parts. It will appear that the excessive perspiration principal cause, when we re Egyptians, who went bare-headed by physicians as being with ophthalmies; though historians that some of the The Arabs of the desert head but little, especially very little subject to the blindness is often the consequence, a disorder very frequent among the Egyptians. They with inoculation, but very To the same cause, viz. u

talismans, therefore, an incredible men peris; nor is any city more population of the neighbouring Grand Cairo. The venereal disease, asons best known to themselves, the all the blessed evil, is so general t one half of the inhabitants are in extremely difficult to cure, though are comparatively very mild, ino-people who are infected with it will ve to the age of eighty; but it is ren born with the infection, and ex-ngerous to such as emigrate to a te. Besides these, there are two un-ases met with in Egypt, viz. a cuta-on which returns annually; and a he testicles, which often degenerates mous hydrocele. The former comes the end of June, or beginning of g its appearance in red spots and over the body, occasioning a very itching. The cause of this distem-ney says, is the corruption of the Nile, which, towards the end of es very putrid. After this has been me time, the waters of the inundare fresh and wholesome, tend to in-change in the blood and humors; aneous eruption is the consequence. le is most commonly attached to the opts; and is attributed to the quan-ey use, as well as to their frequent

Our author remarks, that in Syria, n Egypt, constant experience has brandy distilled from common figs, ruit of the sycamore tree, as well as es and the fruit of the nopal, has a ate effect on the testicles, which it l and painful the third, or fourth, as been drunk; and, if the use of it ntinued, the disorder degenerates med hydrocele. Brandy distilled isinus has not the same effect: this ted with aniseeds, and is very strong, ed three times. The Christians of e Copts of Egypt, make great use of especially drink whole bottles of it ers. I imagined this an exaggera- have myself had ocular proofs of ough nothing could equal my asto- it such excesses do not produce , or at least every symptom of the le drunkenness. In Spring malig- prevail in this country; concerning plney mentions no remarkable par- hat eggs are a kind of poison, and g is very prejudicial. He recom- stable diet, and the bark in very large

r, who was the chief surgeon of medical staff, divides the climate : calls quatre saisons constitution- rst of which commences about the , when the Nile begins to overflow om this moment until the autumnal inundation increases; lower Egypt sea, in which the towns and villages many islands: towards the end of he waters retire, and the general

seed-time commences. To this season he gives the name of saison humide; the west winds and fogs then prevail, and produce ophthalmia, fever, diarrhoea, and catarrh.

His second season begins with December, and continues to the 1st March. The winds blow mostly from the east; the nights are cold, but during the day the temperature is that of June in France. The various productions of the earth are vigorously on the increase; the surface is spread over with the most lively tints of verdure; the birds and other animals 'se livrent à leurs amours,' and all nature, reanimated by the moderate heat of the sun and the fecundity of the river, seems to grow young again. This period is healthy, if the night airs are avoided, and may justly be called, la saison fécondante.

The saison morbide of this writer extends from the beginning of March to the end of May. The east winds, which tempered the air during the spring, now pass to the south, which they seldom quit before the end of May or beginning of June. These are the 'winds of fifty days,' blowing over the deserts, and called by the Arabs, 'simoom,' by the Turks 'samul.'

The fourth, which M. Larrey designates under the name of saison étésienne, commences about the middle of June, or just before the solstice, and continues to the overflowing of the Nile.

The winds are then variable, but, towards the end of it, fix themselves to the north, when they become regular, rising and falling with the sun. These winds, in passing over the Mediterranean, are generally supposed to carry with them aqueous vapors to the mountains of Ethiopia or Abyssinia; where, being condensed, they are precipitated in torrents of rain, at and after the summer solstice, producing that gradual and constant periodical increase of the Nile, on which the sustenance of the whole population depends. The air is now clear and dry, and, though the heat is excessive, it is the most healthy part of the year.

According to M. Volney, who gives a very particular description of the face of the country, the entrance into Egypt at Rosetta presents a most delightful prospect, by the perpetual verdure of the palm trees on each side, the orchards watered by the river, with orange, lemon, and other fruit trees, which grow there in vast abundance; and the same beautiful appearance is continued all the way to Cairo. As we proceed farther up the river, he says, nothing can more resemble the appearance of the country than the marshes of the lower Loire, or the plains of Flanders: instead, however, of the numerous trees and country houses of the latter, we must imagine some thin woods of palms and sycamores, with a few villages of mud-walled cottages, built on artificial mounds. All this part of Egypt is very low and flat, the declivity of the river being so gentle, that its waters do not flow at a greater rate than one league in an hour. Throughout the country nothing is to be seen but palm trees, single or in clumps, which become more rare as you advance; with wretched villages composed of huts with mud walls, and a boundless plain, which at different seasons is an ocean of fresh water, a miry morass, a verdant



ance. Its name in the Arabic language is Mokattam, or the hewn mountain. The western is nothing but a ridge of rocks covered with sand, which has been very properly termed a natural mound or causeway. In short, that the reader may at once form an idea of this country, let him imagine on one side a narrow sea and rocks; on the other, immense plains of sand; and, in the middle, a river, flowing through a valley of 150 leagues in length, and from three to seven wide, which, at the distance of thirty leagues from the sea, separates into two arms; the branches of which wander over a soil almost free from obstacles, and void of declivity.

This country is still divided into two principal parts, called the Higher, or Upper, and Lower Egypt. It is subdivided into eighteen provinces.

Egypt, Higher, or Upper, says M. Savary, is only a long narrow valley beginning at Sienna and terminating at Cairo. It is bounded by two chains of mountains running from north to south and taking their rise from the last cataract of the Nile. On reaching the latitude of Cairo they separate to the right and left; the one taking the direction of mount Colzoum, the other terminating in some sand banks near Alexandria; the former being composed of high and steep rocks, the latter of sandy hillocks over a bed of calcareous stone. Beyond these mountains are deserts bounded by the Red Sea on the east, and on the west by other parts of Africa; having in the middle that long plain, which, even where widest, is not more than nine leagues over. Here the Nile is confined in its course between these insuperable barriers, and, during the time of its inundation, overflows the country all the way to the foot of the mountains; and Mr. Bruce observes, that there is a gradual slope from the bed of the river to those mountains on both sides. The baron de Tott says, that the mountains four leagues from the Nile, and facing Cairo, are only a ridge of rocks above forty or fifty feet high, which divide Egypt from the plains of Libya; which ridge accompanies the course of the river, at a greater or less distance, and seems as if

pretended to know when country, by a kind of black their sounding lines from t but this notion, though as Herodotus, has been discovered by Mr. Bruce; who found the vessel was opposite to All along the coast of Egypt to the eastward.

The Egyptians, like the an excessive antiquity, and possess records for 10,000 years. Thus their involved in obscurity and fall it must be passed over i mortal king whom the Egyptians reigned in that country, w whom some chronologers Mizraim, the grandson of preceded, however, by a se probably founded upon the diluvians), but who, notwithstanding mortality, had left him the situation: for the whole country was a morass; the people: tute of religion and every which could render life converted the course of the Nile time had washed the foot near the borders of Lyb Memphis, instructed his plished a variety of w contributed to the founders of time of Menes, the Egyptian with a list of 330 kings, who but did nothing worthy of tinct fact of history we find is the irruption of the she country was subdued; but revolution happened cannot affair is thus related by reign of Timaus, king of Libya, men, ignoble in their race, into Egypt, made war with submitted to them witho







Drawn by J. Asheton.

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is or Avaris, containing 10,000 acres of land. They were closely besieged by Amosis, with an army of 400,000 men, till at last an agreement was made, in consequence of which the herds withdrew from Egypt with their flocks, to the number of 240,000; and, taking the way of the desert, entered Syria; but fearing the Assyrians, who were then very powerful, and the kings of Asia, they entered the land of Canaan, and built there the city of Jerusalem. According to Mr. Bruce, the shepherds who invaded Egypt were no other than the inhabitants of Barabrah. He says, carriers to the Cushites who dwelt farther to the south. The latter had built many stately temples in Thebes and other parts of Egypt; though, according to him, they did not dwell in places, but holes or caves in the rocks. Being a commercial people, they remained busy collecting and preparing their articles, and were dispersed by the Barabers, or shepherds, as above mentioned. These, from the nature of their employment, lived in moveable habitations, as the Tartars do at this day. By the Jews, he tells us, they were called phut but words by every other people; and from the Hebrew the word Barabrah is derived. By their employment, which was the dispersing the Indian and African goods all over the continent, they had become a great and powerful people; from their opposite dispositions and manners, they were often enemies to the Egyptians. To one Saour author ascribes the destruction of Thebes in Upper Egypt, so much celebrated by Homer for its magnificence. But this certainly cannot be the case; for Homer wrote long after the time of Joseph: and we find that even then the Egyptians held the shepherds in abhorrence, in probability because they had been grievously oppressed by them. Mr. Bruce reckons three invasions of these people, viz.: 1st, that of Salatis, as above mentioned, who overthrew the first dynasty of Egyptian kings from Menes, and destroyed Thebes; 2d, that of Sabacco or So; for, according to him, this was not the name of a single person, but of a people, and signifies shepherds; 3d, after the building of Memphis, where 600,000 of them were besieged, as above mentioned. But these accounts are inconsistent; for it is possible that the third invasion, antecedent to the building of Jerusalem, could be posterior to the second, if the latter happened only a few days of Hezekiah? In these early ages, however, it appears that the kingdom of Egypt had been very powerful, and its dominion very widely extended; as it is said, that the Bactrians revolted from Osymandyas, another Egyptian king of very great antiquity, and of whose wealth the most marvellous accounts are given. After an unknown period of time from this monarch, reigned Sesostri. He was the first great warrior whose conquests are recorded with any degree of distinctness. In what age of the world he lived, is uncertain. Some chronologers, among whom is Isaac Newton, are of opinion, that he is the same as Shishak, who took Jerusalem in the reign of Rehoboam. Others place him much earlier; and Mr. Whiston supposes him to have been the Pharaoh who refused to part with the treasures, and was at last drowned in the Red

Sea. Mr. Bryant endeavours to prove that no such person ever existed; but that is his history, as well as that of many ancient heroes, we have an abridgment of that of the Cushites, or Babylonians, who spread themselves over great part of the known world, and every where brought the people in subjection to them. His reign is reckoned the most extraordinary part of the Egyptian history; and the following is the least fabulous account that can be obtained of it. The father of Sesostri was told in a dream, by the god Vulcan, that his son, then newly born, should be lord of the whole earth. Upon the credit of this vision, his father took all the males in Egypt that were born on the same day with Sesostri, under his protection; appointed nurses and proper persons to take care of them, and had them treated like his own child; being persuaded that they who had been the constant companions of his youth would prove his most faithful ministers and soldiers. As they grew up, they were inured to laborious exercises; and, in particular, were never permitted to taste any food till they had performed a course of 180 furlongs, upwards of twenty-two of our miles. When the king imagined they were sufficiently educated in the martial exercises in which he designed them to excel, they were sent for a trial of their abilities against the Arabians. In this expedition Sesostri proved successful, and in the end subdued that people, who had never before been conquered. He was then sent to the westward, and conquered the greatest part of Africa; nor could he be stopped in his career till he arrived at the Atlantic Ocean. Whilst he was on this expedition, his father died; and Sesostri then resolved to fulfil the prediction of Vulcan, by actually attempting the conquest of the world. As he suspected this must take up a long time, he prepared for his journey in the best manner possible. The kingdom he divided into thirty-six provinces, and endeavoured to secure the affections of his people by gifts both of money and land. He forgave all who had been guilty of offences, and discharged the debts of all his soldiers. He then constituted his brother Armais the supreme regent; but forbade him to use the diadem, and commanded him to offer no injury to the queen or her children, or the royal concubines. His army is said to have consisted of 600,000 foot, 24,000 horse, and 27,000 chariots. Besides these land forces, he had at sea two mighty fleets; one, according to Diodorus, of 400 sail. Of these fleets, one was designed to make conquests in the west, and the other in the east, and therefore the one was built on the Mediterranean, and the other on the Red Sea. The first of these conquered Cyprus, the coast of Phœnicia, and several of the Cyclades; the other all the coasts of the Red Sea; but its progress was stopped by shoals and difficult places which the navigators could not pass; so that he seems not to have made many conquests by sea. With the land forces Sesostri marched against the Ethiopians and Troglodites, whom he overcame, and obliged them to pay him a tribute of gold, ebony, and ivory. From thence he proceeded as far as the promontory of Dira, near the straits of Babelmandel, where he set up a pillar with an inscription in sacred characters



them with great slaughter, and obliged to abandon a considerable part of his booty and military stores. But whether he had good or bad success in these parts, it is believed that he settled a colony in Colchis. Herodotus, however, who gives the most particular account of the conquests of this monarch, does not say whether the colony was designedly planted by Sesostris; or whether part of his army loitered behind, and took up their residence in that region. From his own knowledge, he asserts, that the inhabitants of that country were undoubtedly of Egyptian descent. This was evident from the personal resemblance they bore to the Egyptians, who were swarthy and frizzle-haired; but more especially from the conformity of their customs, particularly circumcision. The utmost boundary of this monarch's conquests, however, was in the country of Thrace; for, beyond that country his pillars were no where to be seen. These pillars he erected in every region which he conquered, with the following inscription, 'Sesostris, king of kings, and lord of lords, subdued this country by the power of his arms.' Besides these, he left also statues of himself; two of which, according to Herodotus, were to be seen in his time; one on the road between Ephesus and Phœcea, and the other between Smyrna and Sardis; they were armed after the Ethiopian and Egyptian manner, holding a javelin in one hand and a bow in the other. The reasons given by Sesostris for returning into Egypt from Thrace, and thus leaving the conquest of the world unfinished, were the want of provisions for his army, and the difficulty of the passes. Most probably, however, his return was hastened by the intelligence he received from the high priest of Egypt, concerning the rebellious proceedings of his brother; who, encouraged by his long absence, had assumed the diadem, and violated the queen, and the royal concubines. On receiving an account of this, Sesostris hastened from Thrace; and at the end of nine years came to Pelusium in Egypt, attended by an innumerable multitude of cap-

through the desert to Heliopolis. He raised also an incredible number of mounds of earth, on which he founded new towns to secure the communications of the Nile. From the Red Sea he dug canals which communicated with the Nile; and not only secured the country in a great measure from any enemy. He erected a city in Egypt, and dedicated it to the deity of the place; but, in the execution of this undertaking, he took care to employ only Egyptian subjects. Thus he secured the nation, and employed the vast number of men he had brought along with him to immortalize the memory of a transaction which he caused it to be inscribed on a pillar. 'No one native labored here; but the king of Egypt, before the temple of Memphis, before the temple of Thebes, and before six gigantic statues, each of which was thirty cubits high, and his wife; the other four represented his children, each, and represented his father, and also two obelisks of marble, denoting the greatness of his revenues, &c. The captives were said to have been treated with great barbarity; so that at last they revolted from a servitude, and made themselves free from a servitude, and laid waste the country, but, being offered a pardon, they were pacified, and they called Babylon. The princes, who waited on the king, the Egyptian monarch, paralleled insolence. One is said to have unharnessed the king's horses, making kings together, made him look so attentively at

of an indeterminate length in the Egyptian history. It concludes with the reign of Amasis; who being a tyrant, his subjects Actisanes the king of Ethiopia to drive it. Thus Actisanes became master of the land; and after his death follows another in the history, during which the em- said to have been in a state of anarchy generations. This period brings us down times of the Trojan war. The reigning in Egypt was at that time called Cetes; by Greeks, Proteus. The priests reported that a magician; and that he could assume any he pleased, even that of fire. This fable, by the Greeks, derived its origin from a among the Egyptians, perhaps introduced Proteus, that of adorning and distinguish- heads of their kings with the represen- of animals or vegetables, or even with incense, in order to strike the beholders he greater awe. Whilst Proteus reigned, or Alexander, the son of Priam king of was driven by a storm on the coast of with Helen, whom he was carrying off her husband. But when the Egyptian mo- heard of the breach of hospitality com- by Paris, he seized him, his mistress, and mions, with all the riches he had brought Greece. He detained Helen, with all the belonging to Menelaus her husband, pro- to restore them to the injured party when- they were demanded; but commanded Paris his companions to depart out of his do- in three days. In what manner Paris ards prevailed upon Proteus to restore his ss, we are not told; neither do we know ing further of the transactions of this 's reign nor of his successors, except what tely the air of fable, till the days of Sa- the Ethiopian, who again conquered this m. He began his reign with an act of uelty, causing the conquered prince to be live; nevertheless, he no sooner saw him- nly established on the throne of Egypt, t became a new man; so that he is highly l for his mercy, clemency, and wisdom. thought to have been the So mentioned in re, who entered into a league with Hoshea f Israel against Shalmaneser king of As- He is said to have been excited to the m of Egypt by a dream, in which he was l, that he should hold that kingdom for ars. Accordingly, he conquered Egypt, been foretold; and at the expiration of e above-mentioned, he had another dream, th the tutelar god of Thebes acquainted at he could no longer hold the kingdom pt with safety and happiness, unless he ed the priests as he passed through them s guards. Being haunted with this vision, he same time abhorring to hold the king- such terms, he sent for the priests, and ted them with what seemed to be the the gods. Upon this it was concluded, as their pleasure, that Sabacon should o longer in Egypt; and therefore he ately returned to Ethiopia. Of Anyasis, Sabacon's immediate successor, we have iculars worth notice. After him reigned

Sethon, who was both king and priest of Vulcan. He gave himself up to religious contemplation; and not only neglected the military class, but deprived them of their lands. At this they were so much incensed, that they entered into an agreement not to bear arms under him; and in this state of affairs Sennacherib king of Assyria arrived before Pelusium with a mighty army. Sethon now applied to his soldiers, but in vain; they unanimously persisted in refusing to march under his banner. Being therefore destitute of all human aid, he applied to the god Vulcan, and requested him to deliver him from his ene- mies. Whilst he was yet in the temple of the god, it is said, he fell into a deep sleep; during which, he saw Vulcan standing at his side, and exhorting him to take courage. He promised, that if Sethon would but go out against the As- syrians, he should obtain a complete victory over them. Encouraged by this assurance, the king assembled a body of artificers and laborers, and marched towards Pelusium. He had no occa- sion, however, to fight; for the very night after his arrival at Pelusium, an innumerable multi- tude of field rats, entering the enemy's camp, gnawed to pieces the quivers, bowstrings, and shield-straps. Next morning, when Sethon found the enemy disarmed, and beginning to fly, he pursued them to a great distance, making a ter- rible slaughter. In memory of this extraordinary event, a statue of Sethon was erected in the temple of Vulcan, holding in his hand a rat, with these words: 'Whosoever beholdeth me, let him be pious.'

Not long after the death of Sethon, the form of government in Egypt was totally changed. The kingdom was divided into twelve parts, over which as many of the chief nobility presided. This division, however, subsisted but for a short time. Psammiticus, one of the twelve, dethroned all the rest, fifteen years after the division had been made. The history now begins to be di- vested of fable; and from this time may be ac- counted equally certain with that of any other nation. The vast conquests of Sesostris were now no longer known; for Psammiticus pos- sessed no more than the country of Egypt itself. It appears, indeed, that none of the successors of Sesostris, or even that monarch himself, had made use of any means to keep in subjection the countries he had once conquered. Perhaps, in- deed, his design originally was rather to pillage than to conquer; and therefore on his return, his vast empire vanished. Psammiticus, how- ever, endeavoured to extend his dominions by making war on his neighbours; but, putting more confidence in foreign auxiliaries than in his own subjects, the latter were so much offended, that upwards of 200,000 fighting men emigrated in a body, and took up their residence in Ethiopia. To repair this loss, Psammiticus encouraged commerce, and opened his ports to all strangers, whom he greatly caressed, contrary to the im- politic maxims of his predecessors, who refused to admit them into the country. He also laid siege to Azotus in Syria which held out for twenty- nine years against the whole strength of the kingdom; from which it appears that Psammiti- cus was no great warrior. He is reported to



have sent to discover the springs of the Nile: and is said to have made an attempt to discover the most ancient language and religion in the world. Nechus, the son and successor of Psammiticus, is the Pharaoh-Necho of Scripture, and was a prince of an enterprising and warlike genius. In the beginning of his reign he attempted to cut through the isthmus of Suez, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean; but was obliged to abandon the enterprise, after having lost 120,000 men in the attempt. After this he sent a ship, manned with some expert Phœnician mariners, on a voyage to explore the coasts of Africa. Accordingly, they performed the voyage; sailed round the continent of Africa: and after three years returned to Egypt, where their relation was deemed incredible. The most remarkable wars in which this king was engaged, are recorded in the sacred writings. He went out against the king of Assyria, by the divine command, as he himself told Josiah (II Chron. xxxv. 21); but, being opposed by this king, he defeated and killed him at Megiddo; after which he made his son Jehoiakim, king, and imposed on him an annual tribute of 100 talents of silver and one talent of gold. He then proceeded against the king of Assyria; and weakened him so much, that the empire was soon after dissolved. Thus he became master of Syria and Phœnicia; but, in a short time, Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon came against him with a mighty army. The Egyptian monarch, not daunted by the formidable appearance of his antagonist, boldly ventured a battle; but was overthrown with prodigious slaughter, and Nebuchadnezzar became master of all the country to the very gates of Pelusium. The reign of Apries, the Pharaoh Hophra, of Scripture, presents us with a new revolution in the Egyptian affairs. He is said to have been a martial prince, and in the beginning of his reign very successful. He took by storm the rich city of Sidosi; and, having overcome the Cypriots and Phœnicians in a sea-fight, returned to Egypt laden with spoil. This success probably incited Zedekiah king of Judah to enter into an alliance with him against Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon. The bad success of this alliance was foretold by the prophet Jeremiah; and accordingly it happened. For Nebuchadnezzar having sat down with his army before Jerusalem, Apries marched from Egypt to relieve the city; but no sooner did he perceive the Babylonians approaching him, than he retreated as fast as he could, leaving the Jews exposed to the rage of their merciless enemies: who were thereupon treated as Jeremiah had foretold: and by this step Apries brought upon himself the vengeance denounced by the same prophet. The manner in which these predictions were fulfilled is as follows: the Cyreneans, a colony of the Greeks, being greatly strengthened by a numerous supply of their countrymen under their third king Battus styled the Happy, and encouraged by the Pythian oracle, began to drive out their Libyan neighbours, and share their possessions among themselves. Hereupon Andrian king of Libya sent a submissive embassy to Apries, and implored his protection against the Cyreneans. Apries complied with his re-

quest, and The Egyptian; and the army be destroyed control of thought almost under Amasis, but a sense of haranguing allegiance royalty and Apries the orders to fore him. fore returning king was bemis's notion of cruelty of the Egyptian Apries, but bemis, the Amasis. Amasis the body of those for whom he of Apries greatly in rival, as his superior. Nay, so that even of a The two of battle ensued; behaved at last over- feated, the Amasis not out opposed his palace respect. and could life. An obliged to the predicted Apries wife: and than the sepulchre intestine ended the death of. He had ployed it but an himself some harassed great number country incursion tion, however perma- to it met carried the lon. S

Apries. During the reign of Amasis, Egypt is said to have flourished greatly, and to have contained 20,000 populous cities. That good might be kept among such vast numbers of people, Amasis enacted a law, by which every Egyptian was bound once a year to inform the governor of his province by what means he gained his livelihood; and if he failed of this, he put him to death. The same punishment he decreed to those who could not give a satisfactory account of themselves. This monarch very much favored the Greeks, and married a queen of Grecian extraction. To many Greek cities, as particular persons, he made considerations. He also allowed the Greeks in to come into Egypt, and settle either in the city of Naucratis, or carry on their trade on the sea-coast; granting them also temples, and places where they might erect temples to their own deities. He received also a visit from the celebrated Athenian lawgiver, and re-ruled the island of Cyprus under his subjection. The prosperity of Egypt, however, ended with the death of Amasis, or indeed before it. The last monarch had in some way incensed Cambyses king of Persia. The cause of the quarrel is uncertain; but, whatever it was, the Persian monarch vowed the destruction of Amasis. In the mean time Phanes of Halicarnassus, commander of the Grecian auxiliaries in the pay of Amasis, took some private disgust; and, leaving Egypt, embarked for Persia. He was a wise and able general, perfectly acquainted with every thing that related to Egypt; and had great credit with the Greeks in that country. Amasis was immediately sensible how great the loss of this man would be to him, and therefore sent after him a trusty eunuch with a swift galley. Phanes was accordingly overtaken in Lycia, but not brought back; for, making his guard drunk, he continued his journey to Persia, and presented himself before Cambyses, as he was meditating the overthrow of the Egyptian monarchy.

At this dangerous crisis also, the Egyptian monarch imprudently made Polycrates, tyrant of Samos, his enemy. This prince had hitherto been remarkable for an uninterrupted course of success; and Amasis, being at this time in strict alliance with him, wrote a letter, in which, after congratulating him on his prosperity, he told him that he was afraid lest his successes were too many, and that he might be suddenly overthrown. For this reason he advised him voluntarily to deprive himself of some portion of his happiness; and to cast away that which would grieve him most if he were accidentally to lose it. Polycrates followed his advice, and threw into the sea a signet of inestimable value. This, however, did not answer the intended purpose. The signet happened to be swallowed by a fish, which was taken a few days afterwards, and thus was restored to Polycrates. Of this Amasis was no sooner informed, than, considering Polycrates as really unhappy, and already on the brink of destruction, he resolved to put an end to the friendship which subsisted between them. For this purpose he despatched an herald to Samos, commanding him to acquaint Polycrates, that he renounced

his alliance, and all the obligations between them; that he might not mourn his misfortunes with the sorrow of a friend. Polycrates now at liberty, therefore, to act against him, accordingly offered to assist Cambyses with a fleet of ships in his Egyptian expedition. Amasis had not, however, the misfortune to see the calamities of his country. He died about A.A.C. 525, after a reign of forty-four years; and left the kingdom to his son Psammenitus, just as Cambyses was approaching the frontiers of the kingdom. The new prince was scarce seated on the throne, when the Persians appeared. Psammenitus drew together what forces he could, to prevent them from entering the kingdom. Cambyses, however, immediately laid siege to Pelusium, and made himself master of it by the following stratagem: he placed in the front of his army a great number of cats, dogs, and other animals, that were deemed sacred by the Egyptians. He then attacked the city, and took it without opposition: the garrison, which consisted entirely of Egyptians, not daring to throw a dart or shoot an arrow against their enemies, lest they should kill some of the holy animals.

Cambyses had not long, however, taken possession of the city, when Psammenitus advanced against him with a numerous army. Before the engagement, the Greeks who served under Psammenitus, to shew their indignation against their treacherous countryman, Phanes, brought his children, it is said, into the camp, killed them in the presence of their father and of the two armies, and then drank their blood. The Persians, enraged at so cruel a sight, fell upon the Egyptians with the utmost fury, put them to flight, and cut the greatest part of them in pieces. Those who escaped fled to Memphis, where they were soon after guilty of a horrid outrage. Cambyses sent a herald to them in a ship from Mitylene: but no sooner did they see her come into the port, than they flocked down to the shore, destroyed the ship, and tore to pieces the herald and all the crew; afterwards carrying their mangled limbs into the city, in a kind of barbarous triumph. Not long after, they were obliged to surrender; Psammenitus thus falling into the hands of his inveterate enemy, now enraged beyond measure at the cruelties exercised upon the children of Phanes, the herald, and the Mitylenean sailors. The rapid success of the Persians struck with such terror the Libyans, Cyreneans, Barceans, and other dependents or allies of the Egyptian monarch, that they immediately submitted. Nothing now remained but to dispose of the captive king, and revenge on him and his subjects the cruelties which they had committed. This the merciless victor executed in the severest manner. On the 10th day after Memphis had been taken, Psammenitus and the chief of the Egyptian nobility were ignominiously sent into one of the suburbs of that city. Here the king being seated in a proper place, saw his daughter coming along in the habit of a slave with a pitcher to fetch water from the river, and followed by the daughters of the greatest families in Egypt, all in the same miserable garb







were many of the ancient Egyptian and been carried away by Cambyses. These were restored by Ptolemy to temples; in memory of which favor, gave him the surname of Euergetes, ant. In this expedition he greatly overcame his enemies, making himself master of countries that lie between mount Euphrates and the confines of India. An account of his reign was given by himself, inscribed on a column, to the following effect. 'Ptolemy, having received from his father of Egypt, Libya, Syria, Phœnice, Caria, and the other Cyclades, a mighty army of horse and foot, with elephants, out of Trogloditia, some of which had been taken by the rest by himself, and brought them up for war: with this great army he went into Asia; and having conquered those which lie on this side the Hellespont, Pamphylia, Ionia, the Hellespont, he crossed that river with all the conquered countries, and the nations, and reduced Mesopotamia, Persia, Media, and all the lands as far as Bactria.' On the king's return from his expedition he passed through Jerusalem, offered many sacrifices to the God, and ever afterwards expressed a particular friendship for the Jewish nation. At this time the tribute to the Egyptian monarchs, annually twenty talents of silver. However, Onias, who was then king of a very covetous disposition, neglected to pay, so that he was indebted to a very large sum. Soon after, therefore, Ptolemy sent one named Athenion to demand the tribute; he desired him to acquaint the Jews with the king's make war upon them in case of a dangerous man, however, named Joseph, as, not only found means to avert the war, but even got himself chosen general, and by his faithful discharge of trust, continued in high favor as long as he lived. Ptolemy, king at last concluded a peace with the successor of Antiochus Theos, at the enlargement of his dominions on the sea; this he was attended with such success, he made himself master of all the coast of the Red Sea, both on the Arabian and Persian, quite down to the straits of Bab-el-Mandeb.

On his return he was met by Antiochus the Achæans, imploring his assistance; the king readily promised them: in the mean time engaged Antiochus to support them, Ptolemy flattered that he sent powerful succours to Cleomenes III. king of Sparta; hoping, to humble both the Achæans and Antigonus. In this however he was disappointed; for Cleomenes, after having obtained considerable advantages over the Achæans, last entirely defeated in the battle of Sellasia, he was obliged to take refuge in Ptolemy's dominions. He was received by the

Egyptian monarch with the greatest kindness; a yearly pension of twenty-four talents was assigned him, with a promise of restoring him to the Spartan throne: but, before this could be accomplished, Ptolemy died, in the twenty-seventh year of his reign, and was succeeded by his son Ptolemy Philopater. Thus we have seen the Egyptian empire restored to a considerable height of power; and had the succeeding monarchs been careful to preserve its strength as transmitted to them by Euergetes, it is probable that Egypt might have been able to hold the balance against Rome, and after the destruction of Carthage to have prevented that haughty city from becoming mistress of the world. But after the death of Ptolemy Euergetes, the Egyptian empire, being governed either by weak monarchs, or wicked ministers, quickly declined, and from that time makes no conspicuous figure in history, except in the depravity of some of its kings, in which indeed, it may, vie with any nation.

Ptolemy Philopater began his reign with the murder of his brother Magas; after which, giving himself up to universal licentiousness, the kingdom fell into anarchy. Cleomenes the Spartan king still resided at court; and, being now unable to bear the dissolute manners which prevailed there, he pressed Philopater to give him the assistance he had promised for restoring him to the throne of Sparta. This he rather insisted upon, because he had received advice that Antigonus king of Macedon was dead, that the Achæans were engaged in a war with the Etolians, and that the Lacedæmonians had joined the latter against the Achæans and Macedonians. Ptolemy, when afraid of his brother Magas, had indeed promised to assist the king of Sparta with a powerful fleet, hoping thus to attach him to his own interest: but now, when Magas was out of the way, it was determined by the king, or rather his ministers, that Cleomenes should not be assisted, nor even allowed to leave the kingdom; and this extravagant resolution produced the desperate attempt of Cleomenes, of which an account will be found in the history of SPARTA. Of the disorders which now ensued, Antiochus king of Syria, surnamed the Great, took the advantage, and attempted to wrest from Ptolemy the provinces of Cælo-Syria and Palestine. But in this he was finally disappointed; and might easily have been totally driven out of Syria, had not Ptolemy been too much taken up with his debaucheries to think of carrying on the war. The discontent occasioned by this piece of negligence soon produced a civil war in his dominions, and the whole kingdom continued in the utmost confusion till his death, which happened in the seventeenth year of his reign and thirty-seventh of his age. During the reign of Philopater happened a very extraordinary event with regard to the Jews, which is recorded in the third Book of Maccabees, chap. ii. iii. iv. v. The king of Egypt, while on his Syrian expedition, had attempted to enter the temple of Jerusalem; but, being hindered by the Jews, he was filled with the utmost rage against the whole nation. On his return to Alexandria, he resolved to make those who dwelt in that city feel the first effects of his vengeance. He began with publishing a



the mercenaries who had served under Alexander; and in the third the native Egyptians. Ptolemy now, to be revenged of the Jews, ordered that they should be degraded from the first rank, and enrolled among the native Egyptians; and that all of that nation should appear at an appointed time before the proper officers, to be enrolled among the people; that at the time of their enrolment they should have the mark of an ivy leaf, the badge of Bacchus, impressed with a hot iron on their faces; that all who were thus marked should be made slaves; and, lastly, that if any one should stand out against this decree, he should be immediately put to death. That he might not, however, seem an enemy to the whole nation, he declared, that those [who sacrificed to his gods should enjoy their former privileges, and remain in the same class. Yet, notwithstanding this tempting offer, 300 only out of many thousand Jews who lived in Alexandria could be prevailed upon to abandon their religion in order to save themselves from slavery. The apostates were immediately excommunicated by their brethren: and this their enemies construed as done in opposition to the king's order; which threw the tyrant into such a rage, that he resolved to extirpate the whole nation, beginning with the Jews who lived in Alexandria and other cities of Egypt, and proceeding from thence to Judæa and Jerusalem itself. In consequence of this cruel resolution, he commanded all the Jews that lived in any part of Egypt to be brought in chains to Alexandria, and there to be shut up in the Hippodrome, which was a very spacious place without the city, where the people used to assemble to see horse-races and other public diversions. He then sent for Herman master of the elephants; and commanded him to have 500 of these animals ready against the next day, to let loose upon the Jews in the Hippodrome. But when the elephants were prepared for the execution, and the people were assembled in great crowds to see it, they were for that and the succeeding day disappointed by the king's absence. At last he came to the Hippodrome

the name of Euergetes II. called Physcon, or the big-bellied, on account of the extraordinary size of his belly, and the extraordinary size of his appetite, and luxury. He was on the throne, however, when Philometor, returning into Egypt, and restored the whole kingdom to Philometor. His death was the result of a war betwixt the two brothers, who had no opportunity of settling their differences. For this reason he kept to himself, and was very much in a lull; by which, being tired of his life, he might at his pleasure re-entire Philometor, apprised of his brother Physcon to an agreement, was happily effected by them. The brothers agreed to reign jointly, and to the utmost of their power to support the kingdom, whom they considered as their father. On this the king of Syria in great army, but was prevented from conquering it. The king was soon freed from the apprehension of an enemy, than they began to quarrel. Their differences so increased, that the Roman senate, before the ambassadors employed to settle the merits of the cause could arrive, Physcon had driven Philometor out of Egypt, and obliged him to quit the kingdom. The dethroned prince fled to the coast, and appeared meanly dressed, and in a poor condition. He was very kindly received by the Romans, who were so well satisfied of the justice of his cause, that they immediately decreed that he should be restored to his kingdom, and was reconducted home on the arrival of the ambassadors. A treaty of peace was negotiated, and Physcon put in possession of Libya and Cyrene, and Philometor of all Egypt and the rest of the kingdom, each of them being declared king of their respective parts. The treaty, as usual, was confirmed by oaths and sacrifices, and was soon as made. Physcon was left in possession of his share of the dominions; and

tely to that island and conquer it. But the ambassadors telling him that they were intended to put him in possession of it by fair means and not by force, he dismissed his army, returned to Libya, while one of the ambassadors proceeded to Alexandria. Their design was to bring the two brothers to an interview on the borders of their dominions, and there to settle amicably. But the ambassador who went to Alexandria, found Philometor very averse from alliance with the decree of the senate. He stayed the ambassador so long, that Physcon sent him also to Alexandria, hoping that the joint persuasions of the two would induce Philometor to comply. But the king, after entertaining them for an immense charge for forty days, at last refused to submit, and told the ambassadors that he was resolved to adhere to the first treaty.

In this answer the Roman ambassadors departed, and were followed by others from the other brothers. The senate, however, not only confirmed their decree in favor of Physcon, but renewed their alliance with Philometor, and ordered his ambassador to leave the city in six days. In the mean time the inhabitants of Cyprus, having heard unfavorable accounts of Physcon's behaviour, during the short time he had been in Alexandria, conceived so strong an opinion against him, that they resolved to keep out of their country by force of arms. On the intelligence of this resolution, Physcon ordered all thoughts of Cyprus for the present, and hastened with all his forces to Cyrene, where he had established himself in the kingdom. His cruel and tyrannical conduct, however, increased the aversion of the Cyrenians so much, that some of them, entering into a conspiracy against him, fell upon him one night as he was returning to his palace, wounded him in several places, and left him for dead on the spot. This was the charge of his brother Philometor; and as soon as he was recovered, took another voyage to Rome. Here he made his complaints to the senate, and showed them the scars of his wounds, accusing his brother of having employed assassins to murder him. Though Philometor was known to be a man of a most humane and dispassionate disposition, and therefore very unlikely to have been concerned in so black an attempt, the senate, being offended at his refusing to comply with their decree concerning Cyprus, believed to this false accusation, and not only ordered him to hear what his ambassadors had to say, but ordered them immediately to depart from the island. At the same time they appointed five commissioners to conduct Physcon into Cyprus, and to put him in possession of that island, enjoining their allies in those parts to supply him with provisions.

Physcon having thus got together an army which seemed to be sufficient for the accomplishment of his design, landed in Cyprus; and being there encountered by Philometor in battle, he was entirely defeated, and obliged to retire to himself in the city called Lapitho. Here he was closely besieged, and at last obliged to surrender. Every one now expected that Physcon would have been treated as he deserved; but his brother, instead of punishing, restored him to the government of Libya and Cyrene,

adding some other territories instead of the island of Cyprus, and promising him his daughter in marriage. Thus an end was put to the war between the two brothers, for the Romans were ashamed any longer to oppose a prince who had given such a signal instance of his justice and clemency. On his return to Alexandria, Philometor appointed one Archias governor of Cyprus. But he, soon after the king's departure, agreed with Demetrius, king of Syria, to betray the island to him for 500 talents. The treachery was discovered before it took effect; and the traitor, to avoid the punishment due to his crime, killed himself. Ptolemy, being offended with Demetrius for this attempt on Cyprus, joined Attalus, king of Pergamus, and Ariarathes, king of Cappadocia, in setting up a pretender to the crown of Syria. This was Alexander Balas, to whom he even gave his daughter Cleopatra in marriage, after he had placed him on the throne of Syria. But he, notwithstanding these and many other favors, being suspected of having entered into a plot against his benefactor, Ptolemy became his greatest enemy; and, marching against him, routed his army in the neighbourhood of Antioch. He did not, however, long enjoy his victory; for he died in a few days after the engagement, of the wounds he had received.

On the death of Philometor, Cleopatra, the queen, designed to secure the throne for her son. But some of the principal nobility declaring for Physcon, a civil war was about to ensue, when matters were compromised, on condition that Physcon should marry Cleopatra, that he should reign jointly with her during his life, and declare her son by Philometor, heir to the crown. These terms were no sooner agreed upon than Physcon married Cleopatra, and on the very day of the nuptials, murdered her son in her arms. This was only a prelude to the cruelties which he afterwards committed on his subjects. He first put to death all those who had shown any concern for the murder of the young prince: He then wreaked his fury on the Jews, whom he treated more like slaves than subjects, on account of their having favored the cause of Cleopatra. His own people were treated with little more ceremony. Numbers of them were every day put to death for the smallest faults, and often for no fault at all, but merely to gratify his inhuman temper. His cruelty towards the Alexandrians is related under the article ALEXANDRIA. He divorced his queen, who was also his sister, and married her daughter, who was likewise called Cleopatra, and whom he had previously ravished. In short, his behaviour was so exceedingly wicked, that it soon became quite intolerable to his subjects; and he was obliged to fly to the island of Cyprus with his new queen, and Memphis, a son he had by her mother. On the flight of the king, the divorced queen was placed on the throne by the Alexandrians; but Physcon, fearing lest a son whom he had left behind should be appointed king, sent for him into Cyprus, and caused him to be assassinated as soon as he landed. This provoked the people against him to such a degree, that they pulled down and dashed to pieces all the statues which



detestation occasioned by this unparalleled piece of barbarity cannot be expressed. An army was soon raised, and the command of it given to one Marsyas, whom the queen had appointed general, and enjoined to take all the necessary steps for the defence of the country. On the other hand, Physcon having hired a numerous body of mercenaries, sent them, under the command of Hegelochus, against the Egyptians. The two armies met on the frontiers of Egypt, and a bloody battle ensued, wherein, however, the Egyptians were entirely defeated, and Marsyas was taken prisoner. Every one expected that the captive general would have been put to death with the severest torments; but Physcon, perceiving that his cruelties only exasperated the people, resolved to try whether he could regain their affections by lenity; and therefore pardoned Marsyas, and set him at liberty. Cleopatra, being greatly distressed by this overthrow, demanded assistance from Demetrius, king of Syria, who had married her eldest daughter by Philometor, promising him the crown of Egypt for his reward. Demetrius accepted the proposal, marched with all his forces into Egypt, and laid siege to Pelusium. But he being no less hated in Syria than Physcon was in Egypt, the people of Antioch, taking advantage of his absence, revolted against him, and were joined by most of the other cities in Syria. Thus Demetrius was obliged to return; and Cleopatra, being now in no condition to oppose Physcon, fled to Ptolemais, where her daughter the queen of Syria resided. Physcon was then restored to the throne of Egypt, which, notwithstanding his crimes, he enjoyed till his death, which happened at Alexandria, in the twenty-ninth year of his reign, and sixty-seventh of his age.

To Physcon succeeded Ptolemy Lathyrus, about A.A.C. 122; but he had not reigned long before his mother, finding that he would not be entirely governed by her, instigated the Alexandrians, to drive him from the throne, and place on it his youngest brother, Alexander.

Lathyrus's admirals, whom he was ready to land, and which Alexander's fleet was self killed. During the king of Cyrenaica, the son by a concubine, having tranquillity in his dominions, twenty-one years, died, and kingdom to the Romans: empire was again considered as cumscripted. Lathyrus, being all competitors, turned his of Thebes, which had revolted, marched in person against it, defeated them in a pitched battle, and then laid siege to their city. The king, with great reluctance, but were at last obliged to was given up to be plundered. They left every where the monuments of their avarice and cruelty, which till that time had made the wealthy cities of Egypt, which that it never afterwards made A.A.C. 76, Ptolemy Lathyrus, Alexander II. the son of Ptolemy. He was first sent by Cleopatra to Cos, with a great sum of money and jewels, as thinking that they could be kept. When Ptolemy, made himself master of Pontus, made himself master of the inhabitants delivered up to him, a tian prince, together with his wife, thridates gave him an education; but he, not thinking himself a prince who had shed the blood of his brethren, fled to the camp of his father, who was then making war. At that time he lived in the rank of a general, till news was brought of the death of Lathyrus. Sylla then came to take possession of the kingdom. At his arrival, the Alexandrians sent Cleopatra for their sovereign. T

he died a few months after. Alexander, who was in Tyre, had sent ambassadors to influence the senate in his favor. But, before the negotiation was finished, he over by his last will all his rights to the people, declaring them heirs to his kingdom, not out of any affection to the republic, but with a view to raise disputes between the king and his rival Auletes, whom the Egyptians had placed on the throne. The will was sent to Rome, where it occasioned warm debates. Some were for taking immediate possession of Egypt. Others thought no notice should be taken of such a will, because Alexander had no right to dispose of his dominions without the consent of his successor, and to exclude the crown those who were of the royal blood of Egypt. Cicero represented, that such a violent imposition would debase the majesty of the Roman people, and involve them in endless wars and disputes; that the fruitful fields of Egypt would be a strong temptation to the avarice of the people, who would insist on their being divided among them; and lastly, that by this the bloody quarrels about the Agrarian law would be revived. These reasons had great weight with the senate; but what chiefly prevailed against them from seizing on Egypt at this time, was, that they had lately taken possession of the kingdom of Bithynia, in virtue of the will of Commodus; and of Cyrene and Lybia, by the king Apion. They thought, therefore, that if they should, on the like pretence, take possession of the kingdom of Egypt, this might too much weaken their design of setting up a kind of universal empire, and occasion a formidable coalition against them. Ptolemy Auletes, who had now raised to the throne by the Egyptians, was thought to have surpassed all the kings that went before him in the effeminacy of his manners. His surname Auletes, which signifies the flutist, was given him because he piqued himself on his skill in performing upon that instrument, and was not ashamed even to contend for the prize in the public games. He took great pleasure in imitating the manners of the bacchanals; he was in a female dress, and in the same manner that they used during the solemnity of their festivals, and hence he had the surname of the New Bacchus, or Bacchus. As his title to the crown was not reputable, he being only the son of a concubine, his first care was to get himself acknowledged by the Romans, and declared their ally. This was obtained by applying to Julius Cæsar, who at that time consul, and immensely popular, Cæsar being glad of such an opportunity of raising money, made the king of Egypt very dear to his alliance: 6000 talents, equal to £1,162,500 sterling were given to Cæsar himself, and partly to Pompey, in whose interest was necessary for obtaining the favor of the people. Though the revenues of Egypt amounted to twice this sum, yet Auletes thought it impossible for him to raise it without taxing his subjects. This occasioned a general discontent; and, while the people were almost ready to take up arms, a most unjust decree was passed at Rome for seizing the island of Cyprus. When the Alexandrians heard of this, they pressed

Auletes to demand that island as an ancient appendage of Egypt; and, in case of a refusal, to declare war against that haughty and imperious people, who they now saw, though too late, aimed at nothing less than the sovereignty of the world. With this request the king refused to comply; upon which his subjects, already provoked beyond measure at the taxes with which they were loaded, flew to arms, and surrounded the palace. The king had the good fortune to escape their fury, and immediately leaving Alexandria, set sail for Rome. In his way to that city, he landed on the island of Rhodes, where the celebrated Cato at that time was, being on his way to Cyprus, to put the unjust decree of the senate into execution. Auletes, desirous to confer with a man of his prudence, immediately sent to acquaint him with his arrival. He imagined that, upon this notice, Cato would instantly come and wait upon him; but the proud Roman told the messenger, that if the king of Egypt had any thing to say to Cato, he might come to his house. Accordingly the king went to pay him a visit; but was received with very little ceremony, Cato not even vouchsafing to rise out of his seat when he came into his presence. When Auletes had laid his affairs before this haughty republican, he was blamed by him for leaving Egypt, the richest kingdom in the world, in order to expose himself, as he said, to the indignities he would meet with at Rome. There, Cato told him, nothing was in request but wealth and grandeur. All the riches of Egypt, he said, would not be sufficient to satisfy the avarice of the leading men in Rome. He, therefore, advised him to return to Egypt; and strive, by a more equitable conduct, to regain the affections of his people. He even offered to reconduct him thither, and employ his good offices in his behalf. But though Ptolemy was sensible of the propriety of this advice, the friends he had with him dissuaded him from following it, and accordingly he set out for Rome. On his arrival, he found, to his great concern, that Cæsar, in whom he confided, was then in Gaul. He was received, however, by Pompey with great kindness. He assigned him an apartment in his own house, and omitted nothing that lay in his power to serve him. Notwithstanding this protection, however, the Egyptian monarch was obliged to go from house to house like a private person, soliciting the votes of the senators. After he had spent immense treasures in procuring a strong party, he was at last permitted to lay his complaints before the senate; but, at the same time, there arrived an embassy from the Alexandrians, consisting of 100 citizens, to acquaint the senate with the reasons of their revolt. When Auletes first set out for Rome, the Alexandrians, not knowing what was become of him, placed on the throne his daughter Berenice; and sent an embassy into Syria to Antiochus Asiaticus, inviting him into Egypt to marry the queen, and reign in partnership with her. Antiochus was dead before the arrival of the ambassadors; upon which, the same proposal was made to his brother Seleucus, who readily accepted it. This Seleucus is described by Strabo as monstrously deformed in body, and



still more so in mind. The Egyptians nicknamed him Cybiosactes, or the Scullion. He was scarcely on the throne, when he gave a signal instance of his avaricious temper. Ptolemy I. had caused the body of Alexander the Great to be deposited in a coffin of massy gold. This the king seized upon; and thus provoked his wife Berenice to such a degree, that she caused him to be murdered. She then married one Archelaus, the high priest of Comana in Pontus, who pretended to be the son of Mithridates the Great; but was, in fact, only the son of that monarch's general. Auletes was not a little alarmed on hearing of these transactions, especially when the ambassadors arrived, who he feared would overturn all the schemes he had labored so much to bring about. The embassy was headed by one Dion, a celebrated academic philosopher, who had many powerful friends at Rome. But Ptolemy found means to get both him and most of his followers assassinated; and this intimidated the rest to such a degree, that they durst not execute their commission, or, for some time, even demand justice for the murder of their colleagues. The report of so many murders, however, at last spread a general alarm. Auletes, sure of the protection of Pompey, did not scruple to own himself the perpetrator of them. Nay, though an action was commenced against one Ascitius, an assassin, who had stabbed Dion, the chief of the embassy above mentioned, and the crime was fully proved, yet he was acquitted by the venal judges, who had all been bribed by Ptolemy. In a short time, the senate passed a decree, by which it was enacted, that the king of Egypt should be restored by force of arms. All the great men in Rome were ambitious of this commission; which, they well knew, would be attended with immense profit. Their contests, on this occasion, took up a considerable time; but at last a prophecy of the Sybil was found out, which forbade the assisting an Egyptian monarch with an army. Ptolemy, therefore, wearied out with so long a delay, retired from Rome, where he had made himself generally odious, to the temple of Diana, at Ephesus, there to wait the decision of his fate. Here he remained a considerable time; but as he saw that the senate came to no resolution, though he solicited them by letters, he at last, by Pompey's advice, applied to Gabinius, the proconsul of Syria, a man of most infamous character, and ready to undertake any thing for money. Therefore, though it was contrary to an express law, for any governor to leave his province, without positive orders from the senate and people of Rome, Gabinius ventured to transgress this law, upon condition of being well paid. As a recompense for his trouble, he demanded 10,000 talents; that is, £1,937,500 sterling; and Ptolemy, glad to be restored on any terms, agreed to pay that sum: but Gabinius would not stir till he had received one-half of it. This obliged the king to borrow it from a Roman knight, named Caius Rabirius Posthumus; Pompey interposing his credit and authority for the repayment both of capital and interest. Gabinius now set out for Egypt, attended by the famous

eloquence of Cicero he was acquitted; one of the best orations to be found in the works of that author, was composed on this occasion. Gabinus was also prosecuted; and Nero spoke against him, he very narrowly escaped death. He was, however, condemned to perpetual banishment, after having been stripped of all he was worth; and lived in exile till the close of the civil wars, when he was recalled by Nero, in whose service he lost his life. Auletes ascended the throne of Egypt about four years after his re-establishment; and, at his death, he left children, a son and two daughters, the tuition of the Roman people. The eldest of the sons was Ptolemy, those of the daughters were Cleopatra and Arsinoë. This Cleopatra, who afterwards became so famous, had so great a share in the civil wars of Rome. As the transactions of that queen's reign, however, are so closely connected with the history of Rome, that they cannot be well understood without knowing the situation of the Roman empire at that time, we refer for an account of the history of Rome. With Cleopatra the family of Ptolemy Lagus, the founder of the Grecian empire in Egypt, after it had held the country in subjection for the space of 294

years, now became a province of the Roman empire, and continued subject to the emperors from Nero to Constantine. In the year 642 it was conquered by the Arabs under Amru Ibn As, one of the generals of the khalif

In 869 an independent government was established in this kingdom by Ahmed Ebn Tolun, who rebelled against Al Mokhadi, khalif of Egypt. It continued to be governed by him and his successors for twenty-seven years, when it was again reduced by Al Moezi khalif of Egypt. In about thirty years after, we find it again an independent state, being joined with the provinces under Mahomet Ebn Taj, who had been appointed governor of these provinces. This government, however, was also but short-lived; for in 969 it was conquered by Jawhar, one of the generals of the Fatemite khalif of Cairo, Ledinillah, the Fatemite khalif of Cairo in Barbary. No sooner was Moez informed of the success of his general, than he prepared an expedition to go and take possession of the new conquest. Accordingly, he ordered all the quantities of gold which he and his predecessors had amassed, to be cast into ingots of a size and figure of mill-stones used in the mills, and conveyed on camels' backs into

To show that he was fully determined to extend his dominions in Barbary, and to make Egypt the royal residence, he caused the removal of the three former princes of his race from Cairo in Barbary, and to be buried in a stately mosque erected on purpose for the purpose: the most effectual perhaps method to induce his successors to reside in Egypt also, as it was become an established custom among those princes, frequently to pay respectful visits to the tombs of their ancestors. To establish himself the more effectually in his new dominions, Moez suppressed the usual custom made in the mosques for the khalifs of Bagdad, and substituted his own name in their stead.

This was complied with, not only in Egypt and Syria, but even throughout all Arabia, the city of Mecca alone excepted. The consequence was, a schism in the Mahomedan faith, which continued upwards of 200 years, and was attended with continual anathemas, and sometimes destructive wars between the khalifs of Bagdad and those of Egypt. Having fully established himself in his kingdom, he died in the forty-fifth year of his age, three years after he had left his dominions in Barbary; and was succeeded by his son Abu Al Mansur Barar, surnamed Aziz Billah.

The new khalif succeeded at the age of twenty-one; and committed the management of affairs entirely to the care of Jawhar, his father's long experienced general and prime minister. In 978 he sent this famous warrior to drive out Al Aftakin, the emir of Damascus. The Egyptian general accordingly undertook the siege of that place; but, at the end of two months, was obliged to raise it, on the approach of an army of Karmatians under the command of Al Hakem. As Jawhar was not strong enough to venture an engagement with these Karmatians, it was impossible for him to hinder them from effecting a junction with the forces of Al Aftakin. He therefore retreated, or rather fled towards Egypt with the utmost expedition; but, being overtaken by the two confederate armies, was soon reduced to the last extremity. He was, however, permitted to resume his march, on condition that he passed under Al Aftakin's sword and Al Hakem's lance; and to this disgraceful condition Jawhar found himself obliged to submit. On his arrival in Egypt, he immediately advised Al Aziz to undertake an expedition in person into the east, against the combined army of the Turks, Karmatians, and Damascenes, under the command of Al Aftakin and Al Hakem. The khalif followed his advice; and advancing against his enemies overthrew them with great slaughter; Al Aftakin himself escaped out of the battle, but was afterwards taken and brought to Al Aziz, who made him his chamberlain, and treated him with great kindness. Jawhar, in the mean time, was disgraced on account of his bad success; and in this disgrace he continued till his death, which happened A. D. 990, and in the year of the Hegira 381. This year Al Aziz having received advice of the death of Saadoddawla, prince of Aleppo, sent a formidable army under the command of a general named Manjubekin, to reduce that place. Lulu, who had been appointed guardian to Saadoddawla's son, finding himself pressed by the Egyptians, who carried on the siege with great vigor, demanded assistance from the Greek emperor. Accordingly, he ordered a body of troops to advance to Lulu's relief, when Manjubekin, being informed of their approach, immediately raised the siege, and advanced to give them battle. An obstinate engagement ensued, in which the Greeks were at last overthrown with great slaughter. After this victory, Manjubekin pushed on the siege of Aleppo very briskly; but finding the place capable of defending itself much longer than he at first imagined, and his provisions beginning to fail, he raised the siege. The khalif upon this sent him a very threatening letter and commanded him to return before Aleppo.



He did so; and continued the siege for thirteen months; during all which time it was defended by Lulu with incredible bravery. At last the Egyptians, hearing that a numerous army of Greeks was on their way to relieve the city, raised the siege, and fled with the utmost precipitation. The Greeks then took and plundered several of the cities which Al Aziz possessed in Syria; and Manjubekin made the best of his way to Damascus, where he declared himself independent. Aziz, informed of this revolt, marched in person against him with a considerable army; but, being taken ill by the way, he expired in the twenty-first year of his reign and forty-second of his age. Aziz Billah was succeeded by his son Abu Al Mansur, surnamed Al Hakem; who, being only eleven years of age, was put under the tuition of an eunuch of approved integrity. This reign is remarkable for nothing so much as the madness with which the khalif was seized at the latter part of it. This first manifested itself by his issuing many preposterous edicts; but at length grew to such a height, that he fancied himself a god, and found no fewer than 16,000 persons who owned him as such. These were mostly the Dararians, a new sect sprung up about this time, and so called from their chief Mohammed Ebn Ishmael, surnamed Darari. He is supposed to have inspired the khalif with this impious notion; and, as Darari set up for a second Moses, he did not scruple to assert that Al Hakem was the great Creator of the universe! For this reason, a zealous Turk stabbed him in the khalif's chariot. His death was followed by a three days' uproar in the city of Cairo, during which Darari's house was pulled down, and many of his followers massacred. The sect, however, did not expire with its author. He left behind him a disciple named Hamza, who, being encouraged by the mad khalif, spread it through his dominions. This was quickly followed by an abrogation of all the Mahomedan fasts, festivals, and pilgrimages, the grand one to Mecca in particular; so that the zealous Mahomedans were now greatly alarmed, as justly supposing that Al Hakem designed entirely to suppress the worship of the true God, and introduce his own in its place. From this apprehension, however, they were delivered by the death of the khalif; who was assassinated, by a contrivance of his own sister, A. D. 1020. Al Hakem was succeeded by his son Al Thaher, who reigned fifteen years; and left the throne to a son under seven years of age, named Al Mostanser Billah. In the year 1041, a revolt happened in Syria; but Al Mostanser having sent a powerful army into that country, under the command of one Anushtekin, he not only reduced the rebels, but considerably enlarged the Egyptian dominions in Syria. In 1054 a Turk named Al Bassasiri, having quarrelled with the vizier of Al Kayem, khalif of Bagdad, fled to Egypt and put himself under the protection of Al Mostanser. The latter, imagining this would be a favorable opportunity for enlarging his dominions, and perhaps seizing on the city of Bagdad, supplied Bassasiri with money and troops. By this assistance he was enabled to possess himself of Arabian Irak, and ravaged that province to the very gates of Bagdad. On this,

Al Kayem wrote to Togrol Beg, or Tugluc, the Turkish sultan, to come to his assistance. The sultan immediately complied, and soon arrived at Bagdad with a formidable army of eighteen elephants. Of this Bassasiri gave notice to Al Mostanser, and intreated him to assist himself further for his support against so powerful an enemy. This was accordingly done; nothing worthy of notice happened till the year 1062, when Bassasiri having excited Ibrahim, the sultan's brother to revolt, Togrol Beg was obliged to employ all his force against him. This gave Bassasiri an opportunity of seizing on the city of Bagdad; and the unfortunate khalif, according to some, was taken prisoner, or, according to others, fled. Bassasiri, on his entry, caused Al Mostanser to be immediately proclaimed in all the quarters of the city. Al Kayem's son he caused to be led on a camel through the streets of Bagdad, dressed in a woollen gown, with a high red bonnet, and a leathern collar about his neck; a man lashing him behind. He being sewed up in a bull's hide, with his horns placed over his head, and hung on hooks, he was beaten without ceasing till he died. The imperial palace was plundered, and the khalif himself detained a close prisoner. His success was but short lived; for, in 1066, Togrol Beg defeated his brother Ibrahim, took him prisoner and strangled him. He then marched to Bagdad, which Bassasiri abandoned at his approach. Here the khalif Al Kayem was delivered up by Mahras, the governor of a city called Haditha, who had the charge of him; he was immediately restored to his dignity, and Bassasiri no sooner understood, than he advanced towards the city. Against him Togrol Beg sent a part of his army under several of his generals, while he himself followed with the rest. A battle ensued, in which the army of Bassasiri was defeated, and he himself killed. His body was brought to Togrol Beg, who caused it to be carried on a pike through the streets of Bagdad. Thus the hopes of Al Mostanser were entirely frustrated; and from this period we may date the declension of the Egyptian empire under the khalifs. They had made themselves masters of almost all Syria; but no sooner was Bassasiri's bad success known, than the younger part of the citizens of Aleppo revolted, and set up Mahd Azzoddawla, who immediately had siege to the citadel. Al Mostanser sent a powerful army against him, which Azzoddawla entirely defeated, and took the general himself prisoner; and after this he made himself master both of the city and citadel, with all their dependences. In his dominions he behaved with the greatest cruelty, destroying every thing with fire and sword, and making frequent incursions into the neighbouring provinces, which he treated in the same manner. This disaster was soon followed by others, and more terrible. In 1066 a famine raged in Egypt and Syria, with such fury, that dead cats were sold for four or five Egyptian coins each, and other provisions in proportion. Multitudes of people died in Cairo for want of bread. In 1068 a famine raged in Egypt and Syria, so great was the scarcity, that the vizier and one servant left who was able to go to the khalif's palace, and to whom they



of his horse when he alighted at the gate. At his return, he was surprised to find that his horse had been carried off, killed, and by the famished people. Complaining to the khalif, he caused three of them to be carried off the horse to be hanged. Nay, however, he was still more surprised, that all the flesh had been picked off the of the three unhappy criminals, so that but the skeletons was left. And to such a degree of misery were the inhabitants, not only so but through all Egypt, reduced, that carcasses of those who died were sold for food at great price. The khalif at this time is to have showed the greatest kindness and clemency towards his unhappy subjects; in that of 10,000 horses, mules, and camels, which he had in his stables when the famine began, he had only three left when it moved. The famine was followed by a plague; and this by an invasion of the Turks Abu Ali Al Hassan Haseeroddawla, the general who had been sent against the rebel Isma'ila and defeated by him. He began besieging the khalif in his own palace; the unhappy prince being in no condition to resistance was obliged to buy himself off at the expense of every thing valuable that was in his exhausted capital. This, however, did not hinder these merciless plunderers from ravaging all the Lower Egypt from Cairo to Alexandria, and committing the most horrid crimes through that whole tract. This happened in 1067 and 1068; and in 1069 and 1070 happened two other revolts in Syria: so that the country was now almost entirely ruined. He died the khalif Al Mostanser, having lived sixty years; and was succeeded by his son Al Kasem, surnamed Al Mostali. The remarkable transaction of this prince's reign, his taking the city of Jerusalem from the crusaders in 1098: but this success was only of short duration; for it was, the same year, taken by the crusaders. From this time to 1164, Egyptian history affords little else than an account of the intestine broils and contests between the viziers, who were now become so powerful that they had in a great measure stripped the khalifs of their civil power, and left them with but a shadow of spiritual dignity. These events at last gave occasion to a revolution, which ended the race of Fatemite khalifs was extinguished: a revolution which was accomplished in the following manner. One Shawer, who had overcome all his competitors, became the khalif Al Aded, the eleventh khalif of Egypt. He had not been long in possession of that office, when Al Dargam, an officer of rank, endeavoured to depose him of it. Both parties quickly had recourse to arms; and a battle ensued, in which the khalif was defeated, and obliged to fly to Nuroddin, prince of Syria, by whom he was graciously received, and who promised to reinstate him in his office of vizier. As an inducement to him to assist him more powerfully, Shawer told him that the crusaders had landed in Egypt, and were making a considerable progress in the conquest of it. He promised also, that, in case he

was reinstated in his office, he would pay Nuroddin annually the third part of the revenues of Egypt; and would, besides, defray the whole expense of the expedition. As Nuroddin bore an implacable hatred to the Christians, he readily undertook an expedition against them, for which he was to be so well paid. He therefore sent an army into Egypt, under the command of Shawer and a general named Asadoddin. Dargam, in the mean time, had cut off so many generals whom he imagined favorable to Shawer's interest, that he thereby weakened the military force of the kingdom, and in a great measure deprived himself of the power of resistance. He was thus easily overthrown by Asadoddin, and Shawer reinstated in the office of vizier. The faithless minister, however, no sooner saw himself firmly established in his office, than he refused to fulfil his engagements to Nuroddin by paying the stipulated sums. Upon this, Asadoddin seized Pelusium and some other cities. Shawer then entered into an alliance with the crusaders, and Asadoddin was besieged by their combined forces in Pelusium. Nuroddin, however, having invaded the Christian dominions in Syria, and taken a strong fortress, called Harem, Shawer and his confederates thought proper to hearken to some terms of accommodation, and Asadoddin was permitted to depart for Syria. In the mean time Nuroddin, having subdued the greatest part of Syria and Mesopotamia, resolved to make Shawer feel the weight of his resentment. He therefore sent back Asadoddin into Egypt with a sufficient force, to compel Shawer to fulfil his engagements: but this the vizier took care to do before the arrival of Asadoddin; and thus, for the present, avoided the danger. It was not long, however, before he gave Nuroddin fresh occasion to send this general against him.

That prince had now driven the crusaders almost entirely out of Syria, but was greatly alarmed at their progress in Egypt; and consequently offended at the alliance which Shawer had concluded with them, and which he persisted in observing. This treaty was also thought to be contrived on purpose to prevent Shawer from being able to fulfil his promise to Nuroddin, of sending him annually a third of the revenues of Egypt. Nuroddin therefore again despatched Asadoddin into Egypt, in 1166, with a sufficient force, and attended by the famous Saladin, his own nephew. They entered the kingdom without opposition, and totally defeated Shawer and the crusaders. They next made themselves masters of Alexandria; and, after that, overran all the Upper Egypt. Saladin was left with a considerable garrison in Alexandria; but Asadoddin was no sooner gone, than the crusaders laid siege to that city. This at last obliged Asadoddin to return to its relief. The great losses he had sustained in this expedition probably occasioned his agreeing to a treaty with Shawer, by which he engaged to retire out of Egypt, upon being paid a sum of money. Asadoddin was no sooner gone, than Shawer entered into a fresh treaty with the Franks. By this new alliance he was to attack Nuroddin in his own dominions, as he was at



that time engaged in quelling some revolvers, which would effectually prevent his sending any more forces into Egypt. This treaty so provoked the Syrian prince, that he resolved to suspend his other conquests for some time, and exert his whole strength in the conquest of Egypt. By this time the crusaders had reduced Pelusium, and made a considerable progress in the kingdom, as well as in some other countries, through the divisions which reigned among the Mahomedan princes. In such places as they conquered, they put many to the sword, Christians as well as Mahomedans; selling the rest for slaves, and giving up the towns to be plundered by the soldiers. From Pelusium they marched to Cairo; which was then in no posture of defence, but in the utmost confusion, by reason of the divisions which reigned in it. Shawer, therefore, as soon as he had heard of their approach, caused the ancient quarter called Mesr to be set on fire, and the inhabitants to retire into other parts. He also prevailed upon the khalif to solicit the assistance of Nuroddin; which the latter was indeed much inclined to grant, as it gave him the fairest opportunity both of driving the crusaders out of Egypt, and of seizing the kingdom to himself. For this purpose he had already raised an army of 60,000 horse under his general Asadoddin; and, on the receipt of Al Aded's message, gave them orders to set out immediately. The crusaders were now arrived at Cairo; and had so closely besieged that place, that neither Shawer nor the khalif knew any thing of the approach of the Moslem army, which was hastening to their relief. The vizier, therefore, finding it impossible to hold out long against the enemy, had recourse to his old subterfuge of treaties and high promises. He sent the enemy 100,000 dinars, and promised them 900,000 more, if they would raise the siege; which they, dreading the approach of Asadoddin, very readily accepted. The army of Nuroddin now approached the capital by hasty marches, and were every where received with the greatest demonstrations of joy. Asadoddin, on his arrival at Cairo, was invited by Al Aded to the royal palace, where he, with Saladin and the other principal officers were most magnificently treated. Shawer was no less assiduous in attending punctually upon them. But, having invited the general and some others to an entertainment, he had formed a scheme of having them seized and murdered. The plot, however, being discovered, Shawer's head was cut off, and Asadoddin was made vizier in his stead. He died, however, two months and five days after his instalment, and was succeeded by his nephew Saladin. The new vizier was the youngest of all the grantees who aspired to that office, but had already given some signal proofs of his valor. Some of his rivals were highly displeased with his promotion, and even publicly declared that they would not obey him. To gain these to his interest, therefore, Saladin distributed among them part of the vast treasures left by his uncle; by which means he soon governed Egypt without control. Soon after his being installed into office, he totally defeated the negroes who guarded the royal palace, and had opposed his election; by which means, and

by placing a strong garrison in Cairo, his power became firmly established. Though he had no intention of con-  
allegiance to Nuroddin, he did not  
dent at first to declare himself. His  
father, however, and the rest of his  
were in Nuroddin's dominions, in-  
said, to make them partakers of  
and happiness. Nuroddin did not  
to deny this request; though he  
jealous of the great power of Sal-  
sisted that his family should consid-  
as one of his generals in Egypt.  
derstanding subsisted between Ni-  
Saladin for some time, which co-  
raise the credit of the latter with th-  
In 1169 Nuroddin sent him order  
name of Al Aded, the khalif of E-  
public prayers, and substitute that  
of Bagdad in its place. This was  
attempt; as it might have produced  
favor of Al Aded; and at any rate  
ladin an opportunity of engrossing  
small remnant of power which wa-  
khalif. Al Aded, however, was no  
his disgrace: for he was on his de-  
past recovery, when Nuroddin's  
executed. After his death, Saladin  
his wealth and valuable effects: wh-  
of jewels of prodigious size, sum-  
ture, a library containing 100,000

His family he caused to be closely  
the most retired place of the palace  
manumitted his slaves, or kept them

Saladin was now arrived at the high  
wealth, power, and grandeur. He was  
obliged to behave with great civi-  
with regard to Nuroddin; who still  
to treat him as his vassal, and would  
him to dispute the least of his com-  
relief for advice chiefly on his father  
was a consummate politician, and ver-  
of seeing his son raised to the throne.  
He therefore advised Saladin, whilst  
Nuroddin with feigned submissions, a  
method to secure himself in the poss-  
valuable a kingdom. Nuroddin, how-  
ever, was too great a master in dis-  
be easily imposed on by others; and  
though he pretended to be well plea-  
Saladin's conduct, he was all this time  
a powerful army, with which he was  
termed to invade Egypt the follow-  
But while he meditated this expedition  
seized with a quinsy at the castle of I-  
which put an end to his life in 1174.  
though now freed from the apprehension  
a formidable enemy, did not venture  
the title of Sovereign, while he saw  
cessor of Nuroddin at the head of a ve-  
ful army. His first care therefore was  
to himself an asylum, in case he was  
obliged to leave Egypt altogether.  
purpose he chose the kingdom of No-  
having despatched his brother Malik I-  
thither, at the head of a considerable ar-  
latter was so much struck with the  
desolate appearance of the country, he  
turned without attempting any thing.



his brother into Arabia Felix, to subdue the country, which had been for some time held by Imabi, an Arabian prince. Malek entered the country without opposition; and, having Abdalnabi to a general action, entirely defeated him, took him prisoner, and threw him into prison. He then overran and reduced under him to Saladin great part of the country, not fewer than eighty castles of considerable strength. Saladin, now sure of a convenient refuge, assumed the title of Sultan of Egypt, and was acknowledged as such by the great part of the state. The zeal of the Egyptian Fatemite khalifs, however, soon provoked rebellion. One Al Kanz, or Kanzanad, governor of a city in Upper Egypt, raised a great army of blacks, or rather natives; and, marching into the lower Egypt, was there joined by great numbers of Egyptians. Against them Saladin despatched his brother Malek, who soon entirely dispersed them. This, however, did not prevent another rebellion under an impostor, who pretended to be the son of Al Aded, and had collected about 100,000 men. But, before these had effected any great damage, they were surprised by the sultan's forces, and entirely defeated. Above 300 were publicly hanged, and a number perished in the field, insomuch that they left scarcely a fourth part of the whole escaped. About this time Saladin gained a considerable advantage over the Crusaders, defeated by William II. king of Sicily. That king had invaded Egypt with a numerous fleet and army, with which he laid close siege to Alexandria by sea and land. Saladin, however, sent to the relief of the city with such expedition, that the crusaders were seized with a sudden panic, and fled with the utmost precipitation, leaving all their military engines, stores, and baggage behind. In 1175 the inhabitants of Alexandria begged of Saladin to accept the sovereignty of that city and its dependencies; being advised by the minister, who had the tuition of the prince, and who governed with an absolute authority. The sultan set out with the utmost expedition to Damascus, at the head of a chosen army of 700 horse. Having settled his affairs at that city, he appointed his brother Saif ad-Din governor of it; and set out for Hems, where he immediately laid siege. Making himself master of this place, he then proceeded to Hama, which soon surrendered, but he held out for some time. Saladin pretended that he accepted the sovereignty of Hama and the other places he had conquered, only as deputy to Al Malek Al Saleh, successor of Nuroddin, and who was then in Syria; and that he was desirous of sending him, who commanded in the citadel, with a detachment to Aleppo, where the young prince resided. He pleased Azzodin, that he took the oath of fealty to Saladin, and immediately set out on his journey. He had not, however, been long gone before he was, by the minister's order, taken into prison; upon which his brother had been appointed governor of the city of Hama in his absence, delivered it up to him. The sultan then marched to Aleppo, VOL. VII.

but, being vigorously repulsed in several attacks, he was at last obliged to abandon the enterprise. At the same time, Kamschlegin, Al Malek's minister or vizier, hired the chief of the Batanists or Assassins, to murder him; but the attempts made in consequence miscarried. See ASSASSINS. After raising the siege of Aleppo, Saladin returned to Hems, which the crusaders had invested. On his approach, however, they retired; after which, the sultan made himself master of its strong castle. This was soon followed by the reduction of Balbec; and these rapid conquests so alarmed the ministers of Al Malek, that, entering into a combination with some of the neighbouring princes, they raised a formidable army, with which they designed to crush the sultan at once. Saladin, fearing the event, offered to cede Hems and Hamah to Al Malek, and to govern Damascus only as his lieutenant; but these terms being rejected, a battle ensued in which the allied army was utterly defeated, and the shattered remains of it shut up in Aleppo. This produced a treaty, by which Saladin was left master of all Syria, excepting only the city of Aleppo and its territory. In 1176 Saladin returned from the conquest of Syria, and made his triumphal entry into Cairo. Here, having rested himself and his troops for some time, he began to encompass the city with a wall 29,000 cubits in length, but which he did not live to finish. Next year he led a very numerous army into Palestine against the crusaders. But here his usual good fortune failed him. His army was entirely defeated; 40,000 of his men were left dead on the field; and the rest fled with so much precipitation, that, having no towns in the neighbourhood where they could shelter themselves, they traversed the vast desert between Palestine and Egypt, and scarcely stopped till they reached the capital itself. Thus the greatest part of the army perished; and, as no water was to be had in the desert, almost all the cattle died of thirst before the fugitives arrived on the confines of Egypt. Saladin himself seemed to have been greatly intimidated; for in a letter to his brother Al Malek, he told him, that he was more than once in the most imminent danger; and that God, as he apprehended, had delivered him, to reserve him for the execution of some grand and important design. In 1182 he set out on an expedition to Syria with a formidable army, amidst the acclamations and good wishes of the people. He was, however, repulsed with loss both before Aleppo and Al Mawasel, after having spent much time and labor in besieging these two important places. In the mean time a most powerful fleet of European ships appeared on the Red Sea, which threatened the cities of Mecca and Medina with the utmost danger. The news of this armament no sooner reached Cairo, than Abu Beer, Saladin's brother, who had been left viceroy, caused another to be fitted out with all speed under the command of Lulu, a brave and experienced officer; who quickly came up with them, and a dreadful engagement ensued. The Christians were defeated after an obstinate resistance, and all the prisoners butchered in cold blood. This proved such a terrible blow to the Europeans, that they never more ventured on a like at-



tempt. In 1183 Saladin continued to extend his conquests. The city of Amida in Mesopotamia surrendered to him in eight days; after which, being provoked by some violences committed by Amadoddin, prince of Aleppo, he resolved to make himself master of that place. His army being now numerous, he pushed on the siege with the utmost vigor; upon which Amadoddin capitulated, on condition of being allowed to possess certain cities in Mesopotamia, which had formerly belonged to him, and being ready to attend the sultan on whatever expedition he pleased. After the conquest of Aleppo, Saladin took three other cities, and then marched against the crusaders. Having sent out a party to reconnoitre, they fell in with a considerable detachment of Christians, whom they easily defeated, taking about 100 prisoners, with the loss of only a single man on their side. The sultan, animated by this first instance of success, advanced against the crusaders, who had assembled their whole army at Sepphoris in Galilee. On viewing the sultan's troops, however, and perceiving them to be greatly superior in strength to what they had at first apprehended, they declined an engagement, nor could Saladin with all his skill force them to it. But, though he found it impossible to bring the crusaders to a decisive engagement, he harassed them greatly, and destroyed great numbers of them. He also carried off many prisoners, dismantled three of their strongest cities, laid waste their territories, and concluded the campaign with taking another strong town. For three years Saladin continued to gain ground on the crusaders, yet without any decisive advantage; till 1187, when the cruel ravages committed in their territories obliged the Christians to venture a battle. Both armies, therefore, being resolved to exert their utmost efforts, a most fierce and bloody battle ensued. Night prevented victory from declaring on either side, and the fight was renewed with equal obstinacy next day. The victory was still left undecided; but on the third day Saladin's troops, finding themselves surrounded by the enemy on all sides but one, and there also hemmed in by the river Jordan, so that there was no room to fly, fought like men in despair, and at last gained a most complete victory. Vast numbers of the Christians perished on the field. A large body retired to the top of a neighbouring hill covered with wood; but being surrounded by Saladin's troops, who set fire to the wood, they were all obliged to surrender at discretion. Some of them were butchered by their enemies, as soon as they delivered themselves into their hands, and others thrown into irons. Among the latter were the king of Jerusalem himself, Arnold prince of Al Shawee and Al Carac, the masters of the Templars and Hospitallers, with almost the whole body of the latter. So great was the consternation of the Christians on this occasion, that one of Saladin's men is said to have taken thirty of them prisoners, and tied them together with the cord of his tent, to prevent them from making their escape. The masters of the Templars and Hospitallers, with the knights acting under them, were no sooner brought into Saladin's presence,

than he ordered them all to be put to death. After the engagement, Saladin sent a magnificent tent, placing the king of Jerusalem on his right hand, and Arnold prince of Shawbee and Al Carac on his left. He drank to the former, and at the same time presented him a cup of snow water. This was received; and the king immediately drank to the prince of Al Carac, who sat near him. 'Not, said Saladin, suffer this cursed drink; as that, according to the generous custom of the Arabs, would have cost him his life.' Then turning towards the king, he reproached him with having undertaken an expedition while in alliance with him, and having intercepted an Egyptian caravan at a time of profound peace, and thus brought upon the people of which it was composed, withstanding all this, he told him, 'I will grant him his life, if he would embrace Islamism. This condition, however, he refused; and the sultan, with one blow of his scymitar, cut off the prince's head. He then notified the king of Jerusalem; but he assured him he had nothing to fear, as Arnold had brought on himself a curse by his want of common honesty. The king being thus totally defeated and dispersed, he next laid siege to Tiberias, which he captured, as did also Acca or Ptolemais, where he found 4000 Mohammedan prisoners, whom he immediately released. As the inhabitants of Acca enjoyed a very extensive commerce, he found there not only vast sums of money, but likewise a great variety of valuable goods, which he seized. About the same time, the fortress of Al Malek attacked and took a fortress in the neighbourhood; after which Saladin divided his army into three bodies, and soon made himself master of Nesopolis, Sepphoris, and other cities in the neighbourhood of Ptolemais, where his soldiers killed the women and children, the men having been killed or taken prisoners. His next object was Joppa, which was taken by him after a vigorous resistance. Every thing being settled, and a distribution made of the booty and captives, Saladin marched in person to Tebrien, a strong fortress in the neighbourhood of Sidon; which he took by assault, after a siege of six days, and ordered the fortress to be razed, and the garrison put to the sword. From Tebrien he proceeded to Sidon, which he captured by its prince, surrendered almost without the first summons. Berytus was next taken, and surrendered in seven days. Among the prisoners Saladin found in this place the prince of the territory called Hobeil, who by way of ransom delivered up his dominions to him, and was consequently released. About the same time a Christian ship, in which was a nobleman of great courage and experience in war, was taken in the harbour of Ptolemais, not knowing that he was in the hands of Saladin. The prisoner was easily secured the vessel; but she, taking advantage of the opportunity, she escaped to Tyre. The above-mentioned nobleman, together with the prince of Hobeil, contributed not a little to retrieve the affairs of the Christians, and



to make a stand for four years longer. In the mean time went on with his conquest. Having made himself master of Ascalon, after a siege of fourteen days, he next invested Jerusalem. The garrison was numerous, and made an obstinate defence; but Saladin having made a breach in the walls by sapping, the besieged desired to capitulate. This was refused; upon which the Christian ambassador boldly said to him:—'If that be the case, O sultan, know that we who are extremely numerous, and have been restrained from fighting like men in despair, only by the prospect of an honorable capitulation, will kill all wives and children, commit all our wealth to combustible effects to the flames, massacre 5000 persons now in our hands, leave not a single person of burden or animal of any kind belonging alive, and level with the ground the rock you now sacred, together with the temple Al Aksa. I doubt this we will sally out upon you in a body; I doubt not but we shall either cut to pieces a greater number of you than we are, or compel you to abandon the siege.' This desperate speech had such an effect upon Saladin, that he immediately called a council of war, at which all the general officers declared, that it would be more proper to allow the Christians to depart unmolested. The sultan therefore allowed them to depart freely with their wives, children, and their effects; after which he received ten talents from every man who was capable of paying a sum, five from every woman, and two from every young person under age. For the rest who were not able to pay any thing, the sultan the inhabitants raised the sum of 30,000 talents. Most of the inhabitants of Jerusalem were escorted by a detachment of Saladin's army to Tyre; and, soon after, he advanced his army against that place. As the port was locked up by a squadron of five men of Saladin imagined that he should easily become master of it. But in this he found himself mistaken. For one morning, by break of day, a Christian fleet fell upon his squadron, and defeated it; nor did a single vessel escape pursuit. A considerable number of the Christians threw themselves into the sea during the engagement; most of whom were killed, though some few escaped. About the same time Saladin himself was vigorously repulsed by land; so that, after calling a council of war, it was thought proper to raise the siege. In consequence Saladin reduced the city of Laodicea and others, together with many strong castles; and yet also with several repulses. At last he returned the road to Antioch; and having reduced the fortresses that lay in his way, many of which had been deemed impregnable, Bohemond, Prince of Antioch, was so much intimidated that he offered a truce for seven or eight months. Saladin found himself obliged to comply on account of the prodigious fatigues his army had sustained, and because his auxiliaries demanded leave to return home. All these losses of the Christians, however, proved to the Muslims an advantage, as they were thus enabled to lay aside their animosities, which had formerly proved the ruin of their affairs. Those

who had defended Jerusalem, and most of the other fortresses taken by Saladin, having retreated to Tyre, formed there a very numerous body. This proved the means of preserving that city, and also of re-establishing their affairs for the present. For, having received powerful succours from Europe, they were enabled, in 1189, to take the field with 30,000 foot and 2000 horse. Their first attempt was upon Alexandretta; from whence they dislodged a strong party of Mahomedans, and made themselves masters of the place with very little loss. They next laid siege to Ptolemais; of which Saladin had no sooner received intelligence, than he marched to its relief. After several skirmishes with various success, a general engagement ensued, in which Saladin was defeated with the loss of 10,000 men. This enabled the Christians to carry on the siege of Ptolemais with greater vigor; which place, however, they were not able to reduce for two years. This year the sultan was greatly alarmed, by an account that the emperor of Germany was advancing to Constantinople with an army of 260,000 men, to assist the other crusaders. This prodigious armament, however, came to nothing. The multitude were so reduced with sickness, famine, and fatigue, that scarcely 1000 of them reached the camp before Ptolemais. The siege of that city was continued, though with bad success on the part of the Christians. They were repulsed in all their attacks, their engines were burnt with naphtha, and the besieged always received supplies of provisions in spite of the utmost efforts of the besiegers; while a dreadful famine and pestilence raged in the Christian camp, which sometimes carried off 200 people a-day. In 1191 the Christians received powerful succours from Europe. Philip II. of France, and Richard I. of England, arrived before the camp at Ptolemais. The latter was esteemed the bravest and most enterprising of all the generals the crusaders had; and the spirits of his soldiers were greatly elated by the thoughts of acting under such an experienced commander. Soon after his arrival, the English sunk a Mahomedan ship of vast size, having on board 650 soldiers, and a great quantity of arms and provisions, going from Berytus to Ptolemais. Of the soldiers and sailors who navigated this vessel, only one person escaped; who, being taken prisoner by the English, was despatched to the sultan with the news of the disaster. The besieged still defended themselves with the greatest resolution; and, the king of England happening to fall sick, the operations of the besiegers were delayed. On his recovery, however, the attacks were renewed with such fury, that the inhabitants found themselves under a necessity of surrendering the place. One of the terms of the capitulation was, that the crusaders should receive a very considerable sum of money from Saladin, upon delivering up their Mahomedan prisoners. With this article Saladin refused to comply; in consequence of which, Richard caused 3000 of those unfortunate men to be slaughtered at once. After the reduction of Ptolemais, the king of England, now made generalissimo of the crusaders, took the road to Ascalon in order to besiege that place; after which, he intended to



three weeks, three days, and three hours; soon after which Richard set out on his return to England. In 1193 Saladin died, to the inexpressible grief of the Mahomedans, who held him in the utmost veneration. His dominions in Syria and Palestine were divided among his children and relations into many petty principalities. His son Othman succeeded to the crown of Egypt; but, as none of his successors possessed the enterprising genius of Saladin, the history from that time to 1250 affords nothing remarkable.

In 1250 the reigning sultan, Malek Al Salek, was dethroned and slain by the Mamelukes or Mamlouks, as they are called, a kind of mercenary soldiers who served under him. In consequence of this revolution, the Mamelukes became masters of Egypt, and chose a sultan from among themselves. These Mamelukes were originally young Turks or Tartars, sold to private persons by the merchants, from whom they were bought by the sultan, educated at his expense, and employed to defend the maritime places of the kingdom. The reason of this institution originally was, that the native Egyptians were become so cowardly, treacherous, and effeminate, from a long course of slavery, that they were unfit for arms. The Mamelukes, on the contrary, made most excellent soldiers; for, having no friends but among their own corps, they turned all their thoughts to their own profession. According to M. Volney, they came originally from Mount Caucasus, and were distinguished by the flaxen color of their hair. The expedition of the Tartars, in 1227, proved indirectly the means of introducing them into Egypt. These horrible conquerors, having slaughtered and massacred till they were weary, brought along with them an immense number of slaves of both sexes, with whom they filled all the markets in Asia. The Turks purchased about 12,000 young men, whom they bred up in the profession of arms, in which they soon attained to great perfection; but at last, becoming mutinous, they turned their arms against their masters, and in 1250 deposed and murdered the

new militia obtained the more expedient the Mamelukes able to secure themselves they were mistaken. In Mamelukes grew proud, the Borgites, taking advantage of their masters, deprived them and transferred it to themselves. The Borgites, however, Mamelukes; and became valor. They were almost in wars either foreign or domestic lasted till 1517, when by Selim I., the Turkis lukes defended themselves notwithstanding which, numbers, they were defeated. The same year, 1517, Cairo, was taken, and all of those who defended it Bey, was forced to fly; and his forces, he ventured in most romantic efforts of valour sufficient to cope with the Mamelukes, which composed the Tur men were cut in pieces, and himself was at last obliged to fly. He was dragged through a marsh where he had stood up to his knees, and soon after put to death. The glory, and almost the Mamelukes, who were now extinct, and cut in pieces.

Selim gave a specimen of his power every day after his being seated on the throne. It was by the death of Tuman Bey, a theatre to be erected, on the banks of the Nile, he had upwards of 30,000, to be executed, and their bodies were thrown into the Nile. But notwithstanding this, he did not attempt the total extinction of the Mamelukes, but seems to have established a pacha in Egypt, with powers with which he

notify to this council the orders of the to send the tribute to Constantinople, and for the safety of government both external and internal; while, on the other hand, the members of the council had a right to reject the orders of the pacha, or even of deposing him, and they could assign sufficient reasons. All and political ordinances must also be approved by them. Besides this, he formed the whole kingdom of Egypt with our able armies, nevertheless our benevolence is willing to grant to the twenty-four provinces of Egypt (see SANGIAC) a republic with the following conditions. 1. Our sovereignty shall be acknowledged as a republic; and, in token of their obedience, our lieutenant shall be received as our representative, but to do nothing against our republic; but, on the contrary, shall cooperate with it for its welfare on all occasions. Or, if he shall attempt to infringe any privileges, the republic is at full liberty to depose him from his authority, and to send our Sublime Porte a complaint against him. 2. In time of war the republic shall maintain 12,000 troops at its own expense, to be commanded by a sangiac or sangiacs. 3. The republic shall raise annually and send to our Sublime Porte the sum of 560,000 aslans (see aslan), accompanied by a sangiac, who shall deliver a satisfactory receipt, &c. 4. The same shall be raised for the use of Medina, and Mecca. 5. No more troops or janissaries shall be kept by the republic in time of peace than 14,000; but in time of war they may be increased to oppose our and the republic's interests. 6. The republic shall send annually a granary, out of the produce of the country, 100 of casis (twenty-five occas, see OCCA), measures of corn, viz. 600,000 of wheat, and 100 of barley. 7. The republic, fulfilling these articles, shall have a free government like the inhabitants of Egypt, independent of our lieutenant; and shall execute the laws of the country with the advice of the mollah, or priest, under our authority, and that of our lieutenants. 8. The republic shall be in possession of the mint as heretofore; but with the condition that it shall be under the inspection of our lieutenant, that the coin may not be adulterated. 9. That the republic shall elect a bey out of the number of beys, to be approved by our lieutenant; and that the said bey shall be our representative, and shall be confirmed by all our lieutenants, and all our beys, both of high and low rank, as the head of the republic; and if our lieutenant is guilty of oppression, or exceeds the bounds of his authority, the said bey shall represent the grievances of the republic to our Sublime Porte. But in case any foreign enemy or ene- mies disturb the peace of the republic, we and our lieutenants engage to protect it with our power, until peace is re-established, at any cost or expense to the republic. And signed by our clemency to the republic

of Egypt.' Thus the power of the Mamelukes still continued in a very considerable degree, and gradually increased so much as to threaten a total loss of dominion to the Turks. During the last sixty years, the Porte having relaxed from its vigilance, such a revolution took place, that the Turkish power is now almost reduced to nothing. But to understand this we must consider the way in which the race of Mamelukes was continued or multiplied in Egypt. This is not in the ordinary way, by marriage; on the contrary, M. Volney assures us, that 'during 550 years in which there have been Mamelukes in Egypt, not one of them has left subsisting issue; all their children perish in the first or second descent. Almost the same thing holds good with regard to the Turks; and it is observed, that they can only secure the continuance of their families by marrying women who are natives, which the Mamelukes have always disdained. The means by which they are perpetuated and multiplied are the same by which they were first established, viz. by slaves brought from their original country. From the time of the Moguls this commerce has been continued on the banks of the Cuban and Phasis, in the same manner as it is carried on in Africa by the wars among the hostile tribes, and the misery or avarice of the inhabitants, who sell their children to strangers. The slaves thus procured are first brought to Constantinople, and afterwards dispersed through the empire, where they are purchased by the wealthy. When the Turks subdued Egypt (says M. Volney), they should undoubtedly have prohibited this dangerous traffic; their omitting which seems about to dispossess them of their conquest, and which several political errors have long been preparing. For a considerable time the Porte had neglected the affairs of this province: and, in order to restrain the pachas, had suffered the divan to extend its power till the chiefs of the janissaries and azabs were left without control. The soldiers themselves, become citizens by the marriages they had contracted, were no longer the creatures of Constantinople: and a change introduced into their discipline still more increased these disorders. At first the seven military corps had one common treasury; and, though the society was rich, individuals not having any thing at their own disposal, could effect nothing. The chiefs finding their power diminished by this regulation, got it abolished, and obtained permission to possess distinct property, lands, and villages. And as these lands and villages depended on the Mameluke governors, it was necessary to conciliate them, to prevent their oppressions. From that moment the beys acquired an ascendancy over the soldiers, who till then had treated them with disdain: and this continually increased, as their government procured them considerable riches. These they employed in creating friends. They multiplied their slaves; and, after emancipating them, employed all their interest to advance them in the army. These upstarts, retaining for their patrons the same superstitious veneration common in the East, formed factions implicitly devoted to their pleasure.' Thus, about 1746, Ibrahim, one of the kiyas of the



janizaries (see *KIAYA*), rendered himself in reality master of Egypt; having managed matters so well, that of the twenty-four beys, or sangiacs, eight were of his household. His influence too was augmented by always leaving vacancies, in order to enjoy the emoluments himself, while the officers and soldiers of his corps were attached to his interest; and his power was completed by gaining over Rodoan, the most powerful of all the colonels, to his interest. Thus the pacha became altogether unable to oppose him, and the orders of the sultan were less respected than those of Ibrahim. On his death, in 1757, his family, i.e. his enfranchised slaves, continued to rule in a despotic manner. Waging war, however, among each other, Rodoan and several other chiefs were killed; but, in 1766, Ali Bey, who had been a principal actor in the disturbances, overcame his enemies, and for some time rendered himself absolute master of Egypt. Of this man there are various accounts. The following is given by M. Volney:—It is supposed that Ali was born among the Abazans, a people of Mount Caucasus; from whom, next to the Circassians, the slaves most valued by the Turks are obtained. Having been brought to a public sale at Cairo, Ali was bought by two Jew brothers, named Isaac and Yousef, who made a present of him to Ibrahim. At this time he is supposed to have been about thirteen or fourteen years old, and was employed by his patron in offices similar to those of the pages belonging to European princes. The usual education was also given him, viz. that of learning to manage a horse well; fire a carbine and pistol, and throw the djerid, a kind of dart used in the diversions of that country. He was also taught the exercise of the sabre, and a little reading and writing. In all these feats of activity he discovered such impetuosity, that he obtained the surname of Djendali, or the madman; and, as he grew up, discovered an ambition proportionable to the activity displayed in his youth. About the age of eighteen or twenty Ibrahim gave him his freedom; the badge of which among the Turks is letting the beard grow, for among that people it is thought proper only for women and slaves to want a beard. By his kind patron also he was promoted to the rank of kachef, or governor of a district, and at last elected one of the twenty-four beys. By the death of Ibrahim, in 1757, he had an opportunity of satisfying his ambition; being now engaged in every scheme for the promotion or disgrace of the chiefs, and having had a principal share in the ruin of Rodoan, Rodoan's place was quickly filled by another, who did not long enjoy it; and in 1762 Ali Bey, then styled Sheik el Beled, having got Abdelrahman, the possessor, exiled, procured himself to be elected in his room. However, he soon shared the fate of the rest, being condemned to retire to Gaza. This town, being under the dominion of a Turkish pacha, was by no means a safe retreat; for which reason, Ali having turned off to another place, kept himself concealed for some time, until in 1766 his friends at Cairo procured his recall. On this he appeared suddenly in that city; and killed in one night four

of the banish to him satisfie depen sultan the pa and in own n eve of leisure so the forwa His t prince his fa that t ed wi protec unfort cution Venet of Me India make Indie view, mann bey I seize Moba Both ing to with quest sideri own t cumst his se again: Dama extort Havir tions, Mam secur pacha the ir troop fly or their offeri the e end i Bey 60,00 be tw as fo whol from infan of th const other 2000 up' l armi the fi orde

the armies of the Turks and Mamelukes are but a confused multitude of horsemen uniforms, on horses of all colors and without either keeping their ranks or serving any regular order.' This rabble took road to Acre, leaving wherever they passed marks of their rapacity and want of discipline. At Acre a junction was formed with troops of sheik Daher, consisting of 1500 men, the name of sheik Daher's subjects, a village of Galilee, originally under the domination of the Mamelukes. These were on horseback, and accompanied by 1200 Mutualis cavalry, under the command of sheik Nasif, and about 1000 Mameluk infantry. Thus they proceeded to Damascus, while Osman prepared to meet them by another army equally numerous and regulated. 'The Asiatics,' says M. Voltaire, are unacquainted with the elements of war. Their armies are mere mobs, their marches, their campaigns inroads, and their battles bloody frays. The strongest or most adventurous party goes in quest of the other, which frequently flies without making any resistance. If they stand their ground they engage pell mell, discharge their carbines, break their spears, and hack each other with their sabres; for they have seldom any cannon, and when they have, they are but of little service. A panic frequently diffuses itself without cause; one party flies, the other shouts victory; the vanquished submit to the will of the conqueror, and the campaign often terminates without a battle. Such, in a great measure, were the military operations in Syria in 1771. The combined army of Ali Bey and sheik Daher marched to Damascus. The pachas waited for them; they approached, and, on the 6th of June, a decisive action took place: the Mamelukes and Safadians rushed on the Turks with such fury, that, terrified at their courage, they immediately took flight, and the pachas were not the last in endeavouring to make their escape. The allies became masters of the country, and took possession of the city without opposition, there being neither walls nor soldiers to defend it. The castle alone resisted. Its ruinous fortifications had not a single cannon, much less gunners; but it was surrounded by a muddy ditch, and behind the ruins were posted a few musqueteers; and these alone were sufficient to check this army of cavalry.—As the besieged, however, were already conquered by their fears, they capitulated the third day, and the place was to be surrendered next morning, when, at day-break, a most extraordinary revolution took place. This was no less than the defection of Mohammed Bey himself, whom Osman had gained over in a conference during the night. At the moment, therefore, that the signal of surrender was expected, this treacherous general sounded a retreat, and turned towards Egypt with all his cavalry, flying with as great precipitation as if he had been pursued by a superior army. Mohammed continued his march with such celerity, that the report of his arrival in Egypt reached Cairo only six hours before him. Thus Ali Bey found himself at once deprived of all his expectations of conquest; and, what was worse, found a traitor whom he durst not punish at the head

of his forces. A sudden reverse of fortune now took place. Several vessels laden with corn for Sheik Daher were taken by a Russian privateer; and Mohammed Bey, whom he designed to have put to death, not only made his escape, but was so well attended, that he could not be attacked. His followers continuing daily to increase in number, Mohammed soon became sufficiently strong to march towards Cairo; and, in April 1772, having defeated the troops of Ali in a rencontre, entered the city sword in hand, while the latter had scarce time to make his escape with 800 Mamelukes. With difficulty he was enabled to get to Syria by the assistance of Sheik Daher, whom he immediately joined with the troops he had with him. The Turks under Osman were at that time besieging Sidon, but raised the siege on the approach of the allied army, consisting of about 7000 cavalry. Though the Turkish army was at least three times their number, the allies did not hesitate to attack them, and gained a complete victory. Their affairs now began to wear a more favorable aspect; but the military operations were retarded by the siege of Yafa, which had revolted, and though defended only by a garden wall, without any ditch, held out for eight months. In the beginning of 1773 it capitulated, and Ali Bey began to think of returning to Cairo. For this purpose Sheik Daher had promised him succours; and the Russians, with whom he had now contracted an alliance, made him a similar promise. Ali, however, ruined every thing by his own impatience. Deceived by an astrologer, who pretended that the auspicious moment when he was highly favored by the stars was just arrived, he set out without waiting for the arrival of his allies. He was also farther deceived by a stratagem of Mohammed, who had by force extorted from the friends of Ali Bey letters pressing his return to Cairo, where the people were weary of his ungrateful slave, and wanted only his presence in order to expel him. Ali Bey accordingly set out with his Mamelukes and 1500 Safadians given him by Daher; but no sooner entered the desert which separates Gaza from Egypt, than he was attacked by a body of 1000 chosen Mamelukes who were lying in wait for his arrival. They were commanded by a young Bey, named Mourad; who, being enamoured of the wife of Ali Bey, had obtained a promise of her from Mohammed, in case he could bring him her husband's head. As soon as Mourad perceived the dust by which the approach of Ali Bey's army was announced, he rushed upon him, attacked and took prisoner Ali Bey himself, after wounding him in the forehead with a sabre. Being conducted to Mohammed Bey, the latter pretended to treat him with extraordinary respect, and ordered a magnificent tent to be erected for him; but in three days he was found dead of his wounds, as was given out; though some affirm, with equal probability, that he was poisoned. After the death of Ali Bey, Mohammed took upon him the supreme dignity; but this change of masters proved of very little service to the Egyptians. At first he pretended to be only the defender of the rights of the sultan, remitted the usual tribute to Constantinople, and took the customary oath



of unlimited obedience: after which he solicited permission to make war upon Sheik Daher, the ally of Ali Bey. The reason of this request was a mere personal pique; and, as soon as it was granted, he made the most diligent preparations for war. Having procured an extraordinary train of artillery, he provided foreign gunners, and gave the command of them to an Englishman, named Robinson. He brought from Suez a cannon sixteen feet long, which had for a considerable time remained useless; and at length, in February 1776, he appeared in Syria with an army equal to that which he had formerly commanded under Ali Bey. Daher's forces, despairing of being able to cope with such a formidable armament, abandoned Gaza, of which Mohammed immediately took possession, and then marched towards Yafa. The history of this siege M. Volney gives as a specimen of the Asiatic manner of conducting operations of the kind. 'Yafa,' says he, 'the ancient Joppa, is situated on a part of the coast, the general level of which is very little above the sea. The city is built on an eminence, in the form of a sugar-loaf, in height about 130 feet perpendicular. The houses, distributed on the declivity, appear rising above each other, like the steps of an amphitheatre. On the summit is a small citadel, which commands the town; the bottom of the hill is surrounded by a wall without a rampart, of twelve or fourteen feet high, and two or three in thickness. The battlements on the top are the only tokens by which it is distinguished from a common garden wall. This wall, which has no ditch, is environed by gardens, where lemons, oranges, and citrons grow in this light soil to a most prodigious size. The city was defended by 500 or 600 Sa-fadians and as many inhabitants, who, at the sight of the enemy, armed themselves with their sabres and musquets; they had likewise a few brass cannon, twenty-four pounders, without carriages; these they mounted as well as they could, on timbers prepared in a hurry: and, supplying the place of experience by hatred and courage, they replied to the summons of the enemy with menaces and cannon shot. Mohammed, finding he must have recourse to force, formed his camp before the town; but was so little acquainted with the business that he advanced within half cannon-shot. The bullets, which showered upon the tents, apprising him of his error, he retreated; and, by making a fresh experiment, was convinced he was still too near. At length he discovered the proper distance, and set up his tent, in which the most extravagant luxury was displayed: around it, without any order, were pitched those of the Mamelukes, while the Barbary Arabs formed huts with the trunks and branches of the orange and lemon trees, and the followers of the army arranged themselves as they could: a few guards were distributed here and there; and, without making a single entrenchment, they called themselves encamped. Batteries were now to be erected, and a spot of rising ground was made choice of to the south-east of the town, where, behind some garden walls, pieces of cannon were pointed, at 200 paces from the town, and the firing began, notwithstanding the musquetry of the enemy, who,

from the to gunners. It thick, and a large breach to mount, but lukes were were told the sented, for must have their huge l barrased w crooked sab their sides, ruins of the conquered was surmou a better jud empty spac where they windows of bullets, that think of sett persuasion t cable, since horseback. times back t passed in th tracted with sieged, howe by the repe fending alor sons began proposed to giving hosta and the trea when, in the this belief, s numbers of attempted fended them the whole ar suffered all t dren, young and Moham caused a pyi unfortunate of his victorj ror and cons Sheik Daher became mas with his usu to be plund merchants c procured w even this lil Mohammed, him, Kiaya c place, made threatening death if the duced. A research; b self died of illness. Hi the army r Daher conti was at last to Constanti high admira



er known in Egypt, than Mourad Bey has-  
 to Cairo in order to dispute the sovereignty  
 Ibrahim Bey, who had been entrusted with  
 overment on his departure from that place  
 yria. Preparations for war were made on  
 sides; but at last both parties, finding that  
 contest must be attended with great diffi-  
 as well as very uncertain in the event,  
 to an accommodation, by which it was  
 that Ibrahim should retain the title of

El Beled, and the power should be di-  
 between them. But now the beys and  
 who had been promoted by Ali Bey, per-  
 their own importance totally annihilated  
 his new faction, resolved to shake off the  
 and therefore united in a league under the  
 of the House of Ali Bey. They conducted  
 matters with so much silence and dexterity,  
 both Mourad and Ibrahim were obliged to  
 on Cairo. In a short time, however, they  
 and defeated their enemies though three  
 their number; but, notwithstanding this  
 ss, it was not in their power totally to sup-  
 the party. This indeed was owing en-  
 to their unskilfulness in the art of war, and  
 operations for some time were very trifling.  
 it, a new combination having been formed  
 of the beys, five of them were sentenced to  
 ment in the Delta. They pretended to  
 ly with this order, but took the road of  
 desert of the Pyramids, through which  
 were pursued for three days to no pur-

Arriving safe at Miniah, a village  
 ed on the Nile, four leagues above Cairo,  
 took up their residence, and, being masters  
 river, soon reduced Cairo to distress by  
 epting its provisions. Thus a new expe-  
 became necessary, and Ibrahim took the  
 and of it upon himself. In October, 1783,  
 out with an army of 3000 cavalry; the  
 mies soon came in sight of each other, but  
 m thought proper to terminate the affairs  
 gociation. This gave such offence to Mou-  
 who suspected some plot against himself,  
 e left Cairo. A war betwixt the two rivals  
 w daily expected, and the armies continued  
 twenty-five days in sight of each other, only  
 ted by the river. Negotiations took place;  
 e five exiled beys finding themselves aban-  
 by Mourad, took to flight, but were pur-  
 und brought back to Cairo. Peace seemed  
 o be re-established; but, the jealousy of  
 o rivals producing new intrigues, Mourad  
 once more obliged to quit Cairo in 1784.  
 ing his camp, however, directly at the gates  
 city, he appeared so terrible to Ibrahim,  
 he latter thought proper in his turn to re-  
 the desert, where he remained till March  
 . A new treaty then took place; by which  
 als agreed to share the power between them.  
 that time, we have no accounts of any re-  
 dible transaction in Egypt till the French  
 ed that country in 1798; and of this, with  
 ents that followed, we shall now take a  
 survey.

ong all the powers which the conduct of  
 rench republicans brought against them,  
 Britain was the most formidable; the rulers  
 ance, therefore, made her humiliation a

leading object in all their designs; and they  
 were most likely to effect this by the destruction  
 of her commerce. The French then looked for-  
 ward, through Egypt, to the subjugation of the  
 East Indies; and, to execute this daring and  
 desperate undertaking, Buonaparte was appointed  
 commander in chief of the army of the East. In  
 this station he accordingly embarked at Toulon  
 with about 35,000 men, and after stopping at  
 Malta, which he plundered, he pursued his voy-  
 age for the coast of Egypt, where he arrived on  
 the 1st of July 1798. The army disembarked  
 the same night, and on the 2nd they reached  
 Alexandria, which was taken by assault on the  
 evening of the 5th. From Alexandria the French  
 marched for Cairo, in the course of which they  
 had several skirmishes with the Mamelukes; but  
 arrived on the 20th within six miles of Grand  
 Cairo, which surrendered on the 23d of the same  
 month. On the 25th the French general attacked  
 one of the enemy's posts at Lambabe, in which  
 about 300 of the enemy fell; but this was only  
 a prelude to the battle of the Pyramids, which  
 took place on the 26th, and from the issue of  
 which the French appeared masters of Egypt.  
 Of about 10,000 Mamelukes, 1000 were killed,  
 1000 drowned, and the rest fled, many of them  
 wounded: 400 camels loaded with baggage, 300  
 horses richly accoutred, and fifty pieces of artil-  
 lery, fell into the hands of the conquerors. But  
 though the good fortune of Buonaparte seemed  
 thus far to have followed him in Egypt, he soon  
 experienced a reverse of an irreparable nature.  
 This was no less than the destruction of his fleet:  
 an event so disastrous to him, he appeared to  
 have no suspicion of, and its effects, heightened  
 by the disappointment he met with at Acre, were  
 displayed in his future desperate conduct. After  
 the surrender of Cairo, Buonaparte formed his  
 army into three divisions, one of which, under  
 Desaix, he destined for Upper Egypt, to pursue  
 the flying Mamelukes; another he appointed for  
 the defence of Cairo, while he marched himself,  
 at the head of the third, in pursuit of Ibrahim  
 Bey, who had taken his route towards Syria  
 with a valuable caravan. In order, however, to  
 oppose and prevent the execution of Buonaparte's  
 designs in Egypt, the British government entered  
 into an alliance with the Porte, and a plan was  
 concerted betwixt them, the chief preparations  
 for the accomplishment of which were made in  
 Syria, under the superintendence of the pacha  
 Djeddar. An army from Asia Minor was to  
 make an attack upon the frontiers of Egypt to-  
 wards Syria, while its operations were to be  
 favored by making a powerful diversion towards  
 the mouths of the Nile, as well as by different  
 assaults to be made in Upper Egypt, with the  
 remains of Mourad Bey's army. Sir Sidney  
 Smith sailed from Portsmouth to direct the exe-  
 cution of this extensive plan, and to co-operate,  
 as much as possible, towards its success, with  
 the maritime force under his command. Care  
 was taken, in the mean time, to block up the har-  
 bour of Alexandria with four ships of the line and  
 five frigates, under the command of commodore  
 Hood, who, without the assistance of a land  
 force sufficient to attack Alexandria, found  
 impracticable to burn or destroy the French fleet



of transports. The report that the French vessels in the old port were burnt, he also found to be groundless; and he had made no use of the light vessels sent him by the combined fleet of Turks and Russians. Buonaparte, understanding what was going on, quickly formed the design of leaving Egypt, and of marching into Syria, for the purpose of destroying the preparations of the pacha Djezzar, and of disconcerting the plans of Sir Sidney Smith; but the result of this enterprise proved the reverse of the hero's expectations. Jaffa, the ancient Joppa, did not surrender till it had made an obstinate defence, and even then it was only to the superiority of European tactics. From Jaffa the hitherto triumphant general marched his army, in three divisions, against St. Jean d'Acre; but here he was obliged to stop, for the pacha, encouraged and supported by Sir Sidney Smith, baffled all his attempts upon the place, during a siege of about two months; and, after the loss of nearly the half of his army, he was forced to return to Egypt. Perhaps, however, the ultimate cause of Buonaparte's mortification at Acre, was the interception of his heavy artillery by the British, on their way from Damietta and Rosetta. The French troops reached Grand Cairo in twenty-six days after raising the siege of Acre; yet, in the course of this rapid march, they ravaged the whole country, burnt the harvests, destroyed the defences of the different ports, the magazines, and every thing that could be of avail to the Turks in approaching the frontiers of Egypt. In the mean time Sir Sidney Smith, with the greatest promptitude, had continued the execution of the remaining parts of the plan of operations against the French in Egypt, in which he was seconded by the increasing zeal of the Turks. Seid Mustapha Pacha had assembled, at the different ports in the island of Rhodes, the troops which were to attack Alexandria, under the conduct of European officers; and the combined fleet of Turkey and Britain were to sail for Egypt as soon as a convoy, to be sent by the captain pacha, then lying at anchor in the Dardanelles, should arrive at Rhodes. Buonaparte, on his part, was no less active: after subduing, in a great measure, a spirit of rebellion which had been industriously raised in the minds of the inhabitants in his absence, he turned his attention to the re-organisation of his army, which had suffered severely in the expedition to Syria; and so assiduous was he in this matter, that his troops were fit for action in about three weeks. But when in the neighbourhood of the Pyramids, intending to pursue Mourad Bey in his retreat to Fayoum, intelligence was brought him from Alexandria, that a Turkish fleet of 100 ships had anchored in the bay of Aboukir, from which 3000 troops had landed, and taken the fort of Aboukir by assault, and massacred the garrison of 500 men. He accordingly directed his officers to lead their forces towards the place of landing, and appointed the first rendezvous of the army to be at Ramanieh, on the left bank of the Nile. General Murat, with the advanced guard under him, took the route to Gizeh, and the moveable column under general Menou, together with the park of artillery and the staff, formed a junction at Ramanieh on the 20th of

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ilitary implements: Mourad him- with difficulty, and being obliged ough the inhospitable deserts of in quest of an asylum, and the life. This man having been a midable opponent to the French, ined, if possible, to cut him off, urpose, he quickly organised two fantry, mounted on dromedaries, mand of one himself, and giving jutant-general Boyer, who came up in the desert of Sediman on the r, after a forced march of three days. ate conflict ensued, in which the emed determined to get possession aries, but the republicans soon put and pursued them back to the de- ish fleet of eighteen sail had come re Damietta on the 24th September, end of October, was increased to with Sir Sidney Smith on board naval commander. From this st November, about 4000 Turks who were quickly attacked by r at the head of 1000 men; and ual the contest would seem, the id, lost no fewer than 3000 men oners, including Ismael Bey the mand, thirty-two stand of colors, e of cannon. This was succeeded of battles of less note, in which the French was various; and they ng to evacuate Egypt upon cer- s, which were signed at El-Arish ber and Sir Sidney Smith. These, afterwards rejected, through a icy not easily accounted for, and t started against the evacuation ich, in the opinion of some, was h to be desired by the remains of e east, while the republicans re- ere was any occasion for such a ing out that they had still 20,000 in that quarter of the globe, sharing he affections of the inhabitants. re accordingly renewed, and the l Kleber, though now in unfavora- ces, after defeating the Turks with mbers, took Cairo by storm, and nce with Mourad Bey; but was af- erously assassinated by a janissary, ng the commander with a memo- usal. Upon this, after some other cularly Reynier, had declined the d, it was accepted of by Menou; riance had subsisted between him sed suspicions that he had hired but the dying assertions of the was impaled alive, his right hand l his body left to be devoured by demonstrated these to be ground- sheiks who were in the secret of designs, but revealed nothing of ere beheaded. Sir Sidney Smith t Wright to Cairo with proposals enou respecting the evacuation of he general's answer was anxiously e combined powers, as the grand olved to march against the enemy

with 30,000 men, if he did not listen to the pro- posals. They were soon given to understand that he would hearken to no overtures of accom- modation which they could make; for he had resolved to advance against Syria with the prin- cipal part of his army. This was an enterprise in which Buonaparte had failed, when opposed by Sir Sidney Smith: but Menou had lately been joined by a number of the Beys, with a view o. securing their independence, having been alarmed with the idea that the sublime Porte was deter- mined to subdue Egypt and destroy the Mame- lukes: among others, the junction of Mourad Bey was of considerable importance to Menou, on this occasion. Alexandria, Damietta, and Rosetta, were strongly fortified by Menou, who also finished the lines begun by colonel Bromley at Aboukir, making several important addi- tions; every place was put in such a state of defence, as appeared to defy any attack from the Turks. Great Britain, in the mean time, had determined on compelling the French troops to evacuate Egypt, that all apprehensions might be quieted respecting the East Indies from that quarter; and, with this view, an army was or- ganised for the invasion of Egypt, the command of which was given to one of the most eminent and worthy officers of the brilliant age in which he lived, general Sir Ralph Abercromby. The ships with the troops anchored in the bay of Aboukir on the 2nd of March, but on account of the unfavorableness of the weather they did not begin to disembark till the morning of the 8th. In order to oppose the landing of the British forces, about 4000 of the French had marched from Alexandria, and taken their station on the heights of Aboukir; thus an action soon took place between the hostile armies, but after about two hours fighting the republicans retreated, and they were pursued to the walls of Alexandria. Passing over the skirmishing occurrences of the few following days, an action of the utmost moment took place on the 21st of March, when the French ad- vanced with their whole force, amounting to 11,000 men, and attacked the British, about four miles from Alexandria, two hours before day-break. They commenced by a false attack on the left of the British army, but were still more desirous to have turned the right of their opponents, which they attempted in vain. Nor were they more successful in their attack upon the central division. The conflict, however, was obstinate and bloody; and though the French were completely defeated, with the loss of 3000 men killed and wounded (among whom were three generals; Roize, who was left dead on the field, and Lanusse and Rodet, who both died of their wounds soon after), this was not effected without considerable loss on the part of the British, who had soon to lament the death of their illustrious commander. The brave general Abercromby 'was mortally wounded early in the action, but continued delivering his orders with that coolness and perspicuity which ever dis- tinguished him. His situation was not known till after the battle, when, having fainted with loss of blood, he was carried on board lord Keith's ship, where he died eight days after the



engagement, in which, like Epaminondas, and like Wolfe, he lost his life, after having led on his soldiers to a glorious victory.' Had it not been for the inferiority of the British cavalry (the wretched horses they were obliged to purchase at Marmorice Bay) to that of the enemy, whose retreat was also covered with cannon on the top of the hills, British valor would have this day completed the purpose for which it was displayed in this quarter. But general (since lord) Hutchinson, succeeding the gallant Abercromby as commander in chief of the British forces, was now to direct them to the expulsion or the excision of the French. The town and castle of Rosetta were taken by a division of the British army under colonel Spencer, aided by a body of the Turks; and early in May a strong detachment was sent against Cairo. On the 19th of the same month the French were attacked near Ramanieh, by a body of the Turks assisted by the British when they were repulsed, and obliged to retire towards Cairo; and about the middle of June the city of Cairo was invested on all sides by the united forces of the British and the grand vizier. On the 22nd of June the garrison of Cairo sent a flag of truce to the British general, and, after a negociation of several days, a convention was agreed to, by which the French troops at Cairo and its dependencies were to be conveyed in ships of the allied powers, and at their expense, together with their baggage, arms, ammunition, and effects, to the nearest French ports in the Mediterranean. Alexandria held out some time longer, and Menou had resolved on defending it to the last, but he was soon obliged to surrender, upon the conditions of the convention of Cairo, for himself and the army under his command; and thus the whole of Egypt was left in the possession of the allies. After the evacuation of Egypt, by the French, the English endeavoured to effect a reconciliation between the Mamelukes and the Turks, to restore the former government of the country: but the Turks treacherously assassinating a number of the beys, the remainder fled into Upper Egypt, and the Porte, being unable to subdue them, concluded a treaty with them, allowing them the possession of that part of the country. In consequence, however, of mutinies and intestine contentions among the Turkish troops, the Mamelukes soon returned into Lower Egypt, making the country a scene of anarchy and confusion, alternately ravaged by the contending parties. A small body of British troops, under the command of general Fraser, again landed on the coast of Egypt, on the 17th of March 1807, to whom the town and fortress of Alexandria surrendered on the 21st of the same month, though they were afterwards unfortunate; but as this enterprise took place in consequence of a rupture betwixt Britain and the Ottoman Porte, through the ascendancy of the French ambassador in the Turkish councils, it will fall more properly to be noticed under the article TURKEY.

At this period Mohammed Aly, the present pacha of Egypt, had recently been invested with that authority. He is a singular despot who, beginning his career in blood (for in the year

1811 he butchere improve seems to fruitful at this t in the p extenuat orders f corps, w and whi the pac required Wahabe in corre med, he receptio which 1 powerfu did he f M. Me proache this tre replied togethe ghien, the moi

Moh state of Wahab had tak of whic present also th shrine with al Ghaleb avarice discove part, h seize a dered l which and, as Porte.

The rite pre Europo instanc chiefs : broke : zaars a with se muner the ex Pacha, the W: bled t Syria nity, a made i and la depart the h Mohar grand victori The attent

ry on each side of the Nile, as far as Sen- under his subjection, and for this purpose it an army, under his youngest son Ismael. e activity and rapid progress of this young s, his humanity and traits of generosity ls his prisoners and the conquered inha- s, several instances are recorded. One act of severity, however, proved fatal to

He had ordered, when at Sennaar, one chiefs of that country to be bastinadoed, eized the first favorable occasion to avenge lf. Ismael had gone to a village at some distance from Sennaar, with a small guard ty men; the chief, with a party, followed hither, and, surprising his lodgings by stabbed him to the heart with a poniard, ost of his guards fell in the scuffle.

e of the objects of this expedition was that uiting his army with the blacks of Sennaar, y, Kordofan, and the neighbouring coun- which was accomplished to the number of 16,000 to 18,000 men. These unhappy were all of them, in the first place, vac- d, and were then instructed in manual ex- and military evolutions, in the European by some French officers. The hopes of cha, however, were greatly disappointed in black troops. They were strong able- men, and not averse from being taught; hen attacked by disease, which soon broke t the camp, they died like sheep infected e rot; such was the dreadful mortality that l, that, out of 18,000 of these unfortunate 1000 did not remain alive at the end of two

now had recourse to a regular conscrip- of the Arabs or Fellahs, of whom he seized 30,000 indiscriminately, and had them con- to Upper Egypt under a military guard. with the remains of the black slaves, a rbers, and the Mameluke officers, com- he pacha's present army. Twelve Euro- chiefly Italians, were employed as instruc- at their head is placed colonel Léve, ly aid-de-camp to Marshall Ney. A conscription took place in 1814, of 15,000 it being the intention of Mohammed Aly p up an army of 40,000 men, one batta- which is to be stationed at Alexaudria, rained as marines for his navy, which is sist of forty vessels of different rates, the a being entirely Arabs. His adoption of ean tactics has been thought by some ers to be preparatory to throwing off his nce to the Porte, to whom it is supposed given irreparable offence by his former tion of the Greeks: he has lately, how- made the amende honorable, we presume, expedition against the Greeks; and his ts to the Porte have been splendid and nt.

again advert to the statistical and other arities of this interesting country, with a o furnishing the reader with the latest ation of travellers on these points.

river Nile, when swelled by the rains fal. in Abyssinia, begins to rise in Egypt the month of May; but the increase is in- erable till towards the end of June, when

it is proclaimed by a public crier through the streets of Cairo. About this time it has usually risen five or six cubits; and, when it has risen to sixteen, great rejoicings are made, and people cry out Waffah Allah, i. e. God has given abundance. This commonly takes place about the end of July, or before the 20th of August; and the sooner it takes place, so much the greater are the hopes of a good crop. Sometimes, though rarely, the necessary increase does not take place till later. In 1705 it did not swell to sixteen cubits till the 19th of September, the consequence of which was, that the country was depopulated by famine and pestilence. We may easily imagine, that the Nile cannot overflow the whole country of itself, in such a manner as to render it fertile. There are, therefore, innumerable canals cut from it across the country, by which the water is conveyed to distant places, and almost every town and village has one of these canals. In those parts of the country which the inundation does not reach, and where more water is required than it can furnish, as for watering of gardens, &c., they have recourse to artificial means for raising it from the river. Formerly they made use of Archimedes's screw, but now, in place of it, they have the Persian wheel. This is a large wheel turned by oxen, having a rope hung with several buckets which fill as it goes round, and empty into a cistern at the top. Where the banks of the river are high, they frequently make a basin in the side of them, near which they fix an upright pole, and another with an axle across the top of that, at one end of which they hang a great stone, and at the other a leathern bucket; this bucket, being drawn down into the river by two men, is raised by the descent of the stone, and emptied into a cistern placed at a proper height. This kind of machine is used chiefly in the upper parts of the country, where the raising of water is more difficult than in places near the sea. When any of their gardens or plantations want water, it is conveyed from the cisterns into little trenches, and from thence conducted all round the beds in various rills, which the gardener easily stops by raising the mould against them with his foot, and diverts the current another way as he sees occasion. The rise of the inundation is measured by an instrument adapted for the purpose, called mikeas, which we translate nilometer. It is a round tower near Cairo, with an apartment, in the middle of which is a cistern neatly lined with marble. The bottom of this cistern reaches to that of the river, and there is a large opening by which the water has free access to the inside. The rise of the water is indicated by an octagonal column of blue and white marble, on which are marked twenty cubits of twenty-two inches each. The two lowermost have no subdivisions, but each of the rest is divided into twenty-four parts, called digits; the whole height of the pillar being thirty-six feet eight inches. When the river has attained its proper height, all the canals are opened, and the whole country laid under water. During the time of the inundation a certain vertical motion of the waters takes place; but, notwithstanding this, the Nile is so easily managed, that many fields



lower than the surface of its waters are preserved from injury merely by a dam of moistened earth, not more than eight or ten inches in thickness. This method is used particularly in the Delta when it is threatened with a flood. As the Nile does not always rise to a height sufficient for the purposes of agriculture, the former sovereigns of Egypt were at vast pains to cut proper canals to supply the deficiency. Those which convey the water to Cairo, into the province of Fayoom, and to Alexandria, have always been best taken care of by the government.

The lands inundated by the Nile, as we have observed, are exceedingly fertile; and though they have successively from year to year, without intermission, borne one and frequently two crops, and without any rational system of invigoration by manure or otherwise, for more than 3000 years, they still continue to do the same without any perceptible impoverishment, and without any further tillage than the adventurous top-dressing of black slimy mould, by the overflowing of the river. But the productiveness of the soil, where the inundation does not reach, has been greatly over-rated. The crops of wheat in particular are scanty, not above five or six for one; but for maize and dourra, or millet, the soil appears to be peculiarly adapted; and these two species of grain, with rice, lentils, and various kinds of pulse, constituting the principal food of nine-tenths of the inhabitants, allowed the government, who usurped the monopoly, to export the greater part of the wheat produced. Since the peace of Europe, however, this branch of commerce has nearly ceased, in consequence of the increased cultivation of that grain in other countries. At one period not less than 800 or 900 European vessels annually sailed from Alexandria, for Marseilles, Genoa, Leghorn, Trieste, Malta, and Constantinople, freighted with articles of raw produce in exchange for hard money or for the manufactures of those respective countries; while two or three cargoes were all that could be got together for England. But, in the year 1821, an experiment was made by an English merchant, of a cargo of linseed for crushing; when it was found that, notwithstanding the freight (on account of the greater distance) doubled that which is paid from Russia, it would answer as a return for British exports, if relieved from the heavy quarantine duty, to which Baltic seed is not subject; this duty was accordingly mitigated by the lords of the treasury, and, in consequence, the exportation direct from Egypt to England increased last year to 25,000 quarters, and gave employment to more than twenty British ships. An article of the very first importance to the commerce and manufactures of England has recently been raised in Egypt, and to such an extent as to have surpassed all expectation. We allude to cotton wool, not of the usual coarse kind hitherto grown in Egypt, but of a very superior quality, raised from Brasil seed. The first essay was made by order of the pacha, in the year 1822, when the crop yielded about 25,000 bags, of two cwt. each. A few bags of this cotton, sent to Liverpool on

trial, were per pound. interval, b South of t abundant t the countri it is calcula exported to year; and of this use neglected, and digging Nile; so th double that years will, what is now is by no m supply acqu consideration in British s increase of

Mohamm opening the ones. Amos is particular the harbour Fouah; by can be brou to the port c when a sci Europe, shij abundance; of the Nile, weather aloi veyed in tin Alexandria, which ultim others went came incalc was now th canal were s set about th laboring cla requisition, provide bise and district it. The Ar and tens of chiefs, along however exa best authori ployed at on about six we ed, and the p occupations; were called and make th siderable bu eight miles i from fifteen opened wil cember 1819

Until late were at a v Even the mc sions are stil their cabinet is clumsy; powder and



still indifferent. The only thing in which they can be said to have arrived at any degree of perfection, is the manufacture of silk stuffs; though even these are far less highly finished than those of Europe, and likewise bear a much higher price. One extraordinary art indeed is still extant among the Egyptians, and appears to have existed in that country from the most remote antiquity; a power of enchanting the most deadly serpents in such a manner, that they allow themselves to be handled, nay even hurt and wounded severely, without offering to bite the person who injures them. Those who have this art are named *PSYLLI*, or serpent charmers. But the pacha has introduced colleges and academies for the instruction of youth in foreign languages and mathematics; afforded toleration to all the European and other religious sects; and encouraged the practice of vaccination and the surgery and pharmacy of Europe.

Mr. Bruce gives a long account of the sources of the vast quantities of marble, met with in the remains of ancient buildings in this country; and which supplied in ancient times, we know, the materials of many of the public buildings of Italy. These he discovered during his journey from Kenne to Cosseir on the Red Sea, before he went to Abyssinia. At Hamra the Porphyry Mountains and quarries begin, the stone of which is at first soft and brittle; but the quantity is immense, as a whole day was taken up in passing by them. These Porphyry Mountains begin in the latitude of nearly  $24^{\circ}$ , and continue along the coast of the Red Sea to about  $22^{\circ} 30'$ , when they are succeeded by the marble mountains; these again by others of alabaster, and these last by basaltic mountains. From the marble mountains our author selected twelve kinds, of different colors, which he brought along with him. Some of the mountains appeared to be composed entirely of red and others of green marble, and by their different colors afforded an extraordinary spectacle. Not far from the Porphyry Mountains the cold was so great, that his camels died on his return from Abyssinia, though the thermometer stood no lower than  $42^{\circ}$ . Near Cosseir he discovered the quarries whence the ancients obtained those immense quantities of marble, with which they constructed so many wonderful works. The first place, where the marks of their operations were very perceptible, was a mountain much higher than any they had yet passed, and where the stone was so hard that it did not yield to the stroke of a hammer. In this quarry he observed that some channels for conveying water terminated; which, according to him, shows that water was one of the means by which these hard stones were cut. In four days, during which our author travelled among these mountains, he says, that he had 'passed more granite, porphyry, marble, and jasper, than would build Rome, Athens, Corinth, Syracuse, Memphis, Alexandria, and half a dozen such cities.' It appeared to him that the passages between the mountains and what he calls defiles, were not natural but artificial openings; where even whole mountains had been cut out, in order to preserve a gentle slope towards the river. This descent

Mr. Bruce supposes not to be above one foot in fifty; so that the carriages must have gone very easily, and rather required something to retard their velocity than any force to pull them forward. Concerning the mountains in general, he observes, that the porphyry is very beautiful to the eye, and is discovered by a fine purple sand without any gloss. An unvariegated marble of a green color is generally met with in the same mountain; and where the two meet, the marble becomes soft for a few inches, but the porphyry retains its hardness. The granite has a dirty brown appearance, being covered with a sand; but, on removing this, it appears of a gray color with black spots, with a reddish cast all over it. The granite mountains lie nearer to the Red Sea, and seem to have afforded the materials for Pompey's pillar. The redness above mentioned seems to go off on exposure to the air; but re-appears on working or polishing the stone farther. The red marble is next to the granite, though not met with in the same mountain. There is also a red kind with white veins, and vast quantities of the common green serpentine. Some samples of that beautiful marble named Isabella, were likewise observed; one of them of that yellowish cast called quaker color, the other of the bluish kind named dove color. The most valuable kind is that named *verde antico*, which is found next to the Nile in the mountains of serpentine. It is covered by a kind of blue fleaky stone, somewhat lighter than a slate, more beautiful than most kinds of marble, and when polished having the appearance of a volcanic lava. In these quarries the *verde antico* had been uncovered in patches of about twenty feet square. There were small pieces of African marble scattered about in several places, but no rocks or mountains of it; so that our author conjectures it to lie in the heart of some other kind. The whole is situated on a ridge with a descent to the east and west, by which means it might easily be conveyed either to the Nile or Red Sea; while the hard gravel and level ground would readily allow the heaviest carriages to be moved with very little force. In the Red Sea in lat.  $25^{\circ} 3'$ , at a small distance from the south-west coast, there is an island called the Mountain of Emeralds; but none of these precious stones are to be met with there. Here, as well as on the continent, there were found many pieces of a green pellucid substance; but veined, and much softer than rock crystal, though somewhat harder than glass. A few yards up the mountain he found three pits, which are supposed to have been the mines whence the ancients obtained the emeralds; but, though many pieces of the green substance above mentioned were met with about these pits, no signs of the true emerald could be perceived. The substance, however, he conjectures to have been the *smaragdus* of the Romans. In the mountains of Cosseir, as well as in some places of the deserts of Nubia, our author found some rocks exactly resembling petrified wood. The only metal said by the ancients to be produced in Egypt is copper. On the road to Suez are found great numbers of Egyptian flints and pebbles, though the bottom is a hard, calcareous,



and sonorous stone. Volney tells us that the stones above-mentioned, which resemble petrified wood, are to be met with here. They are in the form, he says, of small logs cut slanting at the ends, and might easily be taken for petrifications, though he thought them real minerals.

Besides camels, horses, asses, mules, sheep, black cattle, and other domestic *quadrupeds*, there are many wild animals in Egypt; particularly tigers, hyenas, antelopes, crocodiles, apes with heads resembling those of dogs, hippopotamuses, ichneumons, chameleons, yellow lizards, and a species of rats resembling ferrets, remarkably useful for destroying the crocodiles' eggs. Among the feathered tribe, there are ostriches, eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water fowls of various kinds, among which last the most remarkable is the ibis, a bird of the duck kind, which was deified by the ancient Egyptians, on account of its usefulness in destroying serpents, and noxious insects. These are numerous, and among the different species of serpents the cerastes, or horned viper, abounds, whose bite proves mortal, except to those who have the secret of charming it.

F. Sicard mentions two salt lakes situated in the desert west of the Delta, three or four leagues in length, and about a quarter of a league in breadth, with a solid and stony bottom. For nine months in the year they are without water; but in winter there oozes out of the earth a reddish violet-colored water, which fills the lakes to the height of five or six feet. This being evaporated, by the return of the heat, there remains a bed of salt two feet thick and very hard, which is broken in pieces with iron bars: and from these lakes no less than 30,000 quintals of salt are procured every year.

Besides the ordinary winds before mentioned, Egypt is infested, as we have also intimated, with the destructive blasts common to all warm countries which have deserts in their neighbourhood. These have been distinguished by various names, such as poisonous winds, hot winds of the desert, Samiel, the wind of Damascus, Kamsin, and Simoom. In Egypt they are denominated 'winds of fifty days, because they most commonly prevail during the fifty days preceding and following the equinox, though, should they blow constantly during one-half of that time, a universal destruction would be the consequence. Of these travellers have given various descriptions. M. Volney says that the violence of their heat may be compared to that of a large oven at the moment of drawing out the bread. They always blow from the south, and are undoubtedly owing to the motion of the atmosphere over such vast tracts of hot sand, where it cannot be supplied with a sufficient quantity of moisture. When they begin to blow, the sky loses its usual serenity, and assumes a dark, heavy, and alarming aspect, the sun laying aside his usual splendor, and becoming of a violet color. This terrific appearance seems not to be occasioned by any real haze or cloud in the atmosphere at that time, but solely by the vast quantity of fine sand carried along by those winds, and which is so excessively subtle that it penetrates every where. The motion of this wind is always rapid, but its

heat is not for some time so violently oppressive. Moisture, skin; and, in manner, so The danger, habit, or w and putrefaction of such asness is such evaporates withered a fever is ins by the sun lasts three if it continues greatest when travellers without an case is to s kerchief.

their noses the squall i an opportunity stantly shut pits made i be over. 7 which over is still more

The population or European Christians, who are supposed to be the desert. The Franks on the Mediterranean and in the not exceed dria, and th the partiality of the Turks losing these ' to this country, visions, in able enough John Stuart ing, permission harbor had been j to enter the is shallow, age dangerous harbour of Infidels. formerly part of Egypt, homedans per animal also abolished who stipulation, she which they

There are principally every kind money trans Greek Christians 3000 in Cai

**Egypt:** they were formerly the wholesale merchants who supplied the land proprietors and others with various kinds of articles, and were in general wealthy; but the monopoly of the viceroy has very considerably impoverished them. There are about 5000 descendants of the ancient Greek colonists, who form quite a distinct race from the modern Greeks: these people have lost their ancient language, and speak a kind of Arabic; many of them are mariners, but in general they pursue the inferior and handicraft trades. According to the latest computations, there are about 4000 Jews in Egypt. 3000 of whom inhabit a part of Cairo, called after them the Jews' quarter, of which the streets are so narrow as to be almost impassable; the houses are dark, crowded together, filthy, and so infectious that, when the plague breaks out, the first enquiry is, If it has appeared in the Jews' quarter?

M. Mengin, the author of *L'Histoire de l'Egypte, sous le Gouvernement de Mohammed Aly*, reckons, in Cairo, eight persons to each house, and in the provinces four. The account then stands thus:

	Houses.	Inhabit.
In Cairo . . . . .	25,000	200,000
In the provincial towns of Alexandria, Rosetta, Damietta, Old Cairo, and Boulak . . . . .	14,532	58,123
In fourteen provinces, containing 3475 villages . . . . .	564,168	2,256,272
	<hr/> 603,700	<hr/> 2,514,400

Cairo being the only city of Egypt which contains any great accumulation of inhabitants, built by Gaubar, a general in the service of the first khalif of the race of the Fatemites of Egypt, in the year 358 of the hejira (968 of the Christian era), it was surrounded with walls by Saladin. For the last 300 years its splendor has declined considerably; and the palaces of Mohammed Aly are mean and ill contrived. But here are 240 principal streets, forty-six public places, eleven bazaars, 140 schools, 300 public cisterns, and 400 mosques.

The Copts are by far the most numerous class of Christians in Egypt, amounting at least to 160,000, of whom about 10,000 inhabit the two most populous quarters of Cairo. In towns they practise different trades, but the greater part of them labor on the lands, among the Fellahs. Under the government of the Mamelukes the Copts were employed in taking an account of, and collecting, the revenues of the villages; and many of them still hold situations of this kind, and as writers about the court. They are austere and forbidding in their manners, generally silent, and wearing an air of melancholy: but are said to be tyrannical when in authority.

The oriental race of Fellahs compose the chief part of the population of Egypt, a mixture, perhaps, of ancient Egyptians, Arabians, and Syrians; they approach nearest to the Copts, in general appearance and manners, but they are rigid Mussulmen, and strictly observe the rites and ceremonies laid down by their sheiks or

priests. They labor hard on the soil, and live in the most abstemious manner on dourra, dwell in cottages of unbaked bricks, are clothed in coarse woollen cloth, and sleep on mats: those in the towns exercise handicraft trades, and keep shops in the bazaars, which they only quit to attend the mosques. Like all orientals, they are fond of frequenting coffee-houses, and listening to the tales of pretended magicians, or the rude music of strolling singers. In meekness and apathy they cannot be exceeded.

'The tented Arab,' says an able article on Egypt in the *Quarterly Review*, 'hovering with his flocks along the borders of the fertile valley of the Nile, is the same in character, manners, and customs, as he every where else is, and apparently has been, in all times since the days of the patriarchs, regarding with disdain and proud independence all other classes of mankind, but more particularly those of his own nation, who, in his eyes, have degraded themselves by taking up their abodes in fixed habitations, and whom he calls in contempt haty, or Arabs of the walls. Those who turn cultivators are equally despised, and considered in the light of Fellahs, with whom an alliance by marriage would be regarded as dishonorable. The Arab women have fine features and complexions; they are much fairer than the Egyptian women, and far more correct in their conduct. In cases of infidelity, the injured party takes the law into his own hands, and the culprit is generally punished with death.'

The Egyptian women, like other oriental females, are the mere slaves of their husbands' or their owners' caprices; and thus their degraded condition is one of the greatest obstacles to the civilisation of Egypt, and one of the last that will probably be removed, connected as it is with the precepts of the Mahomedan law. M. Mengin, however, states the women of late, whether married, or slaves from Georgia, Circassia, and Mongrelia, are allowed frequently to quit the harem, and that accompanied by a confidante, under pretext of going to the bath, or of making visits, they indulge with impunity in illicit amours.

A *cady*, or judge, sent from the Porte annually, settles all lawsuits and criminal prosecutions: under him are the sheiks and others, learned in the law. A civil process is stated to cost about 4 per cent. of the value in dispute, of which the cady takes four-fifths for himself, and gives one-fifth to the other lawyers. All minor disputes and complaints are brought before the Kiaya-bey. His officers are the Agha of the janissaries, who is charged with maintaining good order, and especially among the soldiers; the muhi, or agha of the police, who looks after the thieves and prostitutes, on both of whom he levies contributions for the support of himself and his myrmidons. The motecb regulates the weights and measures; the bache-aghia has the direction of the patrols, and the spies who frequent the coffee-houses, bazaars, and other public places; and, in addition to these, there is a head-man in every quarter of the city for settling disputes and preserving peace. This is said to be so effectually done, that the streets of Cairo are as safe as those of London, except on occa-



sions when the military break loose or want of pay, or to avenge themselves of some grievance.

Of the information upon Egypt, afforded to us by the intelligent Dr. Clarke, the following is a summary:—In his passage from Acre to Aboukir, he witnessed a phenomenon, formerly noticed, but also by some writers strenuously disputed. 'As we were sitting down to dinner, the voice of a sailor employed in heaving the lead, was suddenly heard calling 'half four!' The captain, starting up, reached the deck in an instant; and almost as quickly putting the ship in stays, she went about. Every seaman on board thought she would be stranded. As she came about, all the surface of the water exhibited a thick black mud: this extended so widely, that the appearance resembled an island. At the same time no land was really visible, not even from the mast-head, nor was there any notice of such a shallow in any chart on board. The fact is, as we learned afterwards, that a stratum of mud, extending for many leagues off the mouths of the Nile, exists in a moveable deposit near the coast of Egypt, and, when recently shifted by currents, it sometimes reaches quite to the surface, so as to alarm mariners with sudden shallows, where the charts of the Mediterranean promise a considerable depth of water. These, however, are not, in the slightest degree, dangerous. Vessels no sooner touch them than they become dispersed; and a frigate may ride secure, where the soundings would induce an inexperienced pilot to believe her nearly aground.'—Vol. iii. p. 13.

He left Rosetta on the morning of August 10th, and proceeded up the Nile to Cairo, then occupied by the English and their Turkish allies. 'A vessel leaving Rosetta, is driven by the wind,' he says, 'with extraordinary velocity against the whole force of the torrent to Cairo, or into any part of Upper Egypt. For the purpose of her return, with even greater rapidity, it is only necessary to take down the mast and sails, and leave her to be carried against the wind by the powerful current of the river. It is thus possible to perform the whole voyage from Rosetta to Bulac, the quay of Cairo, and back again, with certainty, in about seventy hours, a distance equal to 400 miles.'—p. 32.

Of the population, fertility, and beautiful groves of Lower Egypt, our traveller speaks with his usual eloquence.

Throughout the Delta irrigation is carried to a vast extent, but it is effected, for the most part, by artificial means; and an exaggerated idea of the effects of the Nile is conveyed by the beautiful description of Gray. Extensive canals on each side of the river conduct its waters to the utmost extent of their level, but the fields are many of them supplied by water-wheels, or the still simpler process of lading. The soil thus treated produces three crops in the year—clover, corn, and rice, of which the last is sown while the field is actually under water, a practice which, as Dr. Clarke observes, is alluded to by Solomon (Eccles. ii. 1). The eastern sycamore attains an enormous size, and its boughs are so bent by the prevalent winds as to make them resemble a peacock's tail. The fruit resembles

in shape the common fig, but is smaller, by insipid. The thermometer stood at 90° in shade, and the inhabitants of the country walking about or engaged in the arduous husbandry, in a state of perfect nakedness displaying a complexion of the darkest t. They arrived at Bulac at midnight, and aroused the next morning with intelligence the pyramids were in sight. What follows Dr. Clarke's best style.

'Never will the impression made by the appearance be obliterated. By reflecting that rays, they appeared as white as snow, a such surprising magnitude, that nothing previously conceived in our imagination prepared us for the spectacle we beheld. Sight instantly convinced us that no poet's description, no delineation can convey ideas adequate to the effect produced in viewing stupendous monuments. The formality of structure is lost in their prodigious magnitude, the mind, elevated by wonder, feels at one force of an axiom, which, however disagreeable experience confirms,—that in vastness, whatever its nature, there dwells sublimity. As proof of their indescribable power is, that one ever approached them under other emotions than those of terror; which is another proof of the sublime. In certain instances, an irritable feeling, this impression of awe and has been so great, as to cause pain rather than pleasure; of which we shall have to meet very striking instances in the sequel. He perhaps, have originated descriptions of the ramids, which represent them as deformed gloomy masses, without taste or beauty. Persons who have derived no satisfaction from the contemplation of them, may not have been conscious that the uneasiness they experienced a result of their own sensibility. Others acknowledged ideas widely different, existing every wonderful circumstance of character situation; ideas of duration, almost endless power, inconceivable; of majesty, supreme solitude, most awful; of grandeur, of desolation and of repose.'—Vol. ii. pp. 44—46.

Dr. Clarke's description of Cairo is short, very curious and interesting. He was sufficiently disgusted with it as the dirtiest metropolis the world; but the picturesque crowd in streets, and on its canals, and the foliage of gardens, no less than the splendid paucity from the heights of the citadel, had sufficient beauty and novelty to repay this inconvenience. Here, as in South America, the lizard a harmless inhabitant of all the gardens, and seen hanging on the walls and ceilings of the best apartments. Swarms of flies filled every dish and every drinking vessel, and the climate though extolled as delightful by the British officers who had arrived from India, appeared to Dr. Clarke only tolerable to those who could reconcile themselves to the listless and sordid activity of the natives and settled Franks. Clarke recognised in the funeral cries of the same mournful notes, and the repetition the same syllables which are used, on such occasions, by the Russians and the Irish. His observations on the mummy-pits, he is

animadvert on the falsehood of the common opinion, that the mummies were placed upright in these cemeteries, and supposes that the words of Herodotus, which have been generally quoted to this effect, relate only to those particular mummies which were kept in the houses of their descendants. The horses of our author's Arab guides were the finest he had seen in the whole course of his travels; and the Arab grooms were regarded by the English officers as superior to those even of their own country. These horses do not lie down at night, but sleep standing, with one foot fastened to the piquet.

Dr. Clarke supposes, from the decay of the obelisks at Alexandria, and from similar appearances on other ancient buildings, that granite, namely, from the decomposition of its felspar by exposure to the atmosphere, is less calculated for works of duration than pure homogeneous marble, or even than common limestone. Of the two obelisks known by the name of Cleopatra's Needles, one only is now standing. A subscription was raised by several officers of our army and navy to remove to Great Britain its fallen companion, which, as it now lies on the sand, measures seven feet square at the base, and sixty-six feet in length. Lord Cavan presided in this undertaking, which was worthy of the ancient Romans, and would, probably, have been attended with complete success, had not, for some unexplained reason, the sailors of our fleet been forbidden to assist in the labor. Dr. Clarke gives some probable reasons why the emperor named in the inscription on the base of Pompey's Pillar is not, as is generally supposed, Dioclesian but Hadrian, and attempts also to prove that this magnificent monument was really erected to the unfortunate general whose name tradition has assigned to it. The Arabs, it seems, call it the ruins of 'Julius Cæsar's palace.' Our author is among the first who has done sufficient justice to the regularity of the plan of the catacombs of Alexandria; the chaste and awful simplicity of their ornaments, and the long and gloomy arcades of this subterranean city of death. Twelve large halls, besides many smaller apartments, surrounded with places adapted to receive bodies in a recumbent posture, are disposed in a form not very dissimilar from the ancient symbol of the trident, and conclude with a circular sanctuary covered with a simple dome, which is hewn, like all the rest, in the solid rock. In this part of the excavation an ornament appears, which colonel Squire took for a crescent, but which Dr. Clarke more probably apprehended to be the winged globe, which, according to Macrobius, was the Egyptian symbol of Serapis, the lord of the dead. With this visit to Alexandria, Dr. Clarke's Egyptian travels concluded. See ALEXANDRIA.

The splendid antiquities and ancient literature of Egypt have been abundantly illustrated by recent travellers and writers. The labors of the French Institute at Cairo are entitled, perhaps, to our first notice, for their stupendous and magnificent *Déscription de l'Égypte*. We may next mention Mr. William Hamilton's *Ægyptiaca*, 4to. Lond. 1809, originating with the first British expedition. In October, 1801, captain Leake

and lieutenant Hayes were appointed by general Hutchinson, to make a survey of Egypt, and of the country beyond it, if it should be found practicable; and Mr. Hamilton joined these gentlemen in their expedition. Partly, however, on account of the disturbed state of the country, they were unable to proceed further south than a few hours' journey beyond Syene, to a village called Debôd, opposite to which they observed the ruins of Bembre, the Parembolæ of the ancients; here also they found a Greek dedication of a temple to Isis, by Ptolemy Philometor and his queen. But they collected a variety of inscriptions from other parts of Egypt, to which they added drawings and descriptions of the architectural remains to which they belonged. At Alexandria Mr. Hamilton was enabled, in company with some other gentlemen, by examining the inscription on Pompey's pillar, in different positions of the sun, to ascertain the name Dioclesian, as that of the emperor to whom it was dedicated; and to find some traces of the name of Pompeius, a prefect of Egypt under that emperor.

Mr. Legh visited Egypt in 1812, and extended his observations as far as Itrim, within about three days' journey of the second cataract of the Nile. Accompanied by the Rev. Mr. Smelt, he engaged as an interpreter, on leaving Cairo for Upper Egypt, an American, of the name of Barthow, who had resided many years in the country. They sailed on the 13th January, and their first landing was at the ruined village of Benihasen, where they visited the excavations which Norden ascribes to 'holy hermits, who made their abodes there.' The principal chamber is sixty feet in length, and forty in height; to the south of it are seventeen smaller chambers, and probably the like number to the north. Mr. Legh says, they found it difficult to follow Mr. Hamilton's descriptions of the paintings which cover the walls of the chambers. At Ashmounien, the site of the ancient Hermopolis, they partook of the enthusiasm with which Denon speaks of its splendid ruins; but Mr. Legh observes, that his delineation of them denotes the haste with which he travelled, for that the winged globe, represented by him on the frieze, does not exist in the original. Indeed, he found that Denon is very little to be depended on, where he does not copy from preceding travellers, or from the actual fragments carried away by the French. By his own account, he has drawn and described objects seen only in galloping past them; and, at the best, laboring under the horror of a hostile visit from the Arabs or Mamelukes. At Siout, which has succeeded to Girgeh, as the capital of Upper Egypt, they fell in with Burckhardt, travelling as Sheikh Ibrahim, on his way to the Great Oasis, where a tribe of Bedouins had lately established themselves. Ibrahim Bey, the eldest son of the pacha, here received them with considerable civility. Reaching Gaw-el-Kebir, the ancient Antæopolis, on the 28th, they found the porico of the temple still standing, in the midst of a thick grove of dates, and consisting of three rows, each of six columns; they are eight feet in diameter, and, with their entablature, sixty-two feet high. Mr.



Legh thinks this venerable and gigantic ruin the most picturesque in Egypt; the columns, architraves, and every part of the building, are covered with hieroglyphics. At the farthest extremity of the temple is an immense block of granite, of a pyramidal form, twelve feet high, and nine feet square at the base, in which is cut a niche, seven feet high, four feet wide, and three feet deep.

Our travellers were forcibly struck with the luxuriant fertility of the soil along the banks of the Nile, as contrasted with the wretched state of poverty and misery of the inhabitants. 'The fields, enriched by the Nile, teem with plenty; the date-trees here are loaded with fruit; cattle of every kind, poultry, and milk, abound in every village; but the wretched Arab is compelled to live on a few lentils, and a small portion of bread and water, while he sees his fields plundered and his cattle driven away, to gratify the insatiable wants of a mercenary soldier, and the inordinate claims of a rapacious governor. After having paid the various contributions, and answered the numerous demands made upon him, not a twentieth of the produce of his labor falls to his own share; and without the prospect of enjoying the fruits of his toil, the Fellah, naturally indolent himself, allows his fields to remain uncultivated, conscious that his industry would be but an additional temptation to the extortion of tyranny.' p. 42.

Between Cafr Saide, supposed to be the site of Chenoboscia, and Diospolis Parva, the modern How, they observed, for the first time, some crocodiles basking on the sand-banks in the river, the largest apparently about twenty-five feet long. Mr. Legh thinks Girgeh the limit below which they do not descend; and they appear to be most numerous between this place and the cataracts. The superstitious natives, we are told, attribute the circumstance of crocodiles not being observed in the lower parts of the Nile, to the talismanic influence of the Mikkias, or Nilometer, at Cairo.

A fair wind wafted the travellers past Dendera, Koptos, and Kous, and on the 7th February they landed on the plain of Thebes, the city of a hundred gates, the theme and admiration of ancient poets and historians, and the wonder of every traveller in every age. The ruins extend from each bank of the Nile to the sides of the enclosing mountains. The objects which most powerfully attract the attention on the eastern side, are the magnificent temple of Karnac, and the remains of the temple of Luxor; the latter of which, Mr. Legh says, mark the southern extremity of the walls of the city on that side of the river. On the opposite, or western bank, are the Memnonium, the two colossal statues, and the remains of Médinet-Abou. The Necropolis, or celebrated caverns, known as the sepulchres of the ancient kings of Thebes, are excavations in the mountains, covered with sculptures and paintings, still in the highest degree of preservation. Of these, Mr. Legh gives no description, which indeed, without engravings, would have been of little use. For the most ample, laborious, and accurate details of these ancient ruins, says the Quarterly Reviewer,

we must still to the venerable Poet

The time employed in Philæ, and says, 'is celestial; it contains wit of the most woods, gar combine to) or sanctuar island of P not exceed. Legh think temples, the ancient Egi masses, and finishing the with the scu passing to th also, that th mountains; the wedge; columns, as in great pr and mighty

The catastrophe sent by ft This barrier Nubia and l nificent.

'Passing delicious ga which divid streams; a ruined tow the old goth two chains t side the Nil innumerable its course. rocks, whic shape, the i mur of the character of exceeds all

The bou Egypt was above the c nestly exho not to think Mamelukes the Barâbra they proce character to low sandy b Jews. The or Berberin and the inte have given t honest peop and a few le medans. F tains are d leaving but sibly be cu plar ted with travellers, r Narrative f

down the Nile, they again visited the neighbourhood of Thebes, and landed at Manfalout, to examine some mummy-pits in the desert, near the village of Amabdi, of which they had heard an extraordinary account from a Greek, of the name of Demetrius. He told them, that in pursuing some fugitives, they were suddenly observed to disappear. On coming to the place, they found a pit, which he and some others descended; at the bottom were fragments of mummies of crocodiles scattered about, but no fugitives to be seen. This story raised the curiosity of our travellers, and they determined to visit those subterranean chambers, in which the sacred crocodiles had been interred, and which I, as yet, was not permitted to see.

The party was composed of Mr. Legh, Mr. Smelt, the American interpreter, an Abyssinian merchant of the name of Fadlallah, and three of their boat's crew, Barabras, whom they had brought from the Cataracts. Having wandered about four hours in search of Amabdi, they at length observed four Arabs cutting wood. These people showed an unwillingness to give them any information—talked of danger—and were heard to mutter that—'if one must die all must die':—this, however, did not deter the party from proceeding. The story of this adventure is so well told, and so interesting, that, though rather long, we give it in Mr. Legh's own words.

'We were bent on going, and the Arabs at last undertook to be our guides for a reward of twenty-five piastres. After an hour's march in the desert, we arrived at the spot, which we found to be a pit or circular hole of ten feet in diameter and about eighteen feet deep. We descended without difficulty, and the Arabs began to strip, and proposed to us to do the same: we partly followed their example, but kept on our trousers and shirts. I had by me a brace of pocket pistols, which I concealed in my trousers, to be prepared against any treacherous attempt of our guides. It was now decided that three of the four Arabs should go with us, while the other remained on the outside of the cavern. The Abyssinian merchant declined going any farther. The sailors remained also on the outside to take care of our clothes. We formed therefore a party of six: each was to be preceded by a guide—our torches were lighted—one of the Arabs led the way,—and I followed him.

'We crept for seven or eight yards through an opening at the bottom of the pit, which was partly choked up with the drifted sand of the desert, and found ourselves in a large chamber about fifteen feet high.

'This was probably the place into which the Greek, Demetrius, had penetrated, and here we observed what he had described, the fragments of the mummies of crocodiles. We saw also great numbers of bats flying about, and hanging from the roof of the chamber. Whilst holding up my torch to examine the vault, I accidentally scorched one of them. I mention this trivial circumstance, because afterwards it gave occasion to a most ridiculous, though to us a very important, discussion. So far the story of the Greek was true, and it remained only to explore the galleries where the Arabs had formerly taken refuge, and where, without doubt, were deposited

the mummies we were searching for. We had all of us torches, and our guides insisted upon our placing ourselves in such a way, that an Arab was before each of us. Though there appeared something mysterious in this order of march, we did not dispute with them, but proceeded. We now entered a low gallery, in which we continued for more than an hour, stooping or creeping as was necessary, and following its windings, till at last it opened into a large chamber, which, after some time, we recognised as the one we had first entered, and from which we had set out. Our conductors, however, denied that it was the same, but on our persisting in the assertion, agreed at last that it was, and confessed they had missed their way the first time, but if we would make another attempt they would undertake to conduct us to the mummies. Our curiosity was still unsatisfied; we had been wandering for more than an hour in low subterranean passages, and felt considerably fatigued by the irksomeness of the posture in which we had been obliged to move, and the heat of our torches in those narrow and low galleries. But the Arabs spoke so confidently of succeeding in this second trial, that we were induced once more to attend them. We found the opening of the chamber which we now approached guarded by a trench of unknown depth, and wide enough to require a good leap. The first Arab jumped the ditch and we all followed him. The passage we entered was extremely small, and so low in some places as to oblige us to crawl flat on the ground, and almost always on our hands and knees. The intricacies of its windings resembled a labyrinth, and it terminated at length in a chamber much smaller than that which we had left, but, like it, contained nothing to satisfy our curiosity. Our search had hitherto been fruitless, but the mummies might not be far distant; another effort, and we might still be successful.

'The Arab whom I followed and who led the way, now entered another gallery, and we all continued to move in the same manner as before, each preceded by a guide. We had not gone far before the heat became excessive; for my own part, I found my breathing extremely difficult, my head began to ache most violently, and I had a most distressing sensation of fulness about the heart.

'We felt we had gone too far, and yet were almost deprived of the power of returning. At this moment the torch of the first Arab went out; I was close to him and saw him fall on his side—he uttered a groan—his legs were strongly convulsed, and I heard a rattling noise in his throat—he was dead. The Arab behind me, seeing the torch of his companion extinguished, and conceiving he had stumbled, past me, advanced to his assistance, and stooped. I observed him appear faint, totter, and fall in a moment—he also was dead. The third Arab came forward, and made an effort to approach the bodies, but stopped short. We looked at each other in silent horror. The danger increased every instant; our torches burnt faintly; our breathing became more difficult; our knees tottered under us, and we felt our strength nearly gone.

'There was no time to be lost—the American, Barthow, cried to us 'take courage,' and we



began to move back as fast as we could. We heard the remaining Arab shouting after us, calling us Caffres, imploring our assistance, and upbraiding us with deserting him. But we were obliged to leave him to his fate, expecting every moment to share it with him. \* The windings of the passages through which we had come increased the difficulty of our escape; we might take a wrong turn, and never reach the great chamber we had first entered. Even supposing we took the shortest road, it was but too probable our strength would fail us before we arrived. We had each of us separately and unknown to one another observed attentively the different shapes of the stones which projected into the galleries we had passed, so that each had an imperfect clue to the labyrinth we had now to retrace. We compared notes, and only on one occasion had a dispute, the American differing from my friend and myself; in this dilemma we were determined by the majority, and fortunately were right. Exhausted with fatigue and terror, we reached the edge of the deep trench which remained to be crossed before we got into the great chamber. Mustering all my strength, I leaped, and was followed by the American. Smelt stood on the brink, ready to drop with fatigue. He called to us 'for God's sake to help him over the fosse, or at least to stop, if only for five minutes, to allow him time to recover his strength.' It was impossible—to stay was death, and we could not resist the desire to push on and reach the open air. We encouraged him to summon all his force, and he cleared the trench. When we reached the open air it was one o'clock, and the heat of the sun about 160°. Our sailors, who were waiting for us, had luckily a bardak full of water, which they sprinkled upon us, but, though a little refreshed, it was not possible to climb the sides of the pit; they unfolded their turbans, and slinging them round our bodies, drew us to the top.'

The Arab who remained at the entrance anxiously enquired for his hahabebas, or friends; he was told they were employed in bringing out the mummies; the travellers then mounted their asses, and rode forward towards the boats with all speed, but were pursued; and being brought back to Manafalout, found great difficulty in escaping the vengeance of its inhabitants.

The accomplished, but unfortunate, Mr. Burckhardt left England on the 2d of March, 1809, for Malta, whence he set out for Aleppo, which he reached on the 6th of July. At this place and Damascus, he spent the principal part of the next three years; during which he made a variety of excursions into the Hauran and the Lesge, visited the ruins of Palmyra and Balbec, and perfected himself in the knowledge of the religion, manners, and language of the Mahomedan Arabs. On the 18th of June, 1812, he set out from Damascus for Cairo, avoiding the usual route of the sea coast and desert between El Arish and the borders of Egypt, and directing his course, in the disguise of the poorest of the Bedouins, from the Holy Land, east of the Jordan, by Salt, into Arabia Petrea, and across the great desert El Ty; he reached Cairo on the 4th September, with the intention of availing

himself of into Africa, Darfur can however, the place, he d time in exp the Catarac two very at the ancient banks of the on the fron February a covered ma Nubian ar such as are other betw year, thro The details vels, are sa in Europe manufactur dle of all th

Captain 1818, and a but tolerab quities whi contributed to Europea decoration Nubia. T pers of th consul at A Montague ramid, Mr unknown, contains t three suce He also we dria. Thi count of t Egypt by t obligations of Egypt n gant two-cl ing also a cataract; t

The 'Mi found at T was brougl joint expen our consul finest spec which has of a single weight. U was moved santry two kind of ma French, un off with behind, for on Egypti fortunately

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unexpected as extraordinary, were developed, pieces which, for many centuries, had not been exposed to human eyes. Among other things, a beautiful monolithic temple of very considerable dimensions was discovered between the legs of the sphynx, having within it a sculptured lion and a small sphynx. In one of the paws of the great sphynx was another temple, with a sculptured lion standing on an altar. In front of the great sphynx were the remains of buildings, apparently temples, and several granite slabs with inscriptions cut into them, some entire and others broken. One of these is by Claudius Cæsar, recording his visits to the pyramids, and another by Antoninus Pius; both of which, with the little lions, are now in the British Museum. Several paint-pots were also found fronting the sphynx, with paint of different colors in them. At Thebes, M. Belzoni made many new and curious discoveries, and found many valuable relics which had escaped the ravages of the invading Persians and the modern Arabs: he has also uncovered six tombs of the kings of Egypt, which for centuries had not been entered, or, indeed, known. That of Apis he represents as uncommonly magnificent and interesting. 'It is certainly,' he says, 'the most curious and astonishing thing in Egypt, and impresses one with

the highest idea of the workmanship of the ancient inhabitants. The interior, from one extremity to the other, is 190 feet, containing a great number of apartments and galleries. The walls are every where covered with hieroglyphics and bas-reliefs, in fresco colors, which are brighter than any color we have, and as fresh as if they had been only just laid on. But the finest antique in this place is in the principal chamber. It is a sarcophagus, formed of a single piece of alabaster, nine feet seven inches long, three feet nine inches wide, the interior and the exterior being equally covered with hieroglyphics and figures, hollowed with a chisel. This sarcophagus sounds like a silver bell, and is as transparent as ice; no doubt, when I shall have it transported to England, as I hope to do successfully, it will be esteemed as one of the most precious treasures of which any European museum can boast.'

The most important, however, of M. Belzoni's labors in Egypt was the opening of the second pyramid of Ghiza, known by the name of Cephrenes. But, for the particulars of this interesting operation and its results, see PYRAMIDS OF EGYPT; and, for some recent discoveries in regard to THEBES, the article of that title.

EHRENBREITSTEIN, a once celebrated fortress of Germany, in the Lower Electorate, considered as the key of the Rhine and the Moselle, is situated near Coblenz, on the opposite side of the Rhine. It included three fortresses, the chief of which was thus named, and the other two Thal and Vallendar. The value and strength of Ehrenbreitstein have been often mentioned by travellers, but were never so fully proved, as by the resistance it made to the French, during a siege and blockade of two years, in 1795 and 1796. In 1797 it was restored to Prussia; but the works were previously blown up. Though it is closely connected with the country behind the dreary district of Weteravia, it has the appearance towards the Rhine of being nearly insular, and perfectly pyramidal. The abruptness of its elevation above Coblenz, is so little diminished by the breadth of the river, that the rock may almost be said to threaten the city like a precipice; the streets being as open to inspection from the fortress, as those of a model on a table. The only entrance into the castle from the Rhine, is by a road cut in the solid rock, under four gateways. So long ago as the fifteenth century, three years were spent in digging a well through the solid rock, to the depth of 280 feet, as is mentioned in an inscription within the castle. The possession of this castle was confirmed to the elector of Treves, in 1660, by the treaty of Westphalia; but as it was considered one of the keys of Germany, towards France, the governor always took the oath to the emperor and the empire, as well as the elector. The French plenipotentiaries at Rastadt demanded the cession of the fortress to the republic, which was obstinately refused by the deputies of the empire. At last it was mutually agreed that its fortifica-

tions should be demolished, but this was protested against by the Austrian deputy. From that period the French troops laid siege to it, notwithstanding the armistice concluded in 1797, and closely blockaded it till the 24th of January 1799, when it surrendered. At the bottom lies the small town of Thal-Ehrenbreitstein, which contains 3500 inhabitants; and carries on a brisk trade with Coblenz, by a bridge of boats across the Rhine.

EHRET (George Dionysius), F.R.S. an eminent botanical painter, son of a gardener of the prince of Baden Durlach, was born in 1710. Visiting Paris, he was employed in the garden of plants under the celebrated Jussieu, and then came to England. He went in 1736 to Holland, and made drawings for Clifflort of Amsterdam. Under the direction of Linnæus, who gave him lessons in botany, he formed the figures of plants for the Hortus Clifflortianus, published in 1737, and returning to England, in 1740, finally settled here. He was patronised by the duchess of Portland, Drs. Sloane, Mead, and Fothergill, Ralph Willet, Esq., and other persons of taste. He died in 1770.

EHRETIA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, and pentandria class of plants; natural order forty-first, asperifolia: FRUIT is a bilocular berry: SEEDS solitary and bilocular; the stigma emarginated.

EHRHARTA, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, and hexandria class of plants: CAL. is a two-valved, abbreviated, and one-flowered glume: COR. a double glume, each two-valved; the exterior one compressed, and scymeter shaped, transversely wrinkled, and gashed at the base. There are six stamina, three on each side the pistil in a parallel line. The stigma is simple, compressed, four-tufted, and



torn at the top. Species nine, natives of the West Indies, and South America.

**EJACULATE**, *v. a.* } Lat. *ejaculator*, from *e*  
**EJACULATION**, *n. s.* } forth, and *jaculator* to  
**EJACULATORY**, *adj.* } hurl or throw, as a dart.  
 To dart out or shoot forth: applied metaphorically, to words or to acts of the mind. Ejaculation is used both for the act of darting or throwing out, and words (hence prayers) or things ejaculated: ejaculatory is throwing, or having the power of throwing out: hence, uttered shortly or suddenly, and sudden or hasty.

There seemeth to be acknowledged, in the act of envy, an *ejaculation* or irradiation of the eye.

*Bacon's Essays.*

In your dressing let there be *ejaculations* fitted to the several actions of dressing; as at washing your hands, pray to God to cleanse your soul from sin.

*Taylor's Guide to Devotion.*

The continuance of this posture might incline to ease and drowsiness; they used it rather upon some short *ejaculatory* prayers, than in their larger devotions.

*Ouppa's Devotion.*

We are not to value ourselves upon the merit of *ejaculatory* repentances, that take us by fits and starts.

*L'Estrange.*

Being rooted so little way in the skin, nothing near so deeply as the quills of fowls, they are the more easily *ejaculated*.

*Greco's Museum.*

The mighty magnet from the centre darts  
 This strong, though subtle force, through all the parts:

Its active rays *ejaculated* thence,

Irradiate all the wide circumference.

*Blackmore.*

He whose *ejaculatory* uses of God's name are not prayers for some one, will find them curses to himself.

*Thomas.*

**EICHSFELD**, a province of Prussia (in part ceded to that power by Hanover, in 1818), and part of the present principality of Calenberg. It is divided into the Upper and Lower Eichsfeld, and contains 90,000 inhabitants. The other and larger part, not belonging to Hanover, was a part of the electorate of Mentz.

**EICHSTADT**, a town and bishop's see of Bavaria, in the circle of the Upper Danube, situated in a valley on the Alt. The king of Bavaria conferred the title of prince of Eichstadt on Eugene Beauharnois, his son-in-law, formerly viceroy of Italy. A convent in this town is much visited by zealous Catholics as containing a supposed relic of St. Wilibald. Population 6000. Thirty-two miles N. N. E. of Augsburg.

**EICK** (John Van), a celebrated Flemish painter, commonly called John of Bruges, from his birth place, flourished in the fifteenth century, and was the first who discovered the method of painting in oil. Being a chemist, he found in the course of his experiments, that, by grinding colors with linseed or nut oil, he could form them into a solid body which would resist water, and not need the varnish used in painting in water colors or in fresco. He presented the first picture painted in this manner to Alphonsus I. king of Naples, who was much pleased with it.

**EIDER DUCK.** See **ANAS**.

**EIGG**, an island of the Hebrides, six miles in length and from one to three in breadth, containing a superficial area of about eleven square miles. Kelp and wool are yielded here, together

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possession, and gives notice at the bottom for him to appear and defend his title; or that he, the feigned defendant, will suffer judgment by default, whereby the true tenant will be turned out of possession; to this declaration the tenant is to appear at the beginning of next term by his attorney, and consent to a rule to be made defendant, instead of the casual ejector, and take upon him the defence, in which he must confess lease, judgment, entry, and ouster, and at the trial stand upon the title only: but in case the tenant in possession does not appear, and enter into the said rule in time, after the declaration served, then, on affidavit being made of the service of the declaration, with the notice to appear as aforesaid, the court will order judgment to be entered against the casual ejector by default; and thereupon the tenant in possession, by writ habere facias possessionem, is turned out. On the trial in ejectment, the plaintiff's title is to be set forth from the person last seized in fee, under whom the lessor claims down to the plaintiff, proving the deeds, &c., and the plaintiff shall recover only according to the right which he has at the time of bringing his action. And here, another who has title to the land, may be defendant in the action with the tenant in possession; for the possession of the lands is primarily in question, and to be recovered, which concerns the tenant, and the title thereto is tried collaterally, which may concern some other.

Ejectment ought to be brought for a thing that is certain; and if it be of a manor, the manor of A, with the appurtenances; if of a rectory, the rectory of B, &c. And so many messuages, cottages, acres of arable land, meadow, &c., with the appurtenances in the parish of, &c. For land must be distinguished, how much of one sort, and how much of another, &c., Cro. Eliz. 339. 3 Leon. 13. Ejectment lies of a church, as of an house called the parish church of, &c. And a church is a messuage, by which name it may be recovered: and the declaration is to be served on the parson who performs divine service. 11 Rep. 25. 1 Salk. 256. A rector may recover in ejectment against his lessee, on the ground of the lease of the rectory being avoided on account of his own non-residence, by force of the 13 Eliz. c. 20, and the lease to the defendant, describing him as doctor in divinity, produced by him at the trial in support of his title, is *prima facie* evidence of his being such as he is therein described to be, so as to avoid the lease under stat. 21 Hen. 8. c. 13. § 3. It lies de uno messuagio sive burgagio; but not de uno messuagio sive tenemento, unless it have a vocat A. &c. to make it good, because of the uncertainty of the word tenement. 1 Sid. 295. But for a messuage and tenement hath been allowed. 1 Term Rep. 11. So indeed for a messuage or tenement. 3 Wils. 23. 3 Mod. 328. 1 Sid. 295. but see contra, 1 East's Rep. 441, 2. It will lie for a moiety, or third part of a manor or messuage, &c. And for a chamber or room of a house well set forth. 11 Rep. 55. 59. 3 Leon. 210. It lieth de domo, which hath convenient certainty for the sheriff to deliver possession, &c. Cro. Jac. 654. It lies of a cottage or curtilage; of a coal-mine, &c. but not

of a common, piscary, &c. Cro. Jac. 150. For underwood it lies, though a præcipe doth not. 2 Roll. Rep. 482, 483. But for uno clauso, or una pecia terræ, &c. without certainty of the acres, and their nature, it doth not lie. 11 Rep. 55. 4 Mod. 1. It lieth of a close, containing three acres of pasture, &c. Also of so many acres of land covered with water; though not de aquæ cursu. Cro. Jac. 435. 1 Brownl. 242. It also lies for a prebendal stall, after collation to it. 1 Wils. 14.

EIGHT, *adj.*

EIGHTH,

EIGHTEEN,

EIGHTEENTH,

EIGHTFOLD,

EIGHTHLY, *adv.*

EIGHTIETH, *adj.*

EIGHTSCORE,

EIGHTY.

Sax. eahta, æhta; Belg. *agt*; Scottish and Teut. *acht*; Goth. *ahta, attha*, and *ath*; Dan. *atte*; Fr. *huit*; Lat. *octo*; Gr. *okto*. A word of number; twice four. Eighth is the ordinal of eight: eightfold is eight times the number or quantity; eighthly is in the eighth place; eighteen, eight and ten; eightscore, eight twenties; eighty, eight ten times told.

And it was don aftr these wordis almeest *eighte* dayes: and he took Petre and James and Jon, and he stiede into an hill to preye. *Wiclif. Luke ix.*

And it was doon in the *eightithe* day thei camen to circumside the child, and thei clepiden him *Zacarye* by the name of his fadir. *Id. Luke i.*

And as the *eyghtene* on which the tower in Siloa fel down and slough hem, gessen ye for thei weren dettouris more than alle men that dwellen in Jerusalem? *Id. Luk. xiii.*

In the *eighteenth* year of Jeroboam died Abijam. *1 Kings.*

Another yet?—A seventh! I'll see no more; And yet the *eighth* appears. *Shakespeare. Macbeth.*

He can't take two from twenty, for his heart, And leave *eighteen*. *Id. Cymbeline.*

What! keep a week away? seven days and nights? *Eightscore* eight hours? and lovers absent hours, More tedious than the dial *eightcore* times? Oh weary reckoning! *Id. Othello.*

*Eighty* odd years of sorrow have I seen, And each hour's joy wrecked with a week of teen. *Shakespeare.*

In the *eighth* month should be the reign of Saturn. *Bacon.*

*Eighthly*, living creatures have voluntary motion, which plants have not. *Bacon's Natural History.*

This island contains *eightscore* and *eight* miles in circuit. *Sandys's Journey.*

Among all other climacterick three are most remarkable; that is, seven times seven, or forty-nine; nine times nine or *eighty one*; and seven times nine, or the year sixty-three, which is conceived to carry with it the most considerable fatality.

*Broune's Vulgar Errors.*

If men naturally lived but twenty years, we should be satisfied if they died about *eighteen*; and yet *eighteen* years now are as long as *eighteen* years would be then. *Taylor.*

A pedant values phrases, and elects them by the sound, and the *eight* parts of speech are his servants. *Ouerbury.*

Some balances are so exact as to be sensibly turned with the *eightieth* part of a grain.

*Wilkins's Math. Magic.*

I stay reluctant seven continued years, And water her ambrosial couch with tears;



The *eighth* she voluntarily moves to part,  
Or urged by Jove, or her own changeful heart.

Pope.

I thus passed about *eighteen* months in London,  
working almost without intermission at my trade,  
avoiding all expense.

Franklin.

Oft, where his feathered foe had reared her nest,  
And laid her eggs and household gods to rest,  
Burning for blood in terrible array,  
The *eighteen*-inch militia burst their way;  
All went to wreck; the infant foemen fell.  
When scarce his chirping bill had broke the shell.

Beattie.

**EIGNE**, *adj.* Fr. *aisne*. In law, denotes  
the eldest or first born. Here it signifies un-  
alienable, as being entailed.

It happeneth not seldom, that, to avoid the yearly  
oath, for averment of the continuance of some estate  
for life, which is *eigne*, and not subject to forfeiture  
for the alienation that cometh after it, the party will  
offer to sue for a pardon uncompelled before the time;  
in all which, some mitigation of the uttermost value  
may well and worthily be offered.

Bacon.

**EIMBECK**, an old town of Hanover, on the  
Ilme, with 5000 inhabitants. It belonged to the  
Hanseatic confederacy, and has some manufac-  
tures, but is not thriving. Great part of its for-  
tifications were demolished by the French in  
1761. Forty-eight miles S.S.W. of Brunswick.

**EIMEO**, or **MOVEA**, one of the Society  
Islands in the South Pacific, about ten miles in  
length by five in breadth. The harbour of Taloo  
on the north coast is the best; and here the  
water is so clear, that the branching of beautiful  
coral is visible at great depths. The island is  
hilly and rocky, with valleys interposed. Twelve  
miles west of Otaheite.

**EINURA**, or **YENNOOR**, a town in the district  
of South Canara, Hindostan, containing eight  
temples belonging to the Jain, and one to  
the Siva Brahmins. The former have an annual  
allowance of fourteen and the latter ten pagodas.  
There is an immense colossal image here of  
one of the gods of the Jains, which stands in  
the open air. It is formed of one solid piece of  
granite. The hills and neighbourhood about this  
place are considered unproductive.

**EI'SEL**, *n. s.* Sax. *eoril*. Vinegar; ver-  
juice; any acid. An old word.

Cast in thy mind

How thou resemblest Christ, as with sowre poison  
If thou paine thy taste; remember therewithall,  
How Christ for thee tasted *eisel* and gall.

Sir T. More.

**EISENACH**, a principality of Germany in  
Thuringia, and circle of Upper Saxony, situated  
on the confines of Hesse. It is mountainous,  
and scarcely produces corn enough for the inha-  
bitants. Some indifferent wine is made: but  
it has mines of copper, iron, vitriol, and alum,  
with some salt springs. It gave a vote to the  
duke of Saxe Weimar, in the diets and assem-  
blies of the circle. Population 62,000. Its rivers  
are the Warra, Slade, Unstrut, and Fulda.

**EISENACH**, the capital of the above province,  
is situated on a rising ground near the junc-  
tion of the Hesse and Horsa. It has a castle in  
the market-place as old as the eleventh century,  
and formerly the residence of the princes of Eise-

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by either of the three, but that the other two would set the balance of Europe upright again. *Bacon.*

We never heard of any ship that had been seen to arrive upon any shore of Europe; no nor of either the East or West Indies. *Id. New Atlantis.*

Our infirmity will not suffer any long intention, either of body or mind. *Bp. Hall. Contemplations.*

Goring made a fast friendship with Digby, either of them believing he could deceive the other. *Clarendon.*

In the process of natural beings, there seem to be some creatures placed, as it were, on the confines of several provinces, and participating something of either. *Hale.*

Seven times the sun has either tropick viewed,  
The Winter banished and the Spring renewed. *Dryden.*

I do not ask whether bodies do so exist, that the motion of one body cannot really be without the motion of another: to determine this either way, is to beg the question for or against a vacuum. *Locke.*

So like in arms these champions were,  
As they had been a very pair;  
So that a man would almost swear,  
That either had been either. *Drayton's Nymph.*

What perils shall we find,  
If either place, or time, or other course,  
Cause us to alter the order now assigned. *Daniel.*

Either your brethren have miserably deceived us, or power confers virtue. *Siciff to Pope.*

The food of the cod is either small fish, worms, crustaceous animals, such as crabs, large whelks, &c. and their digestion is so powerful, as to dissolve the greatest part of the shells they swallow. *Pennant.*

EJULATION, *n. s.* Lat. *ejulatio*. Outcry; lamentation; moaning; wailing.

Instead of hymns and praises, he breaks out into ejulations and effeminate wallings.

*Government of the Tongue.*

With dismal groans  
And ejulation, in the pangs of death,  
Some call for aid. *Philips.*

EKATERINADARA, a town in the government of Caucasus, Kuban Tartary, the capital of the Tchernomorskie, or Cossacks of the Black Sea. The late empress Catherine, after whom it is called, removed a great body of Cossacks from the banks of the Dnieper to the eastern shores of the sea of Azoph, for the purpose of repelling the incursions of the Tartars, and granted them, in 1791, a territory of about 1000 square miles, including the isle of Taman. In the succeeding year they founded their capital, which resembles an extensive village in a forest. Each cottage has an area in front, with an avenue of the finest oaks. The inhabitants choose their own chief, and preserve the European manners.

EKATERINEBURG, or CATHERINEBURG, a town of Asiatic Russia, in the province of Iselt, on the left bank of the river of that name, and on the eastern side of the Uralian chain. It is surrounded by an earthen rampart, with a chevaux de frize. Here are five churches, and several well built stone houses. The neighbouring mountains afford vast variety of minerals, and great works are carried on in Ekaterineburg, by the Russian government, as iron foundries, forges, &c., which manufacture cannon and anchors. An immense copper coinage also pro-

duces 12,530 pieces daily. The workhouses are of brick, covered with thin iron plates. This is the seat of the supreme college for the administration of the mines and foundries of Siberia, Casan, Perm, and Orenburg, and takes cognisance of 114 foundries. There is besides a chamber for superintending the gold mines. Provisions are cheap and plentiful. Houses 2000.

EKATERINOGRAD, a town and fortress of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Caucasus, situated on the Malka, or Balk, a little above its junction with the Terek. It was founded in the year 1776, and remained the capital of the province of Caucasus, before being constituted a government in 1785. It is the strongest place on the Caucasian line of posts. Twenty-four miles north-west of Mozdok.

EKATERINOSLAV, or CATHERINOSLAV, a town and government of European Russia, constituted by the empress Catherine in 1784. When Paul I. incorporated it with the Crimea he gave the whole the name of New Russia, and changed the name of this town to Nowo-Rossizsk. The present emperor, however, restored the division of Catharine, distributing New Russia into the three governments of Cherson, Taurida, and Ekaterinoslav. The last, though reduced in some measure from its original size, is still considerable, extending from 33° 40' to 39° 20' E. long., and from 47° to 49° N. lat., between the governments of Poltawa, Charkov, Voronetz, the Donski Cossacks, Taurida, and Cherson, and containing about 35,000 square miles, the surface consisting for the most part of dry steppes, little susceptible of culture, except on the banks of the Dnieper, Don, Donetz, Samara, and the other rivers. The climate is mild. The chief productions are hemp, corn, millet melons, and fruits. Here are all the common domestic animals, and an unusual quantity of bees. It is divided into eight counties. The inhabitants are computed at 560,000; the majority deriving their subsistence from the breeding of cattle. The most intelligent and thriving part are of foreign descent, viz. Greeks, Germans, or Moldavians.

EKE, *v. a. & conj.* Goth. *aukan*; Sax. *eacan*; Icel. *auka*, to increase. Spenser frequently writes this word eek. To protract; lengthen; increase; supply deficiency. Hence, as a conjunction, it signifies also, likewise; beside; but is obsolete.

Yet holt thine anker, and thou maiest arive  
There bountie bereth the key of my substance,  
And eke thou haste thy beste frende alive. *Chaucer*

And eke full ofte a littell skare,  
Vpon a bank, her men be ware,  
Let in the streme, whiche with gret paine,  
If any man it shall restraine. *Gower.*  
I dempt there much to have eked my store,  
But such eking hath made my heart sore. *Spenser.*  
And eke huge mountaines from their native seat,  
She would command themselves to beare away.

*Id. Patrie Quene*  
If any strength we have, it is to ill;  
But all the good is God's, both power and eke will. *Id.*

The little strength that I have, I would it were with you.  
—And mine to eke out her's. *Shakespeare. As You Like It.*



I speak too long; but 't is to piece the time,  
To *eke* it, and to draw it out in length,  
To stay you from election.

*Id. Merchant of Venice.*

Now, if 'tis chiefly in the heart,  
That courage does itself exert,  
'Twill be prodigious hard to prove,  
That this is *eke* the throne of love. *Prior.*

Your ornaments hung all,  
On some patched doghole *eked* with ends of wall.

*Pope.*

EKRON, a city and government of the Philistines. It fell by lot to the tribe of Judah, in the first division made by Joshua (xv. 45.) but was afterwards given to the tribe of Dan, (xix. 43.) It was situated near the Mediterranean, between Ashdod and Jamnia. Ekron was a powerful city, and it does not appear that the Jews were ever sole peaceable possessors of it: the Ekronites were the first who said that it was necessary to send back the ark of the God of Israel, in order to be delivered from those calamities which the presence of it brought upon their country. 1 Sam. v. 10. The idol Baalzebub was principally adored at Ekron. 2 Kings i. 2. &c.

ELABORATE, *v. a. & adj.* } Spanish and  
ELABORATELY, *adv.* } Port. *elaborar*;  
ELABORATENESS, *n. s.* } Ital. and Lat.  
ELABORATION. } *elaborare*, from

*e*, out, and *laboro*, to labor. To produce or improve by labor: as an adjective, highly or laboriously finished or performed.

Formalities of extraordinary zeal and piety are never more studied and *elaborate* than when politicians most agitate desperate designs. *King Charles*

At least, on her bestowed

Too much of ornament, of outward shew  
*Elaborate*, of inward less exact. *Milton.*

Man is thy theme, his virtue or his rage  
Drawn to the life in each *elaborate* page.

*Waller.*

To what purpose is there such an apparatus of vessels for the *elaboration* of the sperm and eggs; such a tedious process of generation and nutrition? *Ray.*

Politick conceptions, so *elaborately* formed and wrought, and grown at length ripe for delivery, do yet prove abortive. *South.*

Some coloured powders which painters use, may have their colours a little changed, by being very *elaborately* and finely ground. *Newton's Opticks.*

I will venture once to incur the censure of some persons for being *elaborately* trifling. *Bentley.*

Consider the difference between *elaborate* discourses upon important occasions, delivered to parliaments, and a plain sermon intended for the common people. *Swift.*

It is there *elaborately* shewn, that patents are good. *Id.*

They in full joy *elaborate* a sigh. *Young.*

In the theatre, the first intuitive glance, without any *laborate* process of reasoning, would show, that this method of political computation would justify every extent of crime. *Burke.*

As the glands which produce the prolific dust of the anthers, the honey, wax, and frequently some odoriferous essential oil, are generally attached to the corol, and always fall off and perish with it, it is evident that the blood is *elaborated* or oxygenated in this pulmonary system for the purpose of these important secretions. *Darwin.*

ELÆAGNUS, the oleaster, or wild olive, of the monogynia order, and tetrandria plants; natural order sixteenth, calycifer none: CAL. campanulated, quadrid, a FRUIT a plum below the campanulated calyx; genus must not be confounded with the or wild olive of Gerard, Parkinson, &c. which is only a particular species of olive by Tournefort and Casper Bauhine, *elætris*. See OLEA. There are ten species.

1. *E. inermis*, without thorns, is commonly preserved in the gardens of the country. The leaves are more than three long, and half an inch broad, and have a appearance like satin. The flowers cover the foot-stalks of the leaves, sometimes at other times two, and sometimes three in the same place. The outside of the empale silvery and studded; the inside of a pale color. It has a very strong scent. The flower in July, and are sometimes succeeded by fruit.

2. *E. latifolia*, with oval leaves, is of Ceylon, and some other parts of India. In this country it rises with a woolly stem or nine feet, dividing into many branches, garnished with oval and silver which have several irregular spots of color on the surface. They are placed alternately on the branches, and continue all the year.

3. *E. spinosa*, the eastern broad-leaf, with a large fruit, is a native of the Levant, some parts of Germany. The leaves are two inches long, and one and a half wide in the middle. They are placed alternately on the foot-stalk of the leaves, and there comes out a pretty long sharp thorn. The flowers are alternately longer: the flowers are inside of the empalement is yellow, and have a strong scent when fully open.

The first and last species may be preserved by laying down the young shoots in the earth. They will take root in one year; when they be cut off from the old trees, and either planted into a nursery for two or three years into places where they are to remain. The first time is in the beginning of March, and in autumn. They should be screened from high winds; for they grow very freely, apt to be split by the wind, if too much exposed. The *latifolia* is too tender to endure the air of this country; and therefore must be kept in a warm stove, except during a short and the warmest part of summer. From all of these plants an aromatic and cordial oil has been drawn, which is said to be successfully used in putrid and pestilential diseases.

ELÆOCARPUS, in botany, a genus of the monogynia order, and polyandria class; cor. pentapetalous and lacerated: cal. phyllous: FRUIT a plum with a large kernel. Species five, natives of India, Zeland.

ELÆOMELI, in ancient medicine, a thick oil, as thick as honey, said to flow from a tree in Syria, and to have been useful in all kinds of complaints.

ELÆOTHESIUM, in antiquity, a room, or place where those who



wrestle or had bathed, anointed themselves. See GYMNASIUM.

ELAH, the son of Baasha, the fourth king of Israel after the separation of the ten tribes from Judah. He was murdered while in a state of intoxication, by Zimri, when he had reigned only two years, A. M. 3014, and A. A. C. 934.

ELAM, in ancient geography, a valley of Israel, famous for the defeat and death of Goliath, the Philistine, by David.

ELAM, in ancient geography, a country frequently mentioned in Scripture, lying south-east of Shinar. In the time of Daniel, (viii. 2.) Susiana seems to have been part of it; and, before the captivity, it does not appear that the Jews called Persia by any other name. Elymæ and Elymais are often mentioned by the ancients. Ptolemy, though he makes Elymais a province of Media, places Elymæ in Susiana, near the sea coast. Stephanus takes it to be a part of Assyria; but Pliny and Josephus more properly of Persia, whose inhabitants, the latter tells us, sprang from the Elamites. The best commentators agree, that the Elamites, who were the ancestors of the Persians, were descended from Elam, the son of Shem. It is likewise allowed, that the inspired writers constantly intend Persia, when they speak of Elam and the kingdom of Elam.

ELANCE, *v. a.* Fr. *elancer*. To throw out; to dart; to cast as a dart.

While thy unerring hand elanced  
Another, and another dart, the people  
Joyfully repeated to!

Prior.

Harsh words, that once elanced, must ever fly  
Irrevocable.

Id.

ELAPHEBOLIA, from *ελαφος*, a deer; in Grecian antiquity, a festival in honor of Diana the huntress. In the celebration a cake was made in the form of a deer, and offered to the goddess. It owed its institution to the following circumstance:—When the Phocians had been severely beaten by the Thessalians, they resolved, by the persuasion of one Deiphantus, to raise a pile of combustible materials, and burn their wives, children, and effects, rather than submit to the enemy. This resolution was unanimously approved by the women, who decreed Deiphantus a crown for his magnanimity. When every thing was prepared, before they fired the pile, they engaged their enemies, and fought with such desperate fury, that they totally routed them, and obtained a complete victory. In commemoration of this unexpected success, this festival was instituted to Diana, and kept with great solemnity.

ELAPHEBOLIUM, in Grecian antiquity, the ninth month of the Athenian year, answering to the latter part of February and beginning of March. It consisted of thirty days, and took its name from the elaphebolia which was celebrated in it.

ELAPSE, *v. n.* Lat. *elapsus*. To pass away; to glide away; to run out without notice.

There is a docible season, a learning time in youth,  
Which, suffered to elapse, and no foundation laid, sel-  
dom returns.

Clarissa.

For when an old wood perished, and produced a  
morass, many centuries would elapse before another  
wood could grow and perish again upon the same  
ground, which would thus produce a new stratum of

morass over the other, differing indeed principally in  
its age, and perhaps as the timber might be different  
in the proportions of its component parts.

Darwin.

Though years

Elapse, and others share as dark a doom,  
They but augment the deep and sweeping thoughts  
Which overpower all others, and conduct  
The world at last to freedom!

Byron.

ELASMIS, in natural history, a genus of talcs, composed of small plates in form of spangles, and either single, and not farther fissile, or, if complex, only fissile to a certain degree, and that in somewhat thick laminae. Of these talcs there are several varieties, some with large and others with small spangles, which differ also in color and other peculiarities.

ELASTIC, *adj.* } Fr. *elastique*, from Gr.  
ELASTICAL, } *ελαστος*, of the verb *ελαω*;  
ELASTICITY, *n. s.* } Heb. *קָשָׁה*, to impel or cast  
off. Springy; energetic. The force whereby  
bodies restore themselves to a position from which  
they have been displaced.

By what elastic engines did she rear  
The starry roof and roll the orbs in air.

Blackmore.

If the body is compact, and bends or yields inward  
to pressure, without any sliding of its parts, it is hard  
and elastic, returning to its figure with a force rising  
from the mutual attraction of its parts.

Newton's Opticks.

The most common diversities of human constitu-  
tions arise from the solids, as to their different de-  
grees of strength and tension; in some being too lax  
and weak, in others too elastic and strong.

Arbuthnot on Aliments.

A lute-string will bear an hundred weight without  
rupture; but at the same time cannot exert its elasti-  
city: take away fifty, and immediately it raiseth the  
weight.

Id.

A fermentation must be excited in some assignable  
place, which may expand itself by its elastic power,  
and break through, where it meets with the weakest  
resistance.

Bentley.

Me emptiness and dulness could inspire,  
And were my elasticity and fire.

Pope.

His form robust and of elastic tone,  
Proportioned well, half muscle and half bone,  
Supplies with warm activity and force  
A mind well lodged, and masculine of course.

Couper.

We can have no idea of a natural power, which  
could project a sun out of chaos, except by comparing  
it to the explosions or earthquakes owing to the sudden  
evolution of aqueous or of other more elastic vapours;  
of the power of which, under immeasurable degrees of  
heat and compression, we are yet ignorant.

Darwin.

ELASTIC GUM, or ELASTIC RESIN. See GUM,  
ELASTIC.

ELASTIC VAPORS are such as may, by any ex-  
ternal mechanical force, be compressed into a  
smaller space than they originally occupied;  
restoring themselves, when the pressure is taken  
off, to their former state, with a force exactly  
proportioned to that with which they were at  
first compressed. Of this kind are all the aerial  
fluids, without exception, and all kinds of fumes  
raised by heat, whether from solid or fluid bodies.  
Of these some retain their elasticity only when  
a considerable degree of heat is applied to them,  
or to the substances which produce them; while



force we apply, but every succeeding moment the resistance will become stronger, and a greater and greater force must be applied in order to compress it farther. As the compression goes on, the vessel containing the air becomes hot; but no power whatever has yet been able to destroy the elasticity of the continued fluid in any degree; for, upon removing the pressure, it is always found to occupy the very same space that it did before. The case is the same with aqueous steam, to which a sufficient heat is applied to keep it from condensing into water. This will yield to a certain degree; but every moment the resistance becomes greater, until at last it will overcome any obstacles whatever. An example of the power of this kind of steam we have every day in the steam engine; and the vapors of other matters, both solid and fluid, have frequently manifested themselves to be endowed with an equal force. Thus the force of the vapors of spirit of wine has occasioned terrible accidents when the worm has been stopped, and the head of the still absurdly tied down to prevent an explosion; the vapors of mercury have burst an iron box; and those of sal ammoniac, volatile salts, nitrous acid, marine acid, phosphorus, &c., have all been known to burst the chemical vessels which confined them, in such a manner as to endanger those who stood near them. In short, from innumerable observations, it may be laid down as an undoubted fact, that there is no substance whatever capable of being reduced into a state of vapor, but what in that state is endowed with an elastic force ultimately superior to any obstacle we can throw in its way. It has been a desideratum among philosophers to give a satisfactory reason for this astonishing power of elasticity in vapor, which is seemingly so little capable of accomplishing any great purpose when in an unconfined state. As air is that fluid in which, from the many experiments made upon it by the air-pump and otherwise, the elastic property has most frequently been observed, the researches of philosophers

proceeded, and reacted as each other. Hence, the case of the air-pump and condensation is a satisfactory explanation; to account for the power of case by heat, as it could no element had a very great : the elasticity of the atmosphere be the only cause of elasticity. It does not appear that Sir Isaac Newton, but contented himself to heat the property of and ascribing this to another called rarefaction. Thus a great discovery made by Sir Robert Boyle, that all bodies have the power of known manner the elements parting with it afterwards, of the body which had also same properties that it has. Hence, many phenomena of evaporation, were explained more satisfactory than had been or even expected before. (A remarkable property of metals hammering; during which, according to the doctor's opinion, the elements out from between the particles of water is from the pores of it between the fingers. Of the phenomenon above-mentioned, violently compressed become the quantity of more subtil out from among the particles it appears, that heat and the Sir Isaac Newton are the diminishing the heat of an elasticity is effectually diminished itself shrink into a smaller : by mechanical pressure. ) what may be called ocular truth of this doctrine, viz. the focus of a strong burning quantity of charcoal in vacuo

ded by a small vessel of water, the ether violently, and is dissipated in vapor, while water freezes, and is cooled to a great degree. Dissipation of this vapor shows that it has elastic force; and the absorption of the from the water shows, that this element only produces the elasticity, but actually is into the substance of the vapor itself; so we have not the least reason to conclude there is any other repulsive power by which particles are kept at a distance from one another than the substance of the heat itself. In manner it acts, we cannot pretend exactly explain, without making hypotheses concerning the form of the minute particles of matter which must always be very uncertain. All phenomena, however, concur in rendering theory now laid down extremely probable. Elasticity of the steam of water is exactly proportioned to the degree of heat which flows it from without; and, if this be kept to a sufficient degree, there is no mechanical force which can reduce it into the state of water. This, however, may very easily be done by abstracting a certain portion of the latent heat contained: when the elastic vapor will become a dense and heavy fluid. The same thing may be done in various ways with the permanently elastic steam. Thus the purest dephlogisticated air, when made to part with its latent heat, by being with iron, is converted into a graving substance of an unknown nature, which adheres strongly to the metal. If the decomposition is performed by inflammable air, both together unite into a heavy, aqueous, or acid fluid; a mixture with nitrous air, still the heat is sensible, though less violent than in the two other cases. The decomposition indeed is slower, but equally complete, and the dephlogisticated air becomes part of the nitrous acid, from which it may be again expelled by proper means: of these means heat must always be one; for only the elasticity can be restored, and the heat recovered in its proper state. The same takes place in fixed air, and all other permanently elastic fluids capable of being absorbed by others. The conclusion therefore, which we only draw from what data we have, concerning the composition of elastic vapors, is, that all of them are formed of a terrestrial substance, mixed with the element of heat in such a manner, that part of the latter may be squeezed out among the terrestrial particles; but in such manner, that, as soon as the pressure is taken from the surrounding fluid rushes in, and expands to their original bulk: and this expansion has a tendency to it will be increased in proportion to the degree of heat, just as the expansion of a gas would be exceedingly augmented, if we contrived to convey a stream of water into the heart of it, and make the liquid flow out with force through every pore in the circumference. In this case, it is evident that the water would act with power of repulsion among the particles of sponge, as well as the fire does among the particles of the water, charcoal, or whatever other substance is employed. Thus far we may reason by analogy, but in all probability the internal essential texture of these vapors will never remain unknown. It has been ima-

gined by some, that the artificial elastic fluids have not the same mechanical property with common air, viz. that of occupying a space inversely proportional to the weights with which they are pressed: but this is found to be a mistake. All of them likewise have been found to be non-conductors of electricity, though probably not all in the same degree. See AIR and ELECTRICITY.

**ELASTICITY.** The cause or principle of elasticity, or springiness, is variously assigned. The Cartesians account for it from the *materia subtilis* making an effort to pass through pores that are too narrow for it. Other philosophers, in lieu of the subtle matter, substitute ether, or a fine ethereal medium that pervades all bodies. Others, setting aside the precarious notion of a *materia subtilis*, account for elasticity from the great law of attraction, or the cause of the cohesion of the parts of solid and firm bodies. Thus, say they, when a hard body is struck or bent, so that the component parts are moved a little from each other, but not quite disjointed or broken off, or separated so far as to be out of the power of that attracting force whereby they cohere; they must certainly, on the cessation of the external violence, spring back to their former natural state. Elasticity has also been resolved into the pressure of the atmosphere: for a violent tension, or compression, though not so great as to separate the constituent particles of bodies far enough to let in any foreign matter, must yet occasion many little vacuola between the separated surfaces; so that upon the removal of the force they will close again by the pressure of the aerial fluid upon the external parts. See ATMOSPHERE. Lastly, others attribute the elasticity of all hard bodies to the power of resiliency in the air included within them: and so make the elastic force of the air the principle of elasticity in all other bodies. These are clearly the mere conjectures of philosophy.

M. Libes, the author of the *Nouveau Dictionnaire de Physique*, has in that work given a new explication of the phenomena of elasticity, which depends upon the following principles:—

1. The signs of elasticity suppose a compression effected, that is, an alteration in the figure of bodies produced by the mutual approach of the molecules: whence it results, that bodies, whose molecules yield with a very great facility to the slightest pressure, so as to roll one over another without changing their figure, cannot give sensible signs of elasticity. Such in general are liquids. 2. When an elastic body is compressed, some of its integrant molecules are brought nearer to one another, while others undergo a farther separation nearly equal to the approach of the former. 3. At the habitual degree of heat and pressure which we experience, all bodies have a volume determined by the ratio of equality, which exists between the attractive force of their particles, and the repulsive force communicated by the caloric combined with those particles.

These being granted, the re-establishment of solid bodies, after the compression, appears to be the result of the combined action of the caloric and of attraction. For in the molecules brought nearer by the compression, the repulsive force augments, and the attractive force likewise aug-



ments; but the augmentation of the former force exceeds that of the latter. For, at the epoch of the formation of the body, such as it existed previous to the compression, the repulsive force communicated to its molecule by the caloric, was sufficient to give the degree of separation that was peculiar to the body: it was, therefore, superior to the attractive force until the moment when the molecule had become so far separated as was consistent with the natural state of the body. Whence it results, that if the particles are brought nearer together by compression, that is, if they are contracted with the caloric into a smaller space, the ratio of equality which subsisted between the attraction and the repulsion before the compression, must be destroyed in favor of the repulsion; and consequently, on the cessation of the compression, this surplus of repulsive force will act so as to separate again the molecule brought nearer by the compression, until the equilibrium is re-established between the attraction and the repulsion: and this equilibrium can only be re-established, when the molecules have recovered the degree of separation which they had previous to the compression. For similar reasons the attraction will predominate over the repulsion in those particles which have suffered a farther separation than is due to the natural state: it must, therefore, act to draw the particles nearer, and re-establish the equilibrium of those forces: and this equilibrium cannot be re-established until the molecules have recovered the relative distance which they had before the compression.

This theory M. Libes applies to an elastic sphere, as an ivory ball when falling upon a plane, to a plate of steel, whose extremities are brought towards each other by bending, and to the known effects of tempered metals, &c. In explaining the elasticity of æriform fluids, M. Libes calls in to his aid a new force. For, in this kind of substances, the repulsion having prevailed over the attraction, their particles are retained in their mutual position by the pressure of the atmosphere. But this force, it may be observed, being constant, makes no change in the results just stated; except that, if the pressure be taken away, the particles of the gas will be separated from one another, until their relative distance attains a point determined by the equality between the attraction of the earth and the repulsion of those particles. Now, since all bodies contain caloric, it may be asked how it happens that all bodies are not elastic, if caloric be the principle of elasticity?

To this M. Libes replies by the following remarks:—1st. Since there is not in nature any body, either perfectly hard, or perfectly soft, there is none but what possesses some degree of elasticity. 2dly. Perceptible signs of elasticity suppose the compression effected: it is not there-

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